



**THE INCORPORATION OF WORLD ENGLISHES INTO
EFL CLASSROOM PRACTICE: EFFECTS ON ANXIETY
IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING OF THAI
TERTIARY STUDENTS**

BY

MS. JARUDA RAJANI NA AYUTHAYA

**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
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ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
(INTERNATIONAL PROGRAM)
LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY
ACADEMIC YEAR 2016
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DISSERTATION

BY

MS. JARUDA RAJANI NA AYUTHAYA

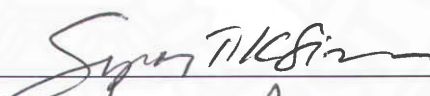
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THE INCORPORATION OF WORLD ENGLISHES INTO EFL CLASSROOM
PRACTICE: EFFECTS ON ANXIETY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING OF
THAI TERTIARY STUDENTS

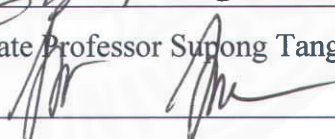
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Chairman


(Associate Professor Supong Tangkiengsirisin, Ph.D.)


Member and Advisor


(Assistant Professor Pragasit Sitthitikul, Ph.D.)


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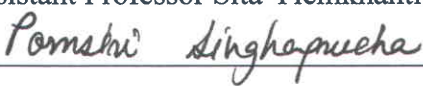
Member


(Assistant Professor Saksit Saengboon, Ph.D.)

Member


(Assistant Professor Sita Yiemkhantitavorn, Ph.D.)

Director


(Associate Professor Pornsiri Singhapreecha, Ph.D.)

Dissertation Title	THE INCORPORATION OF WORLD ENGLISHES INTO EFL CLASSROOM PRACTICE: EFFECTS ON ANXIETY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING OF THAI TERTIARY STUDENTS
Author	Ms. Jaruda Rajani Na Ayuthaya
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ABSTRACT

Foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) is prevalent among Thai learners, affecting language learning achievement. This problem has been rooted in ineffective pedagogical practice informed by native speaker (NS) ideology of English language teaching (ELT) policy in Thailand. This has made learners struggle to reach an unrealistic goal of NS norms as the only way to be proficient users of English, leading to low self-esteem and fear of speaking English. This study aims to investigate a paradigm shift in ELT as a means to reduce students' FLCA. By incorporating World Englishes (WE) into English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom practice, it is believed that students will develop a more realistic goal of being efficient English users rather than struggling, and failing, to become like native English speakers. As a result, they will develop self-esteem and more confidence in using their own English, considered a crucial anxiety-buffering factor. Quasi-experimental research with 92 first-year students at one government university in Bangkok was employed over 17 weeks in one of their required English courses.

FLCA questionnaires and English achievement tests were used as a pretest and posttest to find out anxiety and achievement levels, while a focus group interview and head notes yielded supplementary data. Means, SD, T-test results and content analysis were used for data analysis, showing a significant reduction in anxiety resulting from the WE-based instruction and an increase in achievement from the FLCA reduction. Therefore, this study concludes that global ELT curriculum should incorporate more WE in classroom practice as an alternative means to reduce FLCA and indirectly increase language achievement.

Keywords: English as an International Language, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA), Students' L2 Achievement, World Englishes

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Symbols/Abbreviations	Terms
CA	Communication Apprehension
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ESL	English as a second language
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
FLCA	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety
FLCAS	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
L1	The first language
L2	The second language
NNS	Non-native speakers of English
NS	Native speakers of English
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
WE	World Englishes

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Substantial research has been done to date on the factors affecting second or foreign language learning, and potential solutions to increase language-learning achievement. In the past, many second language scholars have explored factors and treatments from the perspective of cognitive development and the quality of instruction (Tintabut, 1998), looking at various Western education teaching methods such as audio-lingual or the communicative language teaching method (CLT) in the English Language Teaching (ELT) field worldwide (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011).

However, if we consider all related factors affecting learner's academic achievement and language learning outcomes, we also see a strong impact from affective factors, such as anxiety, self-esteem, and motivation (Bloom, 1976; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1993). Anxiety is considered one of the best predictors in accounting for individual differences in the success of second language learning acquisition (SLA) and is a key factor influencing student language learning (Tanielian, 2014; Wang, 2010; Bailey & Daley, 2001; Tintabut, 1998; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Gardner, 1985 as cited in Ozwuebutie).

Anxiety among second or foreign language students is prevalent, easily recognized by teachers and considered a major problem affecting language learning in many contexts (Tanelian, 2014; Ebrahimi, 2013; Lahtinen, 2013; Chiang, 2012; Awan, 2010; Occhipinti, 2009; Aydin, 2008; Tanveer, 2007). It is estimated that around one half of students encounter debilitating levels of language anxiety (Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Horwitz & Young, 1991) as cited in MacIntyre (1999).

Anxiety which is specifically related to foreign language contexts is defined by second language scholars as 'foreign language anxiety' (Zhang, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b as cited in MacIntyre, 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986). It is explained as the feeling of apprehension or tension particularly related to second or foreign language contexts, including speaking, listening and language learning, or the

overly concern and negative emotional reaction provoking when using or learning a second or foreign language (MacIntyre, 1999).

Journals continue to publish studies about anxiety as it relates to students' performance and a number of studies have consistently found a negative relationship between foreign language anxiety and various measures of foreign language achievement. (Tanielian, 2014; Ebrahimi, 2013; Chiang, 2012; Awan, 2010; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2010; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Lan, 2010; Noormohamadi, 2009; Wu, 2005 as cited in Chiang, 2012; Chang, 2004; Ozwuebuzie et al., 2001; Horwitz, 2001; Yan, 1998; Tintabut, 1998; Saito, 1996; Aida, 1994; Phillip, 1992; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Horwitz et al., 1986; Gardner, 1985 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al. 2001). Also, significant negative correlations were found between language anxiety and students' course grades (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b as cited in Young, 1999).

These findings are consistent with Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis. In order for successful language acquisition, anxiety needs to be low. Otherwise tense or nervous learners may 'filter out' input which make it unavailable for acquisition (Krashen, 1985). Anxiety may decrease the effectiveness of input by restricting the anxious learners' ability to pay full attention to what their instructor says (Tobias, 1977 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al., 1999). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994b) as cited in Young (1999) noted that anxiety could actually impede all three stages of language learning: input, processing, and output stages. In short, it can be said that anxiety tends to move learners away from participation that engages learners in comprehensible input and output indispensable to language acquisition (Swain, 1985).

Since anxiety is found to be one of the primary factors of language learning problems, many second language scholars have explored the potential sources of anxiety. They have identified several overlapping sources. The first of these is learner's personal factors such as the '*low self-esteem*', which link between low self-esteem and foreign language anxiety is well documented (Lahtinen, 2013; Occhipinti, 2009; Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999; Krashen, 1980 as cited in Ozwuebuzie 1999; Price, 1991; Hembry, 1991 as cited in Tintabut, 1998; MacIntyre & Noels, 1994 as cited in Young, 1999), '*unrealistic learning goals or expectations*' especially to acquire perfect accent, grammar, or sociocultural competence similar to

native speakers (NS) (Lahtinen, 2013; Mukminatien, 2012; Boriboon, 2011; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Occhipinti, 2009; Tanveer, 2007; Matsuda, 2003; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Baik & Shim, 2002; Young, 1999; Price, 1991; Paakkanen & Pirinen, 1990 as cited in Lahtinen, 2013; Horwitz, 1988 and Cenoz & Lucumberri, 1999 as cited in Occhipinti, 2009). It is found that such ‘unrealistic learning goal’ dominantly informed by NS norms may be the effect of ELT curricula implementation across cultural contexts, which put a great deal to help learners acquire native-like pronunciation, linguistic or even cultural norms (centered particularly around British and North American) through the methodologies, classroom materials, textbooks, instructional activities, and tests (Renandya, 2012; Jenkins, 2012; Mukminatien, 2012; Brown, 2012; Boriboon, 2011; Matsuda, 2003; McKay, 2002; Canagarajah, 1999). As a result, learners are likely to struggle to reach unrealistic learning goal (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; McKay, 2002), which then becomes the great potential source of tension and frustration in language learning. Thailand is no exception (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Buripakdi, 2012; Boriboon, 2011).

Moreover, the cause of anxiety related to ‘personal factor’ also involves ‘*fear of negative evaluation*’ or being incorrect in front of peers (Lahtinen, 2013; Boriboon, 2011; Occhipinti, 2009; Aydin, 2008; Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986). This is because many times in foreign language classroom, students are required to perform and evaluated according to unknown or uncertain linguistic and socio-cultural standards. So, foreign language learning involves risk-taking which students are likely to embarrass themselves, frustrate and challenge self-esteem than almost any other learning activities, which then leads to self-consciousness, fear, panic, or reticence (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1999). Also, such fear can be caused by some teachers who may correct students in a harsh and embarrassing ways (Chiang, 2012; Occhipinti, 2009; Tanveer, 2007). In addition, the sources also involve ‘*test anxiety*’ e.g. unfamiliar test tasks (Tseng, 2012; Aydin, 2008; Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986), ‘*classroom procedures*’ e.g. having students speak in the target language in front of class (Tseng, 2012; Occhipinti, 2009; Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999;), and ‘*beliefs about language*

teaching' e.g. teacher has a role to correct students constantly (Lahtinen, 2013; Ebrahimi, 2013; Tseng, 2012; Occhipinti, 2009; Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999).

1.1 Statement of Problems

According to the previous international, local studies and from the researcher's own experience, it is found that *anxiety* is considered as one of the primary problems affecting Thai students' language learning success (Tanielian, 2014). Further evidence has shown from several Thai scholars such as Boriboon (2011) who notes that many Thai learners fear to speak English as they don't want to lose their face or get socially discriminated as 'low competent' or even 'low-class' if they cannot speak with a NS accent. Most Thai people wish to acquire NS accent as it symbolizes that a person is 'competent', 'modern', or even from 'high-class' society (Buripakdi, 2012). This idea has worked against the construction of self-esteem and identities of majority of Thai learners and contributed to development of anxiety as well as affected language achievement (Choomthong, 2014), which is likely to be driven by EFL paradigm or Western ideological domination that tends to prioritize nativeness as the only way to become proficient or competent in English in Thailand (Boriboon, 2011). Moreover, this idea is consistent with Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) who supported that Thai students are imposed through educational system, teachers, and later internalize a heavy burden to struggle to reach '*unrealistic learning goals*' based on '*idealized NS model*', which make them devalue their self-esteem for being local non-nativeness. Based on the previous studies, students who begin with a low self-esteem in the foreign language class are perfect candidates for language anxiety (Price, 1991; Young, 1991; Krashen, 1985).

According to the researcher's baseline study, the anxiety problem among Thai learners could be also reaffirmed by my own experience as a government university teacher of English language. Based on students' logs which they were asked to write down their feelings and feedback towards English course I previously taught as well as informal communication, most of them who were first and second-year students from various faculties in both arts and science fields reported that they had high anxiety in learning English. Also, they revealed the fear of speaking English in class as they fear of being wrong in front of their peers. "*I am very worried about*

what my friends and teacher will think of me. I don't want to be seen as stupid if I say something wrong or show bad accent...it is very embarrassing" (Student A, May 2, 2014). Also, they reported that many times they think they clearly understood what they learned and knew the answer to respond to the teacher or in the test, but most of the time they forgot what were in their head, which is one of the main manifestations of learner's anxiety defined by scholar like Horwitz et al. (1986). *"I don't understand myself...I think I understood what my teacher explained, but when it comes to the test or the presentation in front of class, I always go blank, nervous and forgot everything I have prepared ...I feel really bad about myself"* (Student B, May 2, 2014). Further, some of them also devalue themselves and show self-perception of low ability which is considered as major source for language anxiety. *"I cannot learn English no matter how hard I try...I think can never speak English with good accent or like native speakers in this life. It's too difficult. I am too stupid to succeed in this subject"* (Student C, May 2, 2014). These statements have confirmed Choomthong (2014), and Methitham and Chamcharatsri's (2011) account that Thai students tend to highlight nativeness as the only way to be competent in English and devalue their local non-nativeness as it can impede their language acquisition or be obstacle to learning English successfully.

Another baseline to present the existing anxiety problems among Thai learners is drawn from the Director of Monitoring and Evaluation of Quality and Standard of Higher Education Group, Office of the Higher Education Commission (OHEC), Thailand, who affirmed that anxiety is the main obstacle for Thai learners to develop their English achievement. He noted:

For too long, many Thai students experience anxiety in learning and especially speaking English. They fear to be laughed at by their peers or corrected by their teachers embarrassingly if they come up with wrong answers or speak with strange or Thai accent differing from NS model. Also, they believe English is too difficult for them to learn and tend to show low self-perception of their ability to succeed in language learning. (Sombat Rungrassamee, personal communication, December 17, 2014).

From the aforementioned statements, they help confirm that ‘foreign language anxiety’ really exists as a major problem affecting students’ language learning process and success in Thai context, consistent to the previous mentioned international studies. Also, the main sources of language anxiety developed by Thai learners are consistent to the previous studies, in particular learner’s personal factor such as *low self-esteem, unrealistic learning goal* based on NS model, *fear of negative evaluation*, and *teacher’s assumption on NS ideology*.

1.2 Traditional ELT Curriculum and Proposed Solution based on World Englishes Notions

At this point, we may see that anxiety can be driven by many sources based on the review of previous studies both from international and local bases. However, one of the major factors appears to be related to the problems from ‘ELT curricula implementation’ which has been dominantly informed by NS norms, namely British and North American.

Therefore, this has prompted the researcher to question whether the shift in ELT curriculum to better serve the current EIL situation and learners’ communicative needs would be able to help reduce the anxiety problem among the learners. Before discussing the proposed solution, it is useful to briefly understand the traditional ELT curriculum in many second/ foreign learning contexts, including Thailand.

1.2.1 Traditional ELT curriculum

From the review of previous studies, the native speaker models have traditionally been used as a basis for curriculum development. For a long time, curriculum developers have assumed that students are required to learn the English of native speakers (Brown, 2012). Throughout the twentieth century, namely the model of language learning and the goal of second language teaching have been defined in reference to the knowledge and performance of the native speaker. Advanced L2 users still apologize for their foreign accents, while teachers and examiners still evaluate students by their successful approximation to native speakers. The ultimate goal of second language teaching is then for the L2 user to pass for a native speaker

(Cook, 2014). Thus, there is still a tendency to put a great deal of prestige on native-like competence, insisting that instructional activities should be designed to help learners to acquire native-like accents (Mukminatien, 2012; Jenkins, 2012; Tanveer, 2007; Matsuda, 2003), including cultural values and communicative norms (Takeshita, 2000 as cited in Yoshigawa, 2005; Canagarajah, 1999), even though all the students aspire to do is to be able to converse in simple English with their interlocutors who are non-native speakers (NNS) like themselves (Jenkins, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011).

The evidence that reflects the native speaker ideology among Thai teachers can be drawn from the researcher's personal communication with some Thai government university teachers. One of them noted that *"Even though I realize that there are variations in English language in different contexts, I prefer to teach American and British. I think the students need to learn the most correct English or Standard English when they learn English, not other varieties"* (Teacher A, personal communication, June 10, 2014). This statement is consistent with what Methitham (2009) reveals in his study by the questionnaire and interview with Thai teachers of English, which the majority seem to echo the voices and choices of those celebrated Western model and seem to perceive the native speaker ideology as neutral and apolitical tools in teaching English or contained no hidden ideology, as well as supported by Nomnian's study (2012) as cited in Choomthong (2014) which presents that Thai primary school teachers prefer to teach standard English pronunciation to young students in order to promote students' effective communication.

This is also consistent with international study by Renandya (2012) who personally communicated with experienced EFL teacher from China who believed that the desired instructional goal was to achieve native-like proficiency. The teacher noted:

Despite my willingness to accept different varieties of the English language, I myself try to speak English in the way that conforms to an inner circle standard variety. Otherwise, say, if my English is colored with too much Chinese flavor, my expertise in the language would be doubted: for one thing, my students would have the impression that I am not competent/ knowledgeable enough to teach

them. For another, the school would worry about the possibility that my students would seriously pick up some of the undesirable/ non-standard features of my English. (p.71)

Making the native standard varieties the target of learning has been pointed out by recent scholars to be thus linguistically and pedagogically problematic (Cook, 2014; Renandya, 2012; Jenkins, 2012; Sharifian & Marlina, 2012; Bayyurt & Altinmakas, 2012; McKay, 2012; Matsuda, 2003; Kachru, 1996). Teachers might create the classroom that becomes a potential source of tension and anxiety, where students reported their embarrassment and fear to speak if they do not speak English the way native speakers do (Boriboon, 2011; Occhipinti, 2009; Tanveer, 2007), or perform accordingly to native speaker behavioral acculturation norms (Takeshita, 2000 as cited in Yoshikawa, 2005). Besides, learners are likely to marginalize their values, lived experiences, and rather adopt the concept of the otherness and simple stereotyping such as their English is a 'bad English' or 'inferior' to those who are native speakers (McKay, 2002, 2012; Buripakdi, 2012), considered as main source for language anxiety development. Cook (2014) also supported that the native speaker goal is too much a burden for many L2 students and they will make far better progress if they can aim at a *target they can realistically achieve*, which is successful L2 users rather than failing continually to meet a monolingual native speaker target that they can never achieve.

This problematic issue of ELT curriculum based on native speaker ideology is also consistently supported by Thai scholars such as Boriboon (2011), Buripakdi (2012), and Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) who note that the identity and anxiety problems among Thai learners in using English language is possibly rooted in such ineffective pedagogical and instructional practices based on traditional EFL paradigm (contrast to EIL paradigm) which in favor of native-speakerism, while marginalizing learners' own values and making those who cannot acquire native speaker accent develop anxiety, fear to speak and be an obstacle to learning English successfully as mentioned earlier. Moreover, such native speaker ideology may not be compatible with current communicative needs of learners in the globalization era which communication rather occurs among non-native speakers (Choomthong, 2014; Jenkins, 2012; Mukminatien, 2012; Boriboon, 2011;

Kirkpatrick, 2007; McKay, 2003). In the other words, traditional ELT curriculum seems to be mismatched to the current ELT situation which the goal should aim for enabling the learners to communicate in international contexts, rather than reaching native speaker models that seems to be ‘unrealistic’ and ‘unnecessary’ (Cook, 2014; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; McKay, 2002, 2012).

1.2.2 Proposed solution based on World Englishes/ EIL notions

Among various proposed solutions to the anxiety problems the researcher have reviewed from the previous studies, one critical solution is a reconsideration of ELT curricula implementation or enriching ELT to be more addressing World Englishes (WE) notion that tries to go beyond the nativeness in order to be able to better serve the current English profile as an international language (EIL), or to highlight that the language no longer belongs to any particular speech community (McKay, 2012; Jenkins, 2009; Widdowson, 2003).

During the last three decades, *World Englishes* notions have emerged and gained more acceptance from the situation that English has been used in multicultural contexts as a lingua franca between people who share different first languages (Jenkins, 2009, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007). The changing profile of speakers, in which non-native speakers of English’ outnumber the native speakers, implies that, especially in terms of the use English as an International Language (EIL), one has a tendency to engage in English communication with non-native speakers than with native speakers of English (Smith, 1992 as cited in Lee, 2012). This also suggests that native speaker models should be put aside (Cook, 2014; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2013; Jenkins, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007; McKay, 2002; Kachru, 1996; Kasper, 1999 as cited in Jenkins, 2009) since the concept that all learners of English need or desire so-called ‘*native speaker competence*’ would not much contribute to understand their various language needs nor reflect the type of English the learners would need to use in their current and real-world intercultural lives outside (Renandya, 2012; Jenkins, 2009, 2012; Lee, 2012; Matsuda, 2003, 2012; McKay, 2002, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Kasper, 1999 as cited in Jenkins, 2009; Kachru, 1996).

Challenging the conventional norm of English in linguistic research and teaching, research on World Englishes investigates and describes varieties of English which are explained on the dimensions of phonology, lexicon, syntax,

pragmatic, discourse and literature creativity (Kachru & Nelson, 2006). From the proposed heterogeneous and critical conceptualizations of English instead of homogeneous entity concept, World Englishes also has important pedagogical implications: *first* is awareness-raising of the existence of different English varieties that are developed through historical, economic, and political process; *second*, to value other varieties including learner's own as legitimate modes of communication; *third*, linguistic heterogeneity together with the growing demand for global communication indicates the needs for learners to be able to listen to and comprehend diverse varieties of English for business, travel, study and other purposes as well as make themselves understood in international communication (Kubota, 2012).

From these pedagogical implications, if we shift the current ELT curricula implementation into World Englishes notions direction that has increasingly gained more acceptance in a global context, it could be another alternative solution that is created according to the real use of learners in current and authentic communication situations, which may help reduce stress and language anxiety among the learners through the witness of role of EIL and EIL users (Lee, 2012). With World Englishes/EIL notions, English language class could be more than a language class. It will no longer be the place that teacher will teach only linguistic knowledge, but rather the learners can be trained to critically reflect their current role as English users and able to seek their own voice in English by being oriented with 'fact about the current situation of English' rather than oriented by '*linguistic myth*' that facilitates native-speaker model or western-centered worldview from the teachers. According to Matsuda (2003), language class could serve as a beginning point for international understanding through language learning where students can expose to cultures different from their own and be shaped with more 'realistic belief about language learning' that "*being an effective EIL user does not require being NS*" (p.723). And this can help learners develop more positive attitude and self-perception while anxiety can be also reduced as supported by Lee (2012). On the top of that, once the anxiety is reduced, it can also help increase English language achievement among L2 learners.

According to the review of World Englishes studies both theoretical and practical aspects, some scholars have proposed the World Englishes or EIL curriculum blueprint (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011), and principles (McKay, 2012;

Brown, 2012; Renandya, 2012; Jenkins, 2012; Kachru, 1992). Also, there are a few studies confirming that these principles could be brought into classroom implementation by some EIL advocates: EIL-an innovative program at Monash University, Melbourne, Australia (Sharifian & Marlina, 2012); A WE-based English communication skills course at Turkish University (Bayyurt & Altinmakas, 2012); WE-Informed EIL curriculum at Chukyo University, Japan (D'Angelo, 2012); WE in a High School English class in Japan (Lee, 2012); Participating in the Community of EIL users through real-time news (Hino, 2012); EIL Activities and tasks for traditional English classrooms (Matsuda & Duran, 2012); Teaching WE via the internet at Open Cyber University of Korean (Baik & Shim, 2002); WE-an attitudinal neutrality activity at university in Thailand (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012).

Therefore, this study focused on the exploration of World Englishes curricula incorporation into EFL classroom practice. The researcher used the framework of Matsuda & Friedrich (2011) in designing the lessons to be used in the pre-existing English course with Thai tertiary students at one Government University in Bangkok. This study aimed to explore whether World Englishes-based lessons could help reduce foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), and at the same time could help increase achievement in language learning among the learners as a result of the FLCA reduction.

1.3 Research Needs

1.3.1 Anxiety treatment and WE/EIL notion

According to the previous studies, one of the observed factors causing foreign language anxiety is from ELT curricula implementation based on native speaker ideological domination, this issue has attracted little attention in language learning empirical research or previous proposed treatments to language anxiety, especially under the world situation where English has reached status of as an international language or lingua franca.

Various attempts have been provided for means to reduce FLCA, and appear to somehow succeed in doing so; for example, Suwantarathip and Wichadee (2010) who examined the effectiveness of cooperative learning (CL)

approach in reducing foreign language anxiety and its effects on language proficiency; Community Language Learning (CLL) approach by Koba et al. (2000) who engaged learners in a sense of involvement, equality, and building community through non-competitive atmosphere; Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Suggestopedia which put emphasis on pair or group work and learning through communication in the target language as a means to decrease language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986); Cognitive Modification (CM) method as a treatment focusing on changing the students' own cognitive appraisals; Systematic desensitization therapy (STD) focusing on teaching students how to relax in the presence of the anxiety stimuli (Mejias et al., 1991 as cited in Tanveer, 2007); Young (1999) and Tanveer (2007) who proposed the help for students to develop more 'realistic expectation' (learners will make mistakes or their pronunciation will not expected to be perfect like native norm), and creating situations or a small success where students can feel their success when using English.

However, we may see that none of these proposed treatments is offered based on World Englishes notion. Most of the existing suggestions still gear into traditional ELT or classrooms which the standard of competence in ELT has been oriented to the ultimate goal of achieving the competence close to native speaker's norms as well as used as a yardstick to judge students' success and failure (McKay, 2012; Mukminatien, 2012; Jenkins, 2006, 2009). Even though the definition of a 'small success' given to learners and the idea that helps learners create realistic learning goal which no need for native speaker accent are proposed by Young (1999) through various classroom activities, it seems not to be discussed under the World Englishes framework, nor clearly described how to be pedagogically introduced into classroom practice. Moreover, to date, many studies have focused only on how to apply a particular pedagogical principle and technique in the local classroom, whereas cultural, social and political aspects informed by EIL/World Englishes framework have been excluded from those studies (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011), which could be one of the main causes for low self-perceived and language tension among Thai and many ESL/EFL learners.

On the top of that, this study needs to be investigated in order to extend the line to Thai context from the previous World Englishes study conducted by

Lee (2012) with Japanese high school students which found that the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice could successfully develop more confidence, positive attitudes toward speaking their own English, lessen nervousness when students speak English in class and make them become more willing to volunteer for presentation in class from the contact to language diversities. The previous results from Lee's study with eight class times were derived from his own observation and students' feedback on the lessons.

Therefore, the idea of how World Englishes can be incorporated into classroom practice to help reduce FLCA among the learners through the development of realistic learning goal may need to be explored in greater detail in order to understand the assumption based on possibility affirmed by previous studies.

1.3.2 WE/EIL in classroom implementation

From an ever-growing number of English users all over the world, encouraged by globalization and migration, this has resulted in the cultural adaptation of the language in new contexts and the emergence of new varieties known as World Englishes (Kachru, 1996). The changing profile and landscape of English in which non-native speakers of English outnumber the native speakers, implies that ones tend to take part in English communication with non-native speakers of English than with native speakers (McKay, 2002, 2012). Therefore, this calls for a new approach to ELT curriculum, textbooks, and teaching pedagogy that help students develop knowledge and skills necessary for international and intercultural communication involving different varieties of English. According to this, World Englishes/ EIL notion has gained its recognition by many scholars (Cook, 1999, 2014; Jinadapitak & Teo, 2013; Brown, 2012; Mukminatien, 2012; Buripakdi, 2012; Renandya, 2012; Lee, 2012; Jenkins, 2009, 2012; McKay, 2002, 2012; Boriboon, 2011; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Matsuda, 2003; Canagarajah, 1999; Kachru, 1996; Kachru & Nelson, 1996).

However, even though World Englishes studies have gained more acceptance in theory in the last three decades (Lee, 2012; Jenkins, 2006, 2009; Bolton, 2005), there is far less discussion on the pedagogical implications as well as material development from comprehensive reviews of what has been learned about English pedagogy in the current era of globalization (McKay, 2012; Jenkins, 2006,

2012; Mukminatien, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Boriboon, 2011; Kachru, 1996).

There are significant evidences indicating the lack of World Englishes in classroom implementation across learning contexts. Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) note:

Much of the discussion on English in its international manifestation and its pedagogical implications has remained at the abstract level. Although some pedagogical examples may be provided within the context of theoretical discussions in order to clarify the concepts in hand, researchers have in general not engaged in profiling pedagogical ideas that are theoretically sound, informed by research, and at the same time specific enough to be useful in classroom...current practices may be inadequate in preparing learners for the use of English as an international language (p.333)

These ideas have been supported by many scholars like Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey (2011) who noted that to date, little detailed discussion of how different varieties of English may impact on language teaching models or methodologies has been discussed, and further research within ELT classroom is much needed. Also, the pedagogical implications of English as a lingual franca (ELF) which includes the key areas in particular: instructional materials, methods, assessment, the knowledge base of language teachers, the nature of language syllabus, has still far reaching implications for language teacher education.

Further, Cook (2014) asserts that for the past fifteen years that native speaker assumption has been increasingly under attack, language teaching in its practices still seldom bring into the light of day. Focusing on classroom materials, McKay (2012) points out the very little existence of material development for teaching English and serve its current status of being international language used in widely geographical and linguistically diverse, including published textbooks and classroom materials designed by local teachers, institutions, and Ministry of Education. This lack in World Englishes material development and classroom practice is also confirmed by other second language scholars from various learning contexts such as South Korea (Baik & Shim, 2002), Indonesia (Mukminatien, 2012), Japan

(Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Matsuda, 2003; Yoshigawa, 2005), and including Thailand (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Boriboon, 2011), which all mention the limitation of World Englishes-based classroom materials and practices, whereas the investigation on the existing materials like textbooks used in the non-native speaking countries show strong American and British English orientation, even majority of characters in the dialogues are mostly among native speakers.

Thai context is no exception. It is found that very little awareness, interest, and practice on World Englishes/EIL issue among Thai scholars and teachers (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Buripakdi, 2012; Baker, 2012; Boriboon, 2011; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011) as we can witness from the courses provided under EIL paradigm are very limited by few university in Thailand (Boriboon, 2011). Understanding World Englishes or EIL concept is very limited or in its infancy in Thai educational context, even among many university teachers still and teachers of primary and secondary levels who are even lack of knowledge about it since normally they do not keep updated with new research compared to university teachers (Nattheeraphong, 2004 as cited in Boriboon, 2011). Also, there appear to be numerous concerns about how to teach World Englishes (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013). The western ideology domination still much affect classroom practice, materials selection, and teaching methods in Thailand to be mainly informed by only native model (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Baker, 2012; Boriboon, 2011).

According to the previous studies, few attempts of World Englishes in ELT curricula implementation have been carried out. McKay (2012) also problematizes this few attempts since it implies the oversimplification of the language complexity and use in today situations as well as has not yet prepared learners to use English with other L2 speakers in the real ‘international contexts’ or not adequately prepare individuals to deal with diversity of English they hear. This has been supported by Canagarajah (2005) that communicative competence solely in British and American cultures cannot effectively and sufficiently contribute students to fully participate in cross-cultural communication, and it is *impractical* and *unrealistic* to focus on one or a couple of prevailing English-speaking cultures.

Therefore, in the light of the globalization namely the changing landscape of English in the world today when English is now *de facto* the language of international communication, the teacher's roles in ELT need to be expanded to embrace those roles that are well-attuned to the assumptions and principles for teaching English as international language (Renandya, 2012; McKay, 2012). Thailand is no exception, especially in the context of ASEAN that is planning to launch its ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) by the end of 2015 and English is the official language of ASEAN, meaning English will facilitate free international movement of goods and people within the region (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2009 as cited in Lieske, 2014). In the other words, Thai learners need English to communicate with people of different mother tongues rather than to native speakers from only US or UK (Tanelian, 2014; Baker, 2011; Todd, 2006), which means that learners need a paradigm shift in ELT curriculum (Cook, 2014; Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Boriboon, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2007; McKay, 2012; Matsuda, 2003), which can help prepare and develop necessary knowledge and skills for being competent EIL users in a divergent range of cultural backgrounds, aware of the existence of the varieties, understand and be able to cope with variability in English and develop appropriate attitudes towards this variability (Kubota, 2012; Lee, 2012; Mukminatien, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Matsuda, 2003; McKay, 2002; Baik & Shim, 2002).

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study can contribute to both teaching and learning aspects. The results of the study can be used as another alternative for English language teachers, practitioners, and administrators to create the curriculum or lessons based on the real current English use situation, which may enhance the efficiency of ELT, while at the same time may also help reduce learners' foreign language classroom anxiety, as well as increase their language achievement through the development of realistic learning goal in classroom practice that goes beyond the nativeness.

1.4.1 Contribution to teaching

This study may provide another alternative for teachers to design the curriculum or lessons which can serve the current EIL situation where English has

reached its international status and now rather being used among non-native speakers more than to native speakers. The incorporation of World Englishes in classroom practice could be another alternative that is *more realistic, up-to-date, and supportive of globalization*, as asserted by Cook (1999), Jindapitak and Teo (2013), Boriboon (2011), Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) who called for an urgent need to engage learners in a pedagogy that goes beyond the nativeness.

Moreover, for contribution to teaching, teachers may also help fight *ethnocentrism*s and *linguicism* (Phillipson, 1992) through their teaching by encouraging learners to develop their understanding and awareness about human diversity and equality (Tanelian, 2014), which is noted to be an essential characteristic of any educator (Said, 2003 as cited in Bolton, 2005). Anan (Received Nobel Prize, 2001) has also asserted ‘worldly humanism’ view: “*we must not adopt an idea that there is one people in possession of the truth or one answer to world’s ills... such ideas have done untold harm throughout history...we gain strength by combining the foreign with the familiar...*” (par.1), which could also challenge the concept of one size fits all in ELT around the globe that is still much based on only native speaker model.

According to monolingual view or native speaker ideology that teachers and students may hold, it could also contribute students to ignore the human diversity, differences or varieties of English which are unavoidably influenced by social, political and pragmatic realities of different contexts, or even leads learners to develop negative attitude or linguistic prejudice in cross cultural communication such as perceiving other varieties accents or vocabularies as *inferior, non-standard, or wrong* version of English (Matsuda, 2003), or even have no mutual respect required for success in any international communications (Baik & Shim, 2012). In the other words, such negative attitude would do more harm than good when only one or a couple particular linguistic and cultural model is being imposed onto learners, especially when that language is considered as ‘international language’ (Boriboon, 2011; Mukmination, 2012), which implies the meaning that such language does not belong to any particular speech community (Jenkins, 2009; Widdowson, 2003).

With the incorporation of World Englishes in classroom practice, learners could develop *internationally-minded characteristics* by showing awareness

of diversities, mutual respects, understanding, and compassion for other standard varieties of English (Matsuda, 2002, 2012). This is because World Englishes/ EIL based lessons are developed on ‘critical ELT lens’, which do not give an importance to only literacy, but also to the *awareness* of how ‘power’, ‘politics’, ‘equality’, ‘desire’, and ‘differences’ may have an impact on the language.

1.4.2 Contribution to learning

The incorporation of World Englishes into EFL classroom practice could be another alternative to be used as a treatment to reduce foreign language classroom anxiety and enhance the previous suggested treatments in teaching methods as mentioned earlier to be more effective.

Further, this study could also help improve learners’ English achievement as a result of the reduction of anxiety, gained from the development of self-esteem and new set of realistic learning goal that the students witness the notion of how they can use English to serve their own real current communicative needs that no longer restricted to native-like competence. Rather, learners are oriented and valued for being ‘*competent users of EIL*’, who have ability to effectively use English to serve their own specific needs focusing on language meaning as a core of communication function more than adopting linguistic bias, and at the same time also respect the needs of others. To achieve such EIL competent, the learners need to be equipped with not only linguistic competence, but also other competences like pragmatic, strategic, and other knowledge needed for international communication, which can truly enable them to be successful in international communication.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

1. To explore whether the incorporation of World Englishes in classroom practice helps reduce Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) of Thai tertiary students.
2. To explore whether the result of the reduction of anxiety from the incorporation of World Englishes in classroom practice helps increase English language achievement of Thai tertiary students.

1.6 Research Questions

1. Does the incorporation of World Englishes in classroom practice help reduce Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) of Thai tertiary students?
2. Does the reduction of anxiety from the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice help increase English language achievement of Thai tertiary students?

1.7 Hypothesis

1. There will be a significant difference in FLCA level between students in WE incorporation class and traditional EFL class. ('Traditional ELT class' in this study is operationally defined as the class which completely depends on only native-speaker model)
2. There will be a significant difference in student's English language achievement between World Englishes class and traditional ELT class, where World Englishes class might be higher.

1.8 Terms of Definitions

1. 'Foreign language classroom anxiety' (FLCA) refers to the feeling of apprehension and tension particularly related to second or foreign language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning, or the worry and negative emotional reaction provoking when using or learning a second or foreign language. FLCA can be measured by a questionnaire Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), which adapted from Elaine K. Horwitz et al. (1986), Yuki Aida (1994), and Tintabut's questions (1998), and drew on Young (1999), Horwitz et al. (1986) and Aida's (1994) framework, consisting five components:

(1) *Communication Apprehension (CA)* and *Fear of negative evaluation*. CA is the anxiety related to communication with others in real communication or anticipated communication including both speaking and listening in a foreign language, while 'fear of negative evaluation' is anxiety about others' evaluations, distress over their negative evaluations, and the expectation that others

would evaluate oneself negatively, which can be related to unrealistic learning expectations based on native speaker models.

(2) *Fear of failing class* is worry about failing to perform tasks well, or fear of failure.

(3) *Comfortness in speaking with native English speaker* is the ease feeling when communicating with native speakers of English.

(4) *Negative attitude towards the English Class* is negative emotion about English language such as language difficulty.

(5) *Unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem*. Unrealistic learning goal means the set learning goal based on idealized native speaker model or competence including linguistic form, cultural values, communicative norms, and pronunciation or accent, while low self-esteem means the low confidence and negative perception about self.

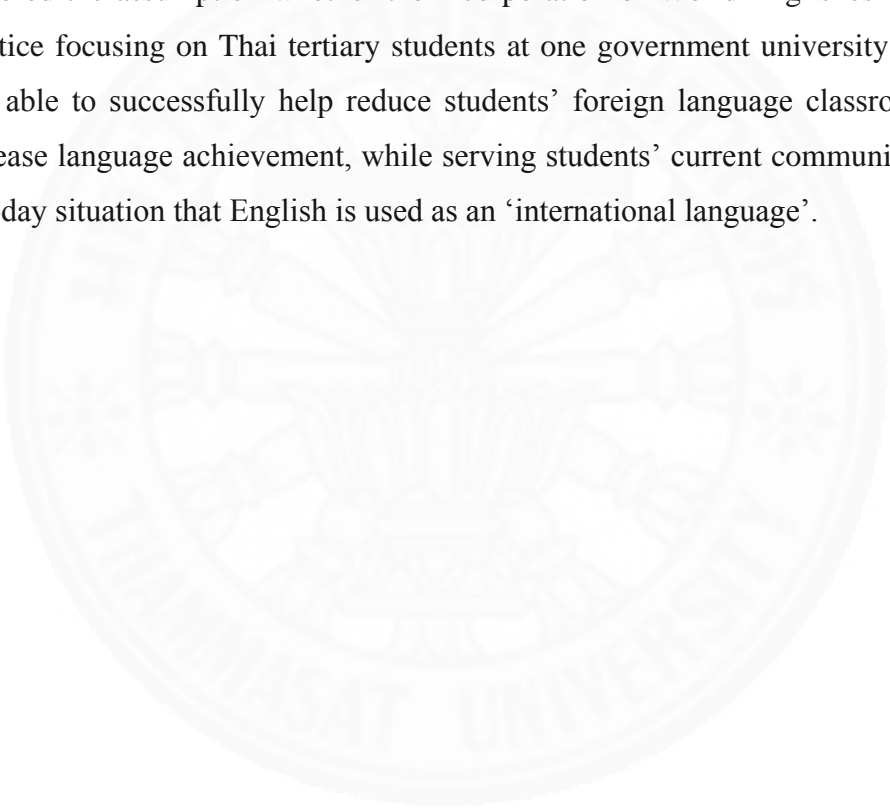
2. 'EIL' or 'World Englishes notion' in this study is associated with the Kachruvian approach which argues for the importance of inclusivity and pluricentric in approaches to the linguistics of English worldwide. In this study, the meaning focuses on multiplicity of English, any success in international communication among people who do not share the first language do not require one or a couple particular models, and highlights the freedom that learners have in designing their own Englishes without being restricted by NS norms since English becomes an international language. The goal of World Englishes paradigm/curriculum is to empower the learners of English to be competent EIL users who are able to use English to serve their own specific needs and at the same time respect other variability. To become competent EIL users, ELT curriculum should be composed of three aspects equally: *linguistic competence*; *other competences (strategic competence, pragmatic competence)*; *other knowledge (three types of culture which are global, future interlocutors, and own cultural knowledge)*. Therefore, World Englishes incorporation into classroom practice is not a class that teaches a particular linguistic variety, but rather focuses on teaching all these three aspects based on Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) framework.

3. 'Traditional ELT curriculum/lessons/classroom' refers to the ELT curricula implementation in language classrooms, which creates the lessons, use

classroom materials, and teaching pedagogy informed by EFL paradigm that considers native speakers as the best teaching and learning model.

4. ‘Achievement in English language learning’ is the language learning outcomes in the form of scores measured by English achievement test developed by the researcher. The achievement scores are measured based on the pre-existing course objective (Foundation English II course).

In conclusion, in response to the emergence issues of World Englishes, and foreign language classroom anxiety problems among Thai learners, this study explored the assumption whether the incorporation of World Englishes in classroom practice focusing on Thai tertiary students at one government university in Bangkok was able to successfully help reduce students’ foreign language classroom anxiety, increase language achievement, while serving students’ current communicative needs in today situation that English is used as an ‘international language’.



CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) and Language Learning

While the worldwide spread of the English language has enlarged the demand for good communication skills in English, many learners of English often experience stress, worries and anxiety while learning to speak English (Horwitz et al., 1986). This problem exists among L2 learners, and even very advanced L2 learners also feel anxious while learning in English class, particularly speaking English in some situations (Tanveer, 2007). Many learners wonder why they cannot speak English well, because their efforts do not bring about their intended performance. According to Horwitz et al. (1986), these learners may be good learners in other situations, but when it comes to foreign language class, they claim to have a ‘mental block’ against learning a foreign language. Many second language researchers (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, as cited in Occhipinti, 2009; Horwitz, 1986) have noted that these feelings of anxiety are specifically related to learning and speaking a second or foreign language, which distinguishes learning a foreign language from learning other subjects or skills.

Many researchers have proposed that foreign language anxiety is a debilitating phenomenon that must be overcome by students so that they can take full advantage of foreign language learning and instruction (Horwitz et al., 1986). Therefore, in several previous studies, there have been many attempts to seek the solutions to reduce foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) with the hope to increase learners’ language ability or achievement. Before we discuss the previous attempts to reduce FLCA, it is useful to define FLCA and specify the types, components, sources, and its effects.

2.1.1 Foreign language classroom anxiety concept and definition

Anxiety is an unpleasant emotional state filled with the feelings of nervousness and apprehension (Freud, 1924 as cited in Chiang, 2012). It normally happens when people face uncertainty or unknown situations that they cannot control,

which can cause them to make wrong decision, perform badly, have trouble concentrating, anticipate the worst, become depressed, as well as suffer from muscle weakness, stomach aches, shortness of breath, or headaches (Chiang, 2012). More and more research has expanded the research angles from psychology and personality theory to language learning.

Among emotional factors in foreign language learning, anxiety appears to be one of the major influential factors affecting language learning performance and achievement (Tanielian, 2014; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Ozwuebutie et al., 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986).

Anxiety that is restricted to the language learning context falls into the category of specific anxiety reactions, differentiating people who are generally anxious in all situations from those who are anxious only in a specific situation such as the foreign language classroom. The term ‘foreign language anxiety’ was coined by Horwitz et al. (1986) as a specific anxiety, affecting the learning of second/target language. Second or foreign language anxiety is commonly considered as a type of situational or contextual anxiety that is specifically related to second/foreign language situations. Horwitz et al. (1986) define it as: “...a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p.128).

Also, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994b) as cited in Tintabut (1998) define FLCA as “tension or apprehension which are specifically associated with second or foreign language learning contexts, covering listening, speaking, and learning”. For many students, foreign language class can be more anxiety-provoking than any other courses they take (Bailey, 1996; Phillip, 1992; Aida, 1994, Horwitz et al., 1986).

According to Horwitz et al. (1986), there is a difference between second or foreign language and first language anxiety because when communicating in a native language, it is often not difficult to understand what others say or to make oneself understood. However, when learning a foreign language, individual communication efforts are often evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic and socio-

cultural standards. Accordingly, second or foreign language communication involves risk-taking and can become problematic. Any performance in second or foreign language is likely to challenge an individual's self-perception as a competent communicator, leading to self-consciousness, anxiety, fear, or reticence. According to Tsui (1996, p.155) as cited in Occhipinti (2009), due to the uniqueness of foreign language learning itself, students are required to learn new linguistic rules and to perform in a language that they are still attempting to master. Hence, they tend to enter into a completely different dimension and encounter difficulties when performing in the foreign language. The occurrence of frequent mistakes may put them in vulnerable position, leaving them open to criticism and negative evaluations. Therefore, foreign language anxiety may be distinguished from other academic anxieties such as those associated with mathematics or science because there is no other field of study that implicates the self-concept and self-expression to the degree that language study does. Guiora (1983) as cited in Horwitz et al. (1986) argues that language learning itself is a profoundly unsettling psychological proposition as it directly threatens an individual's self-concept and worldview.

In attempting to describe the way in which language anxiety is likely to develop, Young (1986), and MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) as cited in Young (1999) note that at the earliest stage of language learning, students will encounter various learning difficulties such as comprehension, grammar and other aspects. If students become anxious about such experiences or if they feel uncomfortable making mistakes, state anxiety occurs. After experiencing these repeated occurrences of state anxiety, students are likely to associate such anxiety with the foreign language as a specific situation, or develop FLCA. When this happens, they will then expect to be anxious in second or foreign language contexts like classrooms.

2.1.2 Types of anxiety

There are two main definitions of anxiety that have been given by Alpert and Haber (1960) as cited in Occhipinti (2009): the first one is '*facilitating anxiety*'- described as the positive force which may lead learners to become even more motivated for language learning; the second one is '*debilitating anxiety*', which tends to

motivate learners to withdraw from the language task and leads them to adopt avoidance behaviors. However, even though there are two perspectives on definitions of anxiety, almost all studies until the present describe foreign language anxiety as an affective factor which has a stable and negative impact at all stages of foreign language learning and production, or considered as *debilitating anxiety* (Tanielian, 2014; Lahtinen, 2013; Chiang, 2012; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Occhipinti, 2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999; Phillip, 1992; MacIntyre, 1999; MacIntyre, 1995; Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al., 1986).

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) as cited in MacIntyre (1999) also distinguish the nature of anxiety in terms of three broad perspectives: 1) *trait anxiety* refers to features of an individual's personality that are stable over time with a possibility to respond with nervousness in any situation or across several situations; 2) *state anxiety* refers to a here and now experience or a sense of uneasiness that may be experienced at a particular moment in time, as a reaction to a certain type of situation (like situation specific anxiety), such as trying to communicate in a foreign language or test taking; 3) *situation specific anxiety* is quite similar to trait anxiety, except it applies to a single or certain situation only such as using a second language, giving a speech, or test taking, which tends to be stable over time but not necessarily consistent across various situations like trait anxiety.

From a theoretical perspective, FLCA is a form of *situation specific anxiety* (Spielberger, 1966 as cited in MacIntyre, 1999). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) as cited in Occhipinti (2009) explain that the development of FLCA features repeated negative experiences with the foreign language, which may produce elevations in the state anxiety (here and now anxiety). After frequent occurrences of state anxiety, associated with poor performances in the second language, anxiety becomes reliably associated with the foreign language class, distinguished by other contexts. Therefore, research on FLCA should employ measures of anxiety experienced in second or foreign language context like classrooms. This contributed to the development of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale or FLCAS by Horwitz et al. (1986), a 33-item

Likert-type instrument that aims to assess the degree to which students feel anxious during language classes based on three related performance anxieties: 1) communication apprehension; 2) test anxiety; and 3) fear of negative evaluation.

2.1.3 Components and factors of FLCA

Since foreign language anxiety involves performance evaluation within both an academic and social context, Horwitz et al. (1986) divided the beneficial components of foreign language anxiety into three related performance anxieties. Firstly, *communication apprehension* (CA) is explained as a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with others. It is likely that people who normally have problems speaking in groups tend to encounter even greater difficulty speaking in a foreign language class where they cannot sufficiently control the communicative situation and their performance is constantly monitored. People affected by CA tend to have low confidence when speaking English in class or become anxious if they are required to speak English without preparation (Horwitz et al., 1986). Secondly, *test anxiety* refers to a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure. Test-anxious students often put unrealistic expectation or beliefs on themselves and feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure. Oral tests have the potential of provoking both test anxiety and communication apprehension in susceptible students. Thirdly, *fear of negative evaluation* is described as apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively, which can be reflected in behaviors such as sitting passively in class. Although it is quite similar to test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation is not limited to test-taking situations; rather it may occur in any social evaluative situations such as speaking in a foreign language class.

There are actually two main perspectives to identify language anxiety as pointed out by Horwitz and Young (1991b) as cited in MacIntyre (1999): 1) language anxiety is simply a transfer of anxiety from another domain such as test anxiety or public speaking; 2) something about language learning makes language anxiety a unique experience or produces a unique type of anxiety. Bridging between these two

perspectives, Horwitz et al. (1986) argued that language anxiety is stemmed from the three primary sources as mentioned above or the three building blocks for FLCA: *communication apprehension*, *test anxiety*, and *fear of negative evaluation*.

Another perspective proposed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) as cited in Occhipinti (2009) is that learners of a foreign language do not have anxious experiences in language learning at the beginning, but rather FLCA is developed after the learners have created a certain belief, feeling, or attitude about language learning experience. This suggests that sources of FLCA may not be directly derived from learners' themselves, but rather from the development of language learning experience during their learning period. This implies that it is essential for teachers to help students create positive attitudes, beliefs and learning experiences, as opposed to tense or anxious experiences that can prevent them from success in their language performance.

Young (1999) summarized the four main factors causing FLCA: learners' personal factors; teachers' beliefs regarding language teaching; classroom procedures; and aspects of language testing.

Firstly, *learners' personal factors* involves 'fear of negative evaluation', 'low self-esteem', 'misconceptions about language learning', 'unrealistic learning goals', and 'communication apprehension'.

Young (1999) asserted that the most essential source of anxiety when learning a language appears to be the '*fear of negative evaluation*' or fear of speaking in front of others using a language in which they are not proficient. For this reason, it is more likely that students will become embarrassed or frustrated, challenging their self-esteem and sense of identity to a greater degree than other learning activities. Chiang (2012) mentioned that students reported negative evaluation as the source of anxiety in language learning. This could be because Chinese people are greatly concerned about saving face, so they don't like to receive low evaluations or criticism about themselves such as when they are corrected by their teachers on their grammatical or pronunciation errors. This would make them feel they have lost face and contribute to their unwillingness to speak up in English class. This may then be a reason why they

experience more fear of negative evaluation than any other anxiety sources, which may be the case for Thai students as well, as the culture also puts a high emphasis on saving 'face'. Students have indeed shown high levels of concern over foreign language errors, fear of risking their own self-esteem in front of their classmates, or of being derided by the teacher as he or she corrects their mistakes in a harsh manner. Another study by Young (1990) showed that students would be more inclined to answer voluntarily if they were not so afraid of making a mistake. These findings were supported in studies by Horwitz et al. (1986), Price (1991), and Koch and Terrell (1991) as cited in Occhipinti (2009).

Another issue related to the personal factor is '*low self-esteem*'. Horwitz et al. (1986) noted that there may be no other area of study that has the ability to negatively impact self-concept as much as studying a language does. This might be because learners are required to perform in a language that they have not mastered yet, and have to enter into a completely different world that requires continual evaluation by teachers and peers. The occurrence of frequent mistakes may thus put them in vulnerable positions open to criticism and challenge their self-perception. As a result, learning a foreign language can threaten students' self-esteem. Krashen (1980) as cited in Ozwuebutie, Bailey, and Daley (1999), Price (1991), Hembry (1991) and Young (1991) as cited in Tintabut (1998) found that self-esteem is significantly correlated to language anxiety. Students who begin a foreign language class believing their foreign language skills are poor are far more likely to experience language anxiety. Vice versa, anxious students tend to have a more negative self-perception and underestimate the quality of their speaking, writing and comprehension ability.

According to MacIntyre (1995), Spielberger (1976) as cited in Tintabut (1998), and Leary (1999) as cited in Occhipinti (2009), the relationship between *anxiety (affective)*, *cognition*, and *behavior* is recursive; in other words, one affects the other. To illustrate, the requirement to respond and interact in a second language may result in anxiety and worry. Cognitive performance is reduced as attention is divided, and

performance (behavior) suffers, resulting in negative self-evaluations and a continuing decline in performance (behavior) (MacIntyre, 1995).

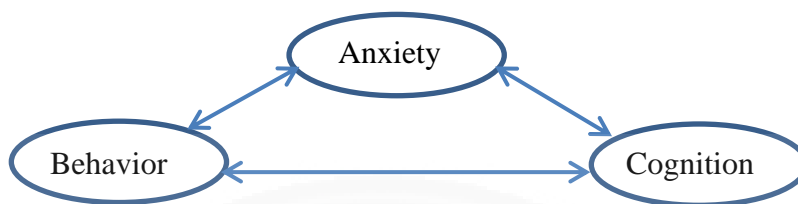


Figure 2.1. Recursive relations among anxiety (affective), cognition and behavior.

From “How Does Anxiety Affect Second Language Learning?: A Reply to Sparks and Ganschow,” by P.D. MacIntyre, 1995, *Modern Language Journal*, 79(1), p.93.

In addition, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994 as cited in Young, 1999) note that when anxiety is produced, it may affect the behavior or language output. Students may take more time to achieve the same results as their relaxed counterparts, or take more time to write a test, and the quality of their written or spoken output may be diminished.

This recursive relationship is consistent with Krashen’s hypothesis (1980) as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al. (1999) in that the affective filter may prevail among many L2 students, leading to their low self-esteem which makes them unreceptive to language input, thereby impeding the learning process. This shows that as self-deprecation arises, it will worsen performance even more.

Further, it is likely that anxiety will lead learners to form erroneous or excessively negative expectations, resulting in decreased motivation, effort, and ultimately, achievement. According to MacIntyre and Noels (1994) as cited in Young (1999), students’ self-perceptions of their proficiency may be affected by language anxiety. On the one hand, students with high language anxiety level are likely to underestimate their ability to speak, comprehend, and write in a second language. At the same time, having expectations of failure could cause learners to maintain high levels of anxiety. Moreover, by underestimating their ability, students’ anxiety grows and they

become less able to learn. They tend to avoid learning and participating in classroom communication activities that would actually facilitate language learning. In short, not only does language anxiety influence learners' language performance, but it also affects the way they perceive their own performance.

Students' self-perception about their own ability to learn a foreign language is considered the most significant predictor of whether they will experience anxiety. Ganschow and Sparks (1991) as cited in Ozwuebutzie et al. (1999) note that problems with learning a foreign language are directly tied to students' self-perception concerning the difficulty of learning a foreign language. They also found in 1994 that those who were highly anxious about their language course found it to be more difficult than those with low anxiety.

Another factor related to learners' personal factors is a certain '*misconception about language learning*,' which can increase students' tension and frustration in class. Certain erroneous beliefs can be an impediment to the development of second language fluency; for example, many students believe that they should avoid saying anything in a foreign language until they are able to say it correctly, while guessing unknown foreign language words is also unacceptable (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991 as cited in Tanveer, 2007). In addition, many students may attach too much importance to trying to be perfect or achieving a native-like accent or pronunciation (Young, 1999). Takeshita (2000, p.7) as cited in Yoshikawa (2005) found that "*many Japanese still believe that English is the property of the U.S.A. and Britain. They are ashamed if they do not speak English the way native speakers do. Behavioral acculturation is also presupposed as a must*" (p.7). According to Yoshikawa (2005), Japanese students have commonly been taught this in school. As a result, they perpetually perceive that British or American standard varieties are the only 'true model', and 'native speakers' from these two varieties are the best source to learn English. This is also similar to Thai learning context based on Jindapitak and Teo's study (2012), which found that students also perceive the native speaker model accent as the only acceptable standard English.

Such misconceptions can be overlapped with another factor related to learners' personal factors, which is '*unrealistic learning goals*'. This is because some misconceptions held by learners can also be considered unrealistic goals, in particular, achieving a native speaker model accent or perfect grammar every time they speak. According to Young (1999), Ohata (2005) as cited in Tanveer (2007), Shimotsu and Mottet (2009) as cited in Lahtinen (2013), Ganschow et al. (1994) and Ellis (1994) as cited in Occhipinti (2009), unrealistic goals or self-set standards by learners can result in great anxiety, especially when reality does not match their original expectations.

Further evidence on the importance of learners' unrealistic goals came from Price (1991) as cited in Young (1999), who found that the sources of language anxiety in the classroom based on the interviews with students were exaggerated concern over making errors or making a fool of oneself in pronunciation, which is why they wished to develop an accent that approximates that of a native speaker. Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) pointed out some belief the students hold that can be problematic, such as *it is necessary to speak like native speaker when learning a foreign language*. This is consistent with the findings from Tanveer (2007), in which students reported anxiety when they could not pronounce words like native speakers. This might be because many students place too much importance on pronunciation and tend to believe that the native accent is the only correct standard (Matsuda, 2003; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012); thus, performing differently could lead to a high possibility of being wrong, resulting in a negative evaluation. Moore (1997) as cited in Occhipinti (2009) points out that "*...incorrect pronunciation, together faulty speech melody and rhythm immediately marks one as a foreigner*" (p.11).

According to Horwitz (1988) and Cenoz and Lecumberri (1999) as cited in Occhipinti (2009), if students believe that they must acquire a perfect accent and pronunciation, similar to native speakers, they start worrying when they realize that it is almost impossible to acquire these in a short time. According to Paakkanen and Pirinen (1990) as cited in Lahtinen (2013), when students talk, they are very wary of their pronunciation and accent. Students may even become frustrated as they compare their

own English accent to those of native speakers, such as Americans, who have become the culture-defining norm in English, even in Finland.

Such native speaker goals set by L2 learners are likely to become learning obstacles as their expectations are *unrealistic*, and, in fact, *unnecessary* (Cook, 2014). Moreover, this monolithic view of NS norm-only can be considered unrealistic as it not only doesn't match the real world situation where English is now ELF, but the extent of L2 exposure required to gain full native competence is not sufficient for L2 individuals to attain English native speaker competence (McKay, 2001, 2003). Consequently, when learners have unrealistic learning goals or expectations of speaking the same way as a native speaker while at the same time having limited L2 exposure, language anxiety tends to develop because their expectation and reality clash. And once this clash happens, learners are likely to develop a 'specific-situation anxiety' like FLCA.

Moreover, the goal to reach native-like competence may produce anxiety, especially for older people in terms of pronunciation or phonology aspects. Research has shown that those who are older may perform less well than younger counterparts when learning a foreign language. Also, it has been found that older students report higher levels of foreign language anxiety (Crook, 1979; and Hunt, 1989 as cited in Ozwuebie et al., 1999). The relationship between age and language anxiety could be due to the difficulty of mastering the more complex aspects of a language such as phonology and morphology, and speak it without an accent significantly increase with age (Lieberman, 1984; and Newport, 1986 as cited in Ozwuebie et al., 1999).

The last issue related to personal factors is '*communication apprehension*' (CA). Communication apprehension relates to an individual's overall anxiety associated with communicating orally. Communication apprehension has a negative relationship to three crucial aspects of learning: communication competence (i.e., knowledge), communication skill, and positive affect (McCroskey & Beatty, 1998). Students who have high communication apprehension tend to think negatively about school and perform worse than their low communication apprehension peers (McCroskey, Booth-Butterfield & Payne, 1989). Those with high communication

apprehension tend to avoid talking to their classmates and teacher in class (McCroskey & Sheahan, 1978). Since communication apprehension usually influences an individual's willingness to join in communication activities, it interferes with students' ability, willingness, and limits how often they talk with their teachers (Matthew & Scott, 2006).

The second factor (1999) is certain '*beliefs about language teaching*'. This factor can affect instructor-learner interactions and is considered another important source for language anxiety. Some teachers believe that they must become drill sergeants or intimidate their students into learning. Other teachers act as if they have absolute power in class rather than serving as a facilitator, with their primary role being to correct students in order to prevent them from learning the wrong input. These behaviors can lead to foreign language anxiety (Young, 1999). This factor also involves the way and how often teachers normally correct learners' errors in class, which can cause learners to gradually form a negative self-perception that they are incapable in learning language or even stupid every time they come up with the wrong answers in front of their friends (Price, 1991 as cited in Tintabut, 1998).

According to Young (1991) as cited in Tanveer (2007), the issue for students is not error correction itself, but the frequency, and most significantly, the ways that errors are corrected. However, even though many students show anxiety over L2 errors, some are also aware of the importance and usefulness of error correction as means of learning to speak a language well (Young, 1990 as cited in Occhipinti, 2009).

The third factors based on Young (1999) is '*particular classroom procedures*', such as individual presentations in front of the classroom, which provoke great anxiety, or when the students are called to respond orally and exclusively in class. The last factor relates to '*test anxiety*', such as particular test formats like frequent oral tests, listening comprehension, or the exposure to unfamiliar test tasks that students have never practiced before in class. However, since FLCA is a complex perception, it could involve more factors than what have been presented here. These are not included as they are beyond the scope of this study.

2.1.4 Manifestations and effects of FLCA on language learning

Tanveer's (2007) study found that the obvious signs of anxious students were blushing, perspiration, rubbing their palms, unsteady voice, reluctance, poor performance in oral activities, lack of enthusiasm to talk in class, avoiding eye contact, speaking too quickly or slowly, and avoiding situations that appear to be anxiety provoking such as speaking activities. The study of Ozwuebuzie et al. (1999) also indicated that the learners who are highly anxious may display psychological symptoms such as dry mouths, wet hands, perspiration, general tension, muscle contraction, and increased heartbeats when they feel anxious in second language communication. Gregersen (2005) who studied non-verbal behaviors or *non-verbal cues* of language learners found that anxious learners evinced minimal facial expressions, including a reduction in smiling and eye contact with the teacher, and they were often more inflexible and exhibited a closed posture.

According to Truitt (1995) as cited in Tintabut (1998), there are three means to observe anxiety: 1) *behaviors* such as a staggered voice, uneasy gestures, or non-verbal behaviors like avoiding eye contact, limited facial expressions like smiling (Gregersen, 2005); 2) *physical changes* such as perspiration, heart rate, blood pressure; 3) *self-reports* through interviews or questionnaires like the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). However, it should be noted that the first two approaches can be less reliable as other variables apart from anxiety can be represented in the observed behaviors or the observed physical changes. Therefore, the last approach is commonly preferred by most researchers.

Horwitz et al. (1986) also proposed the manifestations of FLCA and noted that anxious foreign language learners tend to have trouble concentrating, become forgetful, sweat, have palpitations, and are likely to display avoidance behavior such as skipping class and delaying homework.

Anxiety arousal has a number of specific effects on academic, cognitive, social, and personal areas. Several studies have demonstrated that high levels of language anxiety can have a negative impact on learners' language performance (Horwitz et al.,

1986; Phillip, 1992; Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 2001; Saito, 1996; Awan, 2010; Tanielian, 2014; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Ozwuebuzie et al., 2001; Lan, 2010; Chang, 2004; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2010; Chiang, 2012; Gardner, 1985 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al. 2001; Noormohamadi, 2009; Yan, 1998; Wu, 2005 as cited in Chiang, 2012). In addition, '*language anxiety*' is considered a significant indicator for foreign language achievement (Gardner, 1985 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al., 2001), and a primary predictor of second language acquisition (Horwitz et al., 1986; Wang, 2010). Negative correlations between language anxiety and course grades have also been shown in a variety of language courses (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b as cited in Young, 1999).

This can be supported by Krashen (1980), who mentions that learner's affective filter, such as anxiousness or diminished confidence, prevents learners from fully utilizing the comprehensible input. For successful language acquisition, a learner's affective filter has to be low; otherwise, a tense or nervous learners may 'filter out' input and therefore it will not be acquired. Moreover, an affective filter during the time of input can decrease the effectiveness of input by limiting anxious learners' ability to completely concentrate on their instructor (Tobias, 1977 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al., 1999).

Furthermore, another serious effect is that learners tend to be moved away from participation necessary to improve their language skills. This is because when students participate in class, or collaborate with the teacher and other students, they will also engage in the elaboration of comprehensible input and output, which are indispensable to language acquisition (Swain, 1985).

However, it should be noted that some studies have not found a relationship between anxiety and second language achievement, while others have actually found a positive relationship (Chastain, 1975; Kleinmann, 1977). Scovel (1991) proposed a rational solution to such a paradox. He argued that because various studies used dissimilar measures of anxiety such as test-anxiety, facilitating-debilitating anxiety, etc., it was possible that they found different types of relationships between anxiety and language achievement. Therefore, Scovel (1991) concluded that language researchers need to be more specific and careful regarding the anxiety type they are focusing on.

Further, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) as cited in Young (1999) note that anxiety can affect the quality of second or foreign language communication because the presence of anxiety acts as a disruption to retrieval of information. Evidence can be seen with the experience of freezing-up on an important test or when speaking and writing in the second language where the correct word may be on the tip of the tongue. This is also supported by the Learning Skills Centre (LSC) at the University of Texas, which found numerous problems caused by anxiety, explaining that these problems can have an impact on language learning. Principally, anxiety is often driven by listening and speaking, two primary language learning activities. Students at LSC usually report that they tend to ‘freeze’ in a role-play situation, or have problems discriminating the sounds and structures of a foreign language, or understanding the content. Some also report that they just forget a certain grammar point that they know during an oral exercise or a test.

2.1.5 Treatments

Shaping students’ expectations, making them more realistic in terms of level of achievement and time of learning, is to be seen as the imminent duty of language teachers... it is important that teachers begin exploring instructional strategies that may overcome the students’ feeling of inadequacy, confusion, and failure as high levels of anxiety may compromise negatively the forthcoming attitude toward the foreign language study. (Occhipinti, 2009, p.37)

The statements above imply that FLCA cannot be ignored or considered an obstacle that learners need to handle by themselves. Teachers are the key persons who generally stem and constantly form FLCA into the learners’ perceptions, so the teachers need to be aware of what practices in class may bring about learners’ anxiety in language learning. According to Tanveer (2007), identifying anxiety factors and discerning learner expressions of anxiety while communicating in a second or foreign language are important first steps to deal with FLCA.

From the previous studies, many second language researchers have sought effective ways or treatments such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT),

or Suggestopedia (pretended identity), which focuses on learning through communicating in pairs or groups in a target language as a means to reduce FLCA, leading to better language achievement. However, the focus on communication in the classroom may at the same time increase students' anxiety, as it is more likely that their weaknesses would be visible to others (Tanveer, 2007).

The treatment of anxiety has concentrated on *cognitive*, *affective*, and *behavioral* approaches. Cognitive Modification (CM) is proposed by Mejias et al. (1991) as cited in (Occhipinti, 2009) for FLA treatment, which aims to change students' own cognitive appraisals or promote positive self-talk as a cognitive-based approach. Meanwhile, the affective approach proposes ways to control body responses and stress as a means to lessen anxiety and suggests Systematic Desensitization Therapy (SDT) as a way to teach students how to relax when anxiety is aroused (Mejias et al, 1991 as cited in Occhipinti, 2009). Those who adopt a behavioral approach assume that poor academic skills are the major cause of anxiety and suggest the Skills Training (ST) method to develop the behavioral skills necessary for success in oral communication (Mejias et al, 1991 as cited in Occhipinti, 2009).

Furthermore, Young's (1999) suggestions for reducing language anxiety are divided into four main areas. **First**, for anxiety caused by personal factors, teachers should help students become aware of their illogical beliefs or fears through group work activities specifically created to address this, and suggest students do relaxation exercises and practice self-talk. **Second**, for anxiety created by beliefs about language learning and teaching, teachers should discuss periodically with students practical commitments to achieve success in language learning, advise them that realistic expectations need to be set with areas such as pronunciation that will likely never be perfect, and help them understand that mistakes are part of the learning process and expected by everyone, or give students more positive feedback, etc. **Third**, for anxiety caused by classroom procedures, teachers may arrange more work in pairs or groups rather than individual presentations exclusively in front of the class. **Fourth**, anxiety relating to tests can be reduced by helping students get good grades or acknowledging small success for

language performance through other means of assessment. Teachers can provide frequent quizzes, alternative assessments such as self-evaluation, and pre-test practice using similar test items to ensure that learners are familiar with actual test tasks.

Tanveer's (2007) study looked at the high demands of language teachers and steps taken in Pakistan to assist students in achieving a near native-level of pronunciation. Tanveer (2007) suggests that teachers may choose to use materials which do not assert native-like pronunciation as the only model - *"ceasing to make English native-speaker pronunciation as only model to alleviate language anxiety and a reasonable step towards reducing anxiety in the modern communicative language class"* (p.57). He further suggests that teachers should explore learners' pre-existing beliefs in order to help them develop more realistic expectations, let go of their desire to reach native-like standards, and then work persistently to achieve the desired standards.

Young (1999) supports this by noting that in-class practices and instructional materials should emphasize what learners can accomplish, as opposed to what they cannot accomplish, in a context that promotes realistic language use. In addition, giving priority to language learners should involve dispelling misconceptions about language learning and offering them a sense of empowerment. So, from this, it is likely that when students have realistic goals, it is possible that they will be empowered to create more positive perceptions about themselves as they will see themselves as successful learners when using English rather than failed learners who never achieve the native-like model.

Greensberg et al. (1992) as cited in Ozwuebie et al. (1999) also offer a theory about terror management, which emphasizes the idea that positive self-esteem will act as a protector against any type of language anxiety. They asserted that *"self-esteem can serve as an anxiety-buffering function, and people are motivated to maintain a positive self-image because self-esteem protects them from anxiety"* (p.913).

Moreover, other treatments have been suggested by various scholars such as the Community Language Learning (CLL) approach by Koba et al. (2000), as suitable ways of coping with language anxiety by analyzing learners' reflections and

interviews with college students. CLL engages learners in conversation circles, providing security, a sense of involvement and equality, and building community through a non-competitive atmosphere. When the learners are comfortable with their peers and teacher, they are likely to take more risks. Typical CLL activities are the conversation circle, human computer, card games, and the reflection session.

Another suggestion is the cooperative learning approach proposed by Suwantarathip and Wichadee (2010) as a method to reduce students' anxiety in their writing and reading skills, with the strong assertion that teachers are the ones who have to create such a pleasant atmosphere. Wang (2010) also proposed some coping strategies to lower students' anxiety in particular for foreign language listening anxiety (FLCA). These might include the creation of a classroom atmosphere that diminishes anxiety, teaching more comprehension strategies students can use during listening activities, raising strategy awareness, and making an extra-curriculum listening plan that involves listening to more authentic English. Wang (2010) noted that 70.3% of participants reported difficulty in understanding accented English, and once they are exposed to accented English or dialects, their anxiousness increases. Thus, she suggests that an extra-curriculum listening plan be introduced to students that involves them listening to authentic English that they might encounter in the future.

In conclusion, as foreign language anxiety is considered a primary obstacle to achieving language learning success, there have been a number of attempts to address this. However, while one of the observed factors causing foreign language anxiety stems from the *ELT curricula implementation* issue based on 'native speaker ideological domination', this has not attracted much attention in empirical language learning research nor have alternative treatments for language anxiety been sought. Therefore, the development of ELT curricula based on World Englishes/EIL notions may be another alternative that could more appropriately serve the current English profile and also help reduce learners' anxiety in light of globalization.

In order to understand how the notion of World Englishes can be incorporated into classroom practice as the alternative treatment to FLCA, it is useful to

review the World Englishes notion, movement, the changes in English profiles across cultural contexts, pluralist approaches related to World Englishes studies, some fallacies and a call for a paradigm shift in ELT curricula implementation, the selected principles for designing World Englishes-based lessons, followed by some specific pedagogical ideas for classroom implementation.

2.2 World Englishes Movements

2.2.1 Global spread of English

2.2.1.1 English as an International Language and Emergence of World Englishes

Literature on the spread of English has grown tremendously in the last 20 years (McKay, 2012), with English continuing to expand (Brown, 1995). In the present, the number of people who use English as their first or second language is approximately two billion (Graddol, 2006). Statistics suggest that the number of non-native English speakers now significantly outnumbers those who speak English as their first language (Alsagoff, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007). The estimated current number of L1 speakers at 400 million is in contrast to the over one billion who speak it as an international language (McKay, 2012). To be more specific, the current estimates are that 375 million English users are in the inner-circle societies (US, UK, Australia, New Zealand, Canada), 375 million in outer circle societies (English as a Second Language countries - India, Philippines, Malaysia; etc.), and around 750-1,000 million in the expanding circle (English as a foreign language countries - Brazil, Germany, China, Japan, Thailand; etc.) (Jenkins, 2009). It is estimated that over 600 million people in Asia are English users with the numbers continuing to grow. (Crystal, 2008 as cited in Jenkins, 2009).

The use of the English language has also changed from being a language primarily used for intra-national communication by so-called native speakers or those who were born and raised in contexts where English is the first language (Jenkins, 2009) to becoming an international medium in multicultural communication contexts or a

shared language used predominantly by non-native speakers to communicate with each other (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006; Matsuda, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2007), which is far greater in frequency, amount, and significance than between non-native speakers and native speakers (Yano, 2001; Widdowson, 2003).

The term English as an International Language (EIL) has been challenged by many scholars regarding the ‘ownership of the English language’ and whether it should belong only to those who are native speakers. Alsagoff (2012) challenged the idea of ownership of the English language since the people who speak English as a non-native language are clearly now the majority. On top of that, the characterization of English in ESL or EFL countries where it is spoken as an international language, with reference to the English spoken in native speaking countries, does not properly recognize the linguistic ownership of English by speakers of EIL.

Based on these challenges and the changing patterns in the *ownership of English*, and the remarkable reversal in the profiles of English use and users, it should come as no surprise that the language is diversifying and ‘English’ has become ‘*Englishes*’. This is because local conditions such as local languages or cultures inevitably cause English to evolve in different contexts (Jenkins, 2009). Consequently, this change has shaped the birth of new varieties of English that have increasingly gained currency within local contexts (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011; Jenkins, 2006, 2009). Whether appropriate or not, English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) or English as an International Language (EIL) is *a fact of life*, noted by Jenkins (2009).

Scholarly discussions on the global use of English have produced terms such as World Englishes (Kachru, 1996; Kachru & Nelson, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007), English as an international language (McKay, 2002), English as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2004), global English (es), international English (es), localized varieties of English, new varieties of English, non-native varieties of English, World English (es), and new Englishes. These terms are used in addition to more traditional terms such as ESL (English as a second language) and EFL (English as a foreign language). The use of these terms has generally been interchangeable, with very

little in the way of varying implications (Bolton, 2004). Also, according to Jenkins (2009), the new terms ELF and EIL were coined to reflect the growing trend of L2 users using English as a means to communicate with other L2 users instead of with only native English speakers.

The emergence of theoretical concepts and pedagogical implications associated with the global use of English had not gained currency until the mid-1980s. The term *World Englishes* was originally coined by Braj Kachru and Larry Smith in the two conferences of English as a world language, which were held in 1978 at the East-West Center in Hawaii and at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (Bolton, 2005). The earlier conceptualization of ‘World Englishes’ involves linguistic, attitudinal, ontological and pragmatic explanations. When Kachru and Smith were in charge of editing the journal, *World Language English*, in 1985, their explanation of World Englishes represented “a new idea, a new credo,” for which the *plural Englishes* was highlighted by Kachru & Smith (1985, p.210) as cited in Bolton (2004):

...Englishes symbolizes the functional and formal variation in the language, and its international acculturation, for example, in West Africa, in Southern Africa, in East Africa, in South Asia, in Southeast Asia, in the West Indies, in the Philippines, and in the traditional English-using countries: the USA, the UK, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. The language now belongs to those who use it as their first language, and to those who use it as an additional language, whether in its standard form or in its localized forms. (p.368)

So, here according to Kachru (1992, 1996), ‘Englishes’ symbolize variation in form and function, diverging sociolinguistic contexts, ranges and varieties or differing creativity. On top of that, the concept emphasizes ‘WE-ness’ among users of English, and not a separation of *us* and *them* (native and non-native).

Jenkins (2009) also notes the meaning of WE as *all local English varieties* or *new Englishes*, regardless of whether they are considered to conform to a specific English standard or not, or whether the speakers are educated, or who the

speakers are. According to Jenkins' interpretation, it is interesting that world Englishes does not intend to make distinctions in terms of 'linguistic legitimacy' between its forms, regardless of whether it is found in Canada, India, or Japan. In this, it stands apart from the way English is viewed by most governments, prescriptive grammarians, and the general public.

The spread of the English language, leading to the emergence of World Englishes, has been discussed from various perspectives, so there are pluralist approaches in relation to World Englishes (McKay, 2012; Bolton, 2004). The earlier conception proposed by Kachru has been the essential grounds for later critical applied linguistic scholars like Phillipson (1992), Pennycook (1994), and Canagarajah (1999) to carry a postmodern view by taking into account *power, identity, access, equality* or *democratization* of English language use, while allowing those in communities outside the inner-circle to be heard with the "-es" after English. Also, later conceptualizations involve the pluralist approaches to World Englishes and have carried other related issues, for instance, English as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2000, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2004), multi-competences non-native speakers (Cook, 2007, 2014 as cited in Kubota, 2012).

From this, the term *World Englishes* is able to incorporate a variety of meanings and interpretations (Buripakdi, 2012; Bolton, 2004). Bolton (2004, 2005) identifies three broad senses to label World Englishes. First, the term may function as an all-encompassing label that refers to a diverse range of approaches to the description and analysis of English (es) across the world.

In a narrower sense, the term refers to the 'new Englishes' present in countries in the Caribbean and West Africa, and East African countries such as Nigeria and Kenya. It also includes Asian Englishes such as Indian English and Singaporean English with the focus on their linguistic descriptions. In the third sense, World Englishes particularly associates with the Kachruvian approach, which has been described as wide-ranging, with Kachru having advocated for *inclusion* and *pluricentricity* in approaching the study of the English language worldwide. This includes many other topics other than the descriptions of national and regional varieties, for instance, contact linguistics, critical

linguistics, bilingual creativity, discourse analysis, corpus linguistics, teaching pedagogy, and sociology of language (Bolton, 2004). According to Kachru (1996), World Englishes afford a thought-provoking opportunity to incorporate multiple areas of academic interest: language, literature, methodology, ideology, power, identity, language attitude. Despite the differing meanings, underlying these three broad senses is a concern with *monocentrism vs. pluricentrism*. Kachru (1997) as cited in Jindapitak and Teo (2013) defines the term World Englishes as a *function of the language in diverse pluralistic context*.

This study also used the terms *World Englishes* and *EIL* notions interchangeably and employed the meaning defined by Kachru (1996) as mentioned above, rather than a particular linguistic variety. Also, the researcher used Kachruvian's studies as a framework by focusing on the pedagogical implication of World Englishes to the teaching of English language in terms of classroom practice and critical linguistics combined, which engage ideology, power, identity, language attitude, and methodology into inclusive discussions.

2.2.1.2 Characteristics of World Englishes

As English has spread, it has diversified and given birth to new varieties of English or 'World Englishes', forming the concept of 'the function of the language in diverse pluralistic contexts' (Kachru, 1997 as cited in Jindapitak & Teo, 2013). The new varieties thus have to be different from native speaker norms in their forms, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, accents, pragmatics or communicative norms (Jenkins, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2007; McKay, 2002). Therefore, "*it is a myth to expect that when English is spoken by non-native speakers in non-native context, it has to be pure English identical with the one spoken by a native speaker from England or America*" (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013, p.193).

The characteristic of World Englishes was separated into three main components by Kachru (1988) as cited in Brown (1995). *First*, the English language belongs to everyone who uses it. *Second*, the localized forms or varieties have their own pragmatic standards. *Third*, there is a repertoire of models for English. The English

language has ‘multiple socio-cultural identities’ (repertoires) involving three types of linguistic interactions: native speakers and native speakers; native speakers and non-native speakers; non-native speakers and non-native speakers. These reflect two faces of the English language globally. One represents *Western-ness* while the other represents *local identities* (Kachru, 2006 as cited in Buripakdi, 2012).

Moreover, since the terms World Englishes and EIL are generally used interchangeably (Bolton, 2005), it is useful to clarify the meaning and characteristic of the latter. McKay (2002) notes that English as an international language has no link to the cultures of countries within the inner circle (Jenkins, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2007), and one of the central uses of English, as it is with any international language, is to allow speakers to share their own opinions and cultures.

This seems to be supported by Widdowson (1994, 2003) who notes that English as an International Language means that it is used by a variety of different communities, and assists them in reaching their institutional purposes, going beyond traditional communal and cultural boundaries. It is neither possessed by native-English speaking countries, nor controlled by them. It is not fixed by native speakers. Also, the concept of ‘*one-world English*’ or ‘*linguistic monocentricity*’ is not valid in the nature of transmission because *language cannot be transmitted without being transformed*. In other words, an international language will certainly evolve as it gets used by speakers outside of inner-circle countries, or that the characteristics of an international language are capable of being transformed when used by local speakers outside of the Inner Circle. This is the nature of any ‘international language’. EIL also emphasizes the use in different communities for serving different functions both intra-national and international. English has reached the status of EIL because of its ‘*spread*’ rather than ‘*distribution*’, which means it is subject to change, application, unlike distribution, which comes with adoption. The language spread is necessarily affected by linguistic, sociolinguistic, culture, and functions of people who use it in different cultural backgrounds. As such, they deserve to be owner of the language (Widdowson, 2003). Further, Widdowson (2003) notes that language spread is unlike other kinds of spread,

for example, a disease. A disease moves from one place to another and wherever it goes, it is essentially the same disease. It does not change based on the situation; the disease stays the same. However, language does not function in the same way. It is transformed as it is transmitted from place to place, which has been supported by many scholars like Jenkins (2009), and Kachru and Nelson (1996).

2.2.1.3 Changing trends

World Englishes notions have increasingly gained more acceptance (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006; Mukmination, 2012), even from the British press. It has begun to accept the ownership of non-native varieties of English, after previously being perceived as ‘erroneous’ wherever they differ from native varieties of English. This new acceptance conforms to the views of a number of SLA scholars (The Observer newspaper, 29 October 2000, p.1, Jenkins, 2009). Moreover, support for English as the global lingua franca has also come from Tony Blair (The British Prime Minister), known as the *Blair initiative* – “*English is the global lingua franca. It is neither the advantage of its native speakers nor controlled by them*” (Jenkins, 2009, p.40).

Graddol (2006), who highlights the future key trends, also emphasizes the importance of EIL situation and indicates the need for a paradigm shift in ELT. He notices that there has been considerable growth in the number of English learners and it is possible that there will be about two billion in years 2016-2021, and views that then the number of learners will decline. In addition, he predicts that the recent drop in the number of international students studying in countries where English is the native language is not likely to reverse. It is also likely that native-speaker norms are losing importance as English becomes parts of basic education in many countries, while Mandarin and Spanish challenge English in some regions for educational resources and policy attention. This implies that future or target interlocutors or the functions of English that learners will use are likely to be different from monolingual contexts like the US or UK, and instead be more specific and limited. It is also predicted that English will lose its supremacy on the Internet, as the use of other languages online continues to grow. Further, English in offshore services is also likely to abate as other language areas

provide more outsource services. Japan, France, and Germany provide services to other countries. Graddol (2006) also predicts that Asia, in particular India and China, will be critical for determining the long-term future of English as a global language, since English may not remain the only key player with respect to global language. In some countries, other languages are challenging the dominance of English. He also observed that the recent developments in English language teaching are responding to the changes of learners' needs and the new market situations, as well as starting to shift away from the traditional EFL paradigm.

These changing trends suggest that the idea of taking native speakers from the inner circle societies as the best model for language teaching and learning may now be challenged and eventually replaced with a more appropriate and critical ELT pedagogy that takes into account that English is currently used more between non-native speakers rather than between non-native speakers and native speakers.

2.2.1.4 Factors for the global spread of English

During the colonial past, English positioned itself as one of the world's central languages for international trade. However, in the postcolonial period, English continued to spread and has been adopted as an international lingua franca by many countries around the world, even by countries that have never historically been colonized like Thailand or China. Therefore, the factors affecting the spread of English will be discussed under three main topics: colonial past; postcolonial period; and other possible reasons people for whom English is not their mother tongue may wish to learn it as proposed by some scholars of World Englishes.

(1) Colonization: the beginning of language spread and ELT

Leith and Sargeant (2012) note that in order to explain how English became the primary international language, we firstly need to examine how the language spread beyond England and laid its foundations for its later development as a global language. A main factor in its expansion is England's period of '*colonization*'. The idea of colonization is described by Leith and Sargeant (2012) as:

Process involving the establishment, often by force, of communities of English speakers in territories around the world. These communities positioned themselves in a relation of power to the indigenous or pre-existing populations of the territories in which they settled, while at the same time maintaining economic and cultural links with England. It was processes of this sort which played a significant and decisive role in the expansion of English usage around the world. (p.102)

Leith and Seargeant (2012) further suggest that the idea that English might become a ‘world language’ began around the mid-eighteen century. The major reasons for the world-wide spread of English are connected to political factors: the history of the British Isles, then of Europe, and finally the world. England was extending its power to other lands, and English people moved to various continents. Jenkins (2009) suggests the *two diasporas of the English language spread during the colonial period*: *first* involving migration of about 25,000 people from southern and eastern England to the ‘New World’-America, Australia and New Zealand, resulting in new first language varieties of English; the *second* diaspora involved the colonization of Africa and Asia, leading to the growth of L2 varieties of English, also known as New Englishes (more in Jenkins, 2009, p.5-9).

According to Leith and Seargeant (2012), three main *reasons for the establishment* of English colonies were *economic* (trading), *social* (providing labor overseas), and *political* (competing rivalries among European states for the power spread since more land means more resources), which also influenced the patterns or types of colonies.

Mufwene (2001) as cited in Kirkpatrick (2007), states there are three *types of colonies*, which have greatly influenced the way English developed. First, ***trade colonies*** were closely linked to the ‘slave trade’ and began with European tradesmen and local people, which often resulted in the growth of pidgins - type of language contact occurring between people who do not have the same language, but need to sustain communication for trading purposes such as in Ghana, Cameroon, Nigeria; etc.

(Mufwene, 2006 as cited in Leith & Seargeant, 2012). So, the European traders would normally speak non-standard English varieties. Second, *exploitation colonies* arrived under the administrative and political control of the respective European nation. Since the colonizers required English speakers to help govern the colony, the contact between imported and local languages increased, while the local languages and cultures influenced the development of the local English varieties such as in Malaysia and India. Likewise, the same influences of the development of local varieties occurred in the third type of colony, *settlement colonies*, too but to a lesser extent as the colonizers appeared to be the mainstream of the settlers such as Australia and New Zealand.

The linguistic consequences of colonization seen in the development of new varieties of English worldwide remain in the postcolonial era today as we can see from Singapore English, Philippines English, or Indian English.

According to Pennycook (2007) in his article '*ELT and colonialism*', the introduction of English to language education in the colony greatly depended on the decision of colonizers about how and when the language should be taught. Colonization has had a great influence on the current practice and development of ELT. During the colonial period, English was pushed through language policy as a preferable language symbolizing the civilized values of colonial power; at the same time, English literature showed the international supremacy of England with great benefits for its users. However, there were actually arguments both *for* and *against* teaching English to local populations in colonial contexts; as a *valuable medium of instruction* providing learners a world of new ideas or a passport to a great trade; on the other hand, as *lack of morality implantation in learners* respectively.

In fact, according to Leith and Seargeant (2012), the word 'colonialism' is more loaded than 'colonization' on the grounds that it implies that the powerful exploit the weak, which may ironically challenge the *Enlightenment Ideal* in the modern age. According to Ward (2003), the modern age is associated with the *Age of Reason* (Enlightenment Ideals), which influenced all Western thought in the seventeenth or eighteenth century. Modern theory involves 'rational inquiry' as the guiding principle

for all knowledge as well as social understanding and happiness. The upside to this was the formation of *universal human rights* that eventually brought about the French Revolution and United States Declaration of Human Rights. However, the downside is that Enlightenment thinkers believed their values should be adopted by all, appearing to perceive Europe as more enlightened, superior, or even more civilized than other parts of the world, which resulted in the negative impacts associated with colonization, including exploitation, and the sense of superiority that colonizers felt with regard to other countries. This seems to be a challenging paradox within a group of people who claimed themselves as ‘enlightened’, ‘rational enquiry driven’, ‘seekers of human rights and equality’, but who also tended to be eager to perpetuate ‘inequality’ and engage in ‘exploitation’ to benefit themselves.

In a nutshell, in association with ELT, teachers and students need to be informed, recognize, and be aware of the history that has given rise to English today and its global position, and how it has resulted in the emergence of varieties of English used worldwide. In the colonial past, it was colonizers like the British who decided when and how that language should be taught. Thus, teachers should be aware of the extent to which such power still remains and how it may affect the learners, bringing this into classroom discussions to provide opportunity for the students to seek their own voice in English. Of course, no one can change history, but that does not mean that we can ignore how historical power has laid the roots for the present and the impact on the way we perceive the world. According to Canagarajah (1999) and Kachru and Nelson (1996), without being aware of the fact that English is not pure, nor logically superior, but rather that its power and ideology has its roots in the past, many people may simply perpetuate the superiority of Englishness while devaluing local language, values, and local identities.

(2) Postcolonization

According to Jenkins (2009), even though most colonies of England and America had become independent by the mid-20th Century, they retained the English language for administrative and other internal functions. During the postcolonial period, English spread and was adopted as an international lingua franca by many

countries in expanding circle societies where it performs no official internal functions. Crystal (2003) as cited in Jenkins (2009) notes that apart from the ‘colonial past’ or the expansion of British power factor that has contributed to the present-day status of EIL, another factor, which has underscored the ongoing power of English throughout the 20th century is the United States’ emergence as the leading economic driver in the world. There are also some other important situations in the postcolonial period that the researcher has observed from the literature and will discuss under three sub-topics: *English Only Movement*; *Postcolonial Discourses* representing linguistic imperialism; *Other possible reasons* people wish to learn English.

i. English only movement in the US

Bourhis and Marshall (1999) as cited in Jenkins (2009) noted that in the US in 1990, 62 million of a total population of 251 million were found to be of the following ethnolinguistic minority groups: African (31 million), Latin American (22 million), Asian (7 million), and Aboriginal (2 million). These numbers had increased dramatically by around 20 million just over the ten-year period, making up around two-thirds of the total US population. By 2001, the number of white people in California, as an extreme example, had dropped to less than half of the state’s total of 34 million people. This trend is recurring throughout the US, with the major increase being in those from Hispanic/Latino backgrounds. With the significant increase in multi-ethnicity, fears are growing within the monolingual L1 population that they may be in the minority, which led to the emergence of the *English Only Movement* in the late nineteenth century. In other words, from the late 1960s when a large number of people from developing countries began to arrive America, xenophobia directly led to the establishing of the English Only Movement. In 1998, The English Language Education for Children in Public Schools initiative (known as *Proposition 227*) was passed, requiring all children whose English is not L1 to be placed in an “*immersion*” program for a year before transferring to mainstream education. Actually, by the early 1920s, there was an insistence on English as the only language of instruction by almost three-quarters of the US states, but the policy was sometimes implemented inhumanely. Jenkins (2009) gave

an example from the case that native Indian children could be kidnapped from their families, and left with no choice but to live in boarding schools to learn English and the mother-tongue speakers' culture. Up until that time, the languages of 'inferior groups' (African and Native American) were disparaged. Roosevelt's response to the arrival of these immigrants, as commented on by Milroys (1999) as cited in Jenkins (2009), was similar to the contemporary English Only movement: "We have room but for one language here and that is the English language, for we intend to see that the crucible turns our people out as Americans, of American nationality, and not as dwellers in a polyglot boarding house" (p.104).

The following are examples of accounts from bilingual Asian American college students who actually experienced the superiority of monolingual English-only education, collected by Hinton (1999, p.21-30) as cited in Jenkins (2009, p.106-107) from the 250 language biographies over a number of years at the University of California, Berkeley:

At the age of ten, my family on my mother's side immigrated to America and this is where I learned my second language. Going to school made me feel deaf and blind. I could understand nothing that was going on around me. (p.106)

It was two heartless comments from a group of small boys in my 'white' neighborhood for me to want to deny my language let alone my culture, as well. How was I to react to a racist comment of 'Ching chong chooey go back home to where you belong. You can't even speak English right.' Sixteen small words which possessed so much strength and contained so much power caused a small naïve child to lose her heritage- to lose what made her. (p.106)

The loss of one's cultural language symbolized the loss of one's cultural identity. Many Asian Americans pride themselves for successfully turning their kids into 'complete' Americans who speak

English in f lawless American accent. In my perspective, this actually is something that they should be ashamed of. Without doubt, fitting oneself into the mainstream is important; yet retaining one's cultural language is not at all trivial. To me, I will try my best to excel both in English and my mother tongue, Cantonese. (p.106-107)

These statements have shown the frustration and negative attitude of second language learners towards learning English language in the postcolonial era, where they feel 'disrespected', 'inferior', and 'struggle to maintain their own identity'.

Closely linked to the English Only Movement is the 'No Child Left Behind' (NCLB) Act (2002) (Jenkins, 2009). NCLB Act assists disadvantaged children, specifically minority students. The act provides school funding to assist these children in obtaining fluency in the English language, where they are assessed each year. In other words, immigrant children have to learn English while taking away attention from their own mother tongue languages. Some criticisms of NCLB expressed by scholars are that it would be more correct to call it 'No Child Left Bilingual', which argues that NCLB approach is a 'misguided reform' and argues that it has a negative impact on the minority students that it was actually designed to help (Crawford, 2007). This has also been supported by Ferguson (2006) as cited in Jenkins (2009) who mentions that the practice which places a child immediately in a classroom with no special language assistance at all can be glossed 'sink or swim'. Also, Richard Watts, personal communication as cited in Jenkins (2009) suggests that given English as only the language of classroom aims should be called *to subtract* rather than add a language, or more like *submersion* programs.

Another point to mention alongside the English Only Movement issue is that after achieving independence, the former British colonies questioned the ongoing use of the English language. The answers varied according to the ethnic, linguistic composition of each community, as well as the types of the colonial past in each territory. In general, if there was more heterogeneity in terms of race and languages used in the community, it is highly likely that English would continue to be relevant. In

contrast, if there was racial homogeneity and one linguistic composition was dominant, then the continued use of English would be questioned and the language of the majority would replace English. Mazrui (1966, 1975) commented on this situation and its possible consequence, arguing that English serves nation-building function, which can be greatly constructive in postcolonial contexts. Where English is used as a lingua franca in Africa, a transcendent national consciousness that goes beyond the boundaries of individual tribes becomes possible. However, since the local population did not have sufficient political influence to warrant that their languages would be promoted or at least well-kept, many of the local languages, Aboriginal languages of Australia as an example, have become extinct.

In short, we may experience the hard time that the students were left with no language choice, agonizing time learning language surrounded by racialism environment, or struggling for their own cultural identity as shown from some accounts provided by Asian American students earlier. Moreover, in some contexts, English has been served a nation-building political function. These policies have underscored the spread and power of English to retain in postcolonial era. Even though the situations might vary from one context to context, one similar thing is that English always carries power and particular superior ideology with it, which ones may consider it pleasure, while for another could be struggling experience.

ii. Postcolonial Discourses

During the postcolonial period, various discourses still present *celebrating tones* for the English language and the English speaking community which can be witnessed through various literature, education, media, or the internet. Pennycook (2001), one of the most influential critical applied linguists, critically observed some arguments that are put forward to justify why English has reached its superior position as the global lingual franca, and pointed out the issue that the same celebrating tone seems to underlie recent discourses on the continued growth of English globally. For instance, the English language is spoken by more people than that of any other language, or is the primary language of books, newspapers, airports, business, science, and technology.

Phillipson (1998) as cited in Jenkins (2009) also notes that 19th century writing on English bounded with praise of the language, saying that “on the one hand the undeniable excellence of British institutions, ideas and culture must be reflected in the language, on the other hand, that the undeniable superior qualities of English must reflect a people and a culture of superior quality”, which could be witnessed in its vocabulary. Claiborne (1983) as cited in Pennycook (1998) noted that English has the most expressive vocabulary in the world. The overall number of English words is between 400,000 - the number of current entries in the largest English dictionaries - and 600,000 - the largest figure that any expert is willing to be quoted on. By comparison, the biggest French and Russian dictionaries have only about 150,000 and 130,000 entries respectively, which is evidence that English is the greatest language.

Moreover, according to Jespersen (1982) and Crowley (1989) as cited in Pennycook (1998), the image of English as a great borrowing language and the diverse English vocabulary shows the democratic and welcoming nature of the British people, and that negative attitudes towards English or the spread of English are only an indication of being closed-minded or undemocratic. However, such a view is hardly supported by the colonial past (Pennycook; 1998). Pennycook (1998) also points out that if you are a speaker of English, you are better equipped than speakers of other languages to think about the world. Crystal (2003b) as cited in Jenkins (2009) doubts about claims that English is naturally a more logical or beautiful language than any other languages, simpler in grammatical structure, larger in vocabulary, and easier to pronounce, pointing out that this type of reasoning is considered ‘*unthinking chauvinism*’ (prejudice/narrow-mindedness) or ‘*naïve linguistic thinking*’, and it is impossible to compare languages objectively in such ways. He also clarified that English may have few inflectional endings, but also has very complex syntax. However, this has not prevented it from being learned and used around the world.

Phillipson (1998) critically notes this situation as ‘linguistic deprivation’. He argues that anyone who does not speak it is at a disadvantage from those who do, while anyone who denies this hegemony only seeks to deprive the

disadvantaged, and this event begins to have very particular implications within this discourse. Phillipson (1998) also mentions that there is a connection in the way that the spread of English has been celebrated over the last hundred years and the way the English language has been admired as a tremendous language. Phillipson (1998) gave examples on George (1867) who asserted that “*As the mind grows, language grows, and adapts itself to thinking of the people. Hence, a highly civilized race, will ever have, a highly accomplished language. The English tongue, is in all senses a very noble one*” (p.4).

Phillipson (1992) raised another critique towards English as the language of capitalism and domination, reflected by the key tenets of ELT methodology, which still influence the way that the British Council promotes English. The tenets hold that: 1) English is best taught monolingually; 2) a native speaker makes the best teacher of the language; 3) the more English is taught the better the results; 4) the earlier English is taught, the better the results; 5) if other languages are incorporated in the instruction, the English standards will be diminished (Phillipson, 1992). Organizations such as the British Council, the World Bank, and other English language schools use three types of arguments to value English: *Intrinsic*; *Extrinsic*; and *Functional* arguments. To clarify, the ‘intrinsic’ argument describes English as a rich and noble language; second the ‘extrinsic’ argument describes English as *well-established* in the sense of having many speakers; third the ‘functional’ argument emphasizes the practicality of English as a global gateway; meanwhile, others argue against the idea that English represents *modernity* or is a *symbol for material advance and efficiency* (Phillipson, 1992).

There is some crucial evidence indicating that the universal spread of English is a beneficial state of affairs (Jenkins, 2009). Kachru (1996) noted that the power of English has come at a price. Some scholars like Achebe (1965) recognized the negative effect, noting that “English came as part of a package deal that comprised many dubious values, prejudices, and the positive outrage of racial arrogance, which may yet set the world on fire” (p.28). This is also consistent with Ngugi (1986), who believes that not only the negatives aspects or tendencies in reference to the use of English in postcolonial era must be acknowledged, but action must also be taken against its

continued use. To him, *decolonization* means the voluntary extraction from European values and worldview, which are inevitably activated when English is used. Phillipson (1992) also supports this idea by disputing the benefit of the spread of English, especially where it has the potential to endanger the growth of other languages. To illustrate this danger, Schaefer and Egbokhare (1999) as cited in McKay (2002) mention that Nigeria is another country in which English is now taking the place of local languages. In addition, Canagarajah (1999) is another scholar who presents some evidence on the undesirability of the spread of English in postcolonial era; for example, nativized versions of English, new Englishes, discourses in post-colonial literature, and the hybrid of language mixing in local communities are evidence in which resistance against English is already being shown. He also proposed that the ESL classroom itself can be a great setting to display resistance against the pedagogical practices and values informed by the Inner Circles.

Another interesting example of postcolonial discourses came from the year 1946 with the first appearance of the Journal English Language teaching, sponsored by the British Council. One section contained a reply to a question from a reader about the correct usage of the expressions ‘fry-pan’ and ‘frying-pan’, which Widdowson (2003) explains: “Fry-pan is not accepted as standard English and is considered incorrect by most grammarians. It is probably an American form” (p.33).

Widdowson (2003) raised some questions to these statements such as ‘Not accepted by whom?’, ‘On whose authority is this judgment made?’, or ‘Considered incorrect by which grammarians?’. He furthers his response to such discourses that “presumably American ones in Yale had not been consulted”. So, it has assumed authority as a representative of a particular group of British English speakers. Nowadays, evidently, this no longer matters. Because of the fact that the US has become so dominant in the fifty intervening years, the British are unlikely to want to cause offence to Americans on their variety of English. However, it appears that we might still dismiss Indian words like ‘*prepone*’, because we may not care if we offend Indians. We may also think that the Indians are not true native speakers, so it is not necessary to consult them. According to Widdowson (2003), it is absurd that one can take out a patent

on the language, and claim the right to exert control over it to keep it exclusive. Patents are given to preserve exclusivity to a profitable formula and prevent others from copying it for their own commercial purposes. It is apparently advantageous for the British to claim a patent on standard English as it assists them in business, and this is indeed presented in the promotional literature of language schools and publishers.

To illustrate what Widdowson (2003) has pointed out, Leung (2005) as cited in Jindapitak and Teo (2013) notes that the idea of an ideal native speaker in linguistic judgments has been advanced by educational planners and local users, and promoted in ELT conferences, training programs, and instructional materials. It is not surprising that native speakers have gained prestige in global ELT; for example, many language schools or international schools in Thailand take pride in being an all-English school with all native English-speaking teachers (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013). As boasted in the internet homepage “*All of our English teachers are native speakers, teaching natural English as it is spoken in real conversation*” (Bamgbose, 2001, p.360). Moreover, many pocketbooks published in Thailand observed by the researcher also present similar discourses by their titles; for example, “*Hello...Speak fluent English like native speakers*”, “*American Accent Training*”, “*American Way of Pronunciation: Show you how native American speak*”, or “*Intensive English course that will enable you to speak English like native speaker*”.

These postcolonial examples are very interesting and could even be evidence indicating continued ‘*indirect colonialism*’ in the mind of people to favor a native-speaker ideology, even though colonization is supposed to have ended. Griffiths and Tiffin (2006), writing in *Decolonization in New World Encyclopedia* (February 4, 2009), contended that with the continual use of the English language, and the values set in it, British colonialism is perpetuated. It is an indirect type of colonialism that is retained after independence, almost unnoticed in the minds of the indigenous former-colonized people. Viswanathan (1989) argued that in earlier times, English education was the means by which British power was assigned to a native elite who merely acted as British substitutes. These substitutes for British rules carried on to sustain an indirect

form of British colonialism after independence. He also questions whether the psychological colonialism remained after the British left. Another scholar, Gandhi (1998), believes that psychological colonialism remains, even after the withdrawal of the colonizers. It is evident that before leaving South Africa for India, freedom without the denial of English was comparable to *English rule without the Englishman*.

Further support for the impact of postcolonial power came from Buripakdi (2012), who reported his research findings on Thai professional writers who developed prejudice toward non-standard English varieties including Thai English, with most valuing the American or British variety as superior and more sophisticated. The study also suggested that language, ideology, and power are closely connected. The results showed the power of English cultural and ideological domination, the underlying politics, and most significantly the impact of colonial English in Thailand. Post-colonial influence is still substantial in participants' minds even though Thailand has never been colonized by European countries. He also observed that "*such discriminatory discourses die hard and those discourses may maintain the dominant position of English in Thailand*" (p.54, 55). What was raised by Buripakdi (2012) is in line with McKay (2002), who suggests that *colonialism is perceived as being instrumental for mental control in promoting the spread of English and devaluing non-western cultures by controlling the way people view themselves and the world around them*.

Another observation in relation to the described issues in postcolonial period, i.e., the English-Only-Movement; NCLB Act; and postcolonial discourses, might be linked to and reflect what Phillipson called as the '*Linguistic Imperialism*' concept. According to Phillipson (1992) the spread of English, is often a *deliberate policy* by English-speaking countries to maintain supremacy over developing countries, or what he calls 'linguistic imperialism'. Phillipson (1992) described English linguistic imperialism as the attempt to dominate and retain structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages. In other words, '*linguicism*' is defined as "*ideologies, structures, and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and immaterial)*

between groups which are defined on the basis of language” (Phillipson, 1992, p.47). According to Phillipson (1992), language itself does not create this inequality - rather, it is used by political-economic structures to further their domination. This view is supported by Canagarajah (1999), who insists that “even after many colonized countries and territories gained independence in the 1960s, imperialism tied to England and other Western countries persisted through the English language” (p.178). The United States’ role should also not be overlooked, which means that language cannot be separated from history, ideology, and social institutions.

An awareness of the history, policy and surrounding postcolonial discourses may help us to understand English ‘language and its power’. Language is somewhat associated with ‘created power’, meaning that it is not neutral, not pure, and reversible (Kachru, 1996). Pennycook (2007) pointed out that ‘*access*’ to English language and its created ‘*power*’ has allowed English to profoundly influence the development of ELT practices until today. The article *ELT and colonialism* (Pennycook, 2007) and *Linguistic Imperialism* (Phillipson, 1992) takes a critical view on the dominant status of English, which interestingly has close links to the colonial past. However, some scholars like Brutt-Griffler (2002 as cited in Jenkins, 2009) argue that “linguistic imperialism was not responsible for the spread of English, and that there was no distinctive ideology concerned with spreading English in the colonial dependencies for cultural or linguistic reasons” (p.29). In addition, Bisong (1995) expressly challenged Phillipson’s theory of linguistic imperialism, providing his own country, Nigeria, as an example. He pointed out that Nigerians learn English for practical purposes and are wise enough to know what is in their interest, including the ability to function in two or more languages in a multilingual situation, and noted that Phillipson’s argument is inadequate to explain the complexities of the situation.

The essential implications to ELT, according to all issues related to the colonial past and the postcolonial period mentioned above, could be that teachers and learners also need to be informed and find a way to understand how language and power are associated rather than focusing on only NS-based linguistic ability, which

should be done through ongoing tasks of teaching and learning. It is important to create appropriate teaching pedagogy and materials that allow the learners to develop their critical thinking and seek their own voice in English, with the attempt to move the language class beyond the place where the language is the sole focus.

iii. Other related factors

Crystal (1997) mentions that colonialism, speaker migration, and new technology developed from the Industrial Revolution of British origin and that also took place in the USA, resulting in new terminology for technological and scientific advances, were important in the initial spread of English. He points out that English has attained its status because of its special role in many societal domains in various parts of the world; for examples, a *lingua economica* (a medium for business dealing or international trades), a *lingua academica* (a medium for content learning and academic publication) (Crystal, 1997), to name a few. Crystal (2003b) as cited in Jenkins (2009) further suggested six possible reasons why those for whom English is not their L1 may wish to learn English, possibly fueling its current spread: 1) historical reasons - influence of British or American imperialism; 2) internal political reasons - its role in providing a practical means of communication between different ethnic groups where the use of a local variety of English may symbolize national unity; 3) external economic reasons - the USA's leading economic position, which has forced any organization wishing to develop international business to use English; 4) practical reasons - English is the main language of international business, tourism, academic conference, air traffic control, emergency service; 5) intellectual reasons - scientific, technological, and academic information is mostly expressed in English; 6) entertainment reasons - English is the primary language used in music, popular culture, movies, and video games.

McKay (2002) also supports Crystal's statement that English is an international language, enabling countries to discuss and negotiate political, social, educational, and economic issues. The widespread use of English in politics and international business also makes it unavoidable for any country trying to become a part of the global community. Also, the domination of English in the motion picture industry

and music are two key components in the development of ‘global culture’, particularly among young people. In addition to what Crystal and McKay mention, Jenkins (2009) also adds ‘*personal advantage*’ or ‘*prestige*’ because in many contexts the ability to speak English can also reflect the higher status of the speakers themselves.

In a nutshell, there are many factors for the spread of English: colonization, migration of English-speaking people, the dominance of economic and political power by the UK and US, and the entertainment reasons. However, we cannot deny that the spread of English and its roots in colonialism have led to the emergence of linguistic variations and non-native users in various parts of the world. There have been various attempts by world Englishes scholars to categorize Englishes; the most well-known model was proposed by Kachru with his three concentric circles, which will be discussed in the next part.

2.2.2 Models of World Englishes

2.2.2.1 Categorizing Englishes/ The developmental (three) circles

Many scholars propose different ways to classify or form the models of World Englishes in relation to the spread of English (Kachru, 1992; Streven, 1980; McArther, 1987; Gorlach, 1988; Graddol, 2006; Canagarajah, 2008, all as cited in Jenkins, 2009; Yano, 2001; Modiano, 1999). The most influential classification was proposed by Kachru.

Kachru (1985) as cited in Kachru (1996) proposed the three circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle, representing the kinds of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functions in diverse cultural contexts. To explain, English travelled from Britain, in the first diaspora, to other English as Native Language (ENL) countries or the Inner Circles including UK, US, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. ENL users refer to those who were born and raised in a country where English is historically the first language spoken. In the second diaspora, it spread to English as a Second Language (ESL) countries or the Outer Circle such as Nigeria, India, Singapore, which were once colonized by English and then after colonization, English was still used for intra-national functions or purposes such as government, laws,

and education. And more recently it has spread to the English as Foreign Language (EFL) countries or the Expanding Circles such as Japan, Scandinavian countries, Thailand, countries where English serves a limited purpose inside its borders. English spoken in the Inner Circle is considered to be ‘norm-providing’, that in the Outer Circle to be ‘norm-developing’ and that in the Expanding Circle to be ‘norm-dependent’ as they use English outside of any official status and are therefore, dependent on the standards provided by speakers from the Inner Circles.

Kachru’s modeling in the form of concentric circles sought to draw attention to the existence of ‘multi-linguistic identities’, ‘multiplicity of norms’, both endocentric and exocentric, and ‘distinct sociolinguistic histories’ (Kachru, 1996). According to Kirkpatrick (2007), Kachru’s model calls for a *polymodel approach* to replace a *monomodel approach*, which views English as homogeneous and a single variety. Kachru argues that a monomodel approach disregards the variation present in the English language. On the other hand, a polymodel approach emphasizes variability. As mentioned, Kachru classifies the three circles based on the idea of variations from the *pattern of acquisition, function, and the type of spread* or the context of situation. Kachru’s model helps our understanding of the sociolinguistic realities of English as it has spread globally. However, some scholars do not support its use because of its limitations.

The shortcomings are noted by McArthur (1998) as cited in Jenkins (2009); for example, ENL is not just one variety of English; the ‘standards’ differ from one ENL country to another (like US vs. UK). Moreover, a large number of ENL speakers are living in certain ESL countries, while a large number of ESL speakers are living in ENL countries. Additionally, so-called EFL/ELF countries such as the Netherlands and Scandinavian countries use English as an intranational language rather than only as a foreign language, while school subjects are increasingly taught through English. On top of that, the distinction between native English speakers and non-native English is by definition those who use the language from birth in contrast to those who learn it through education. Native English speakers are normally considered better than

non-native English speakers regardless of the quality of the language spoken, which is also supported by Kirkpatrick's (2007). Kirkpatrick (2007) raises another issue that Kachru might be underestimating the position that English would hold in Expanding Circle countries, especially China, which could lead to the development of a local variety as well. For example, a local Chinese variety of English may develop in the future through the status of English as a lingua franca in business and trade, communication and formal education in China itself.

Apart from Kachru's model, another attempt to categorize the spread of World Englishes is proposed by Modiano (1999). He suggests that the 'centered circle' represent those who are proficient in international English. These speakers are competent in handling cross-cultural communication and they could be either nonnative or native. The main criterion beyond proficiency is that they carry no distinctive regional accent. And his next band is whoever is proficient in English as their first or second language rather than as an international language. Jenkins (2009) pointed out that there could be problems from Modiano's model in terms of drawing a line between a *distinctive* and *non-distinctive regional accent*. Later on, Modiano (2001) as cited in Jenkins (2009) presented a model based on common features to all English varieties and tried to equate native speakers with '*competent non-natives*', which is again contested by Jenkins (2009), who argued that this can imply that all native speakers of English are competent speakers of English, which may not always be true.

Later in 2001, Yano proposes a modified model of the Inner Circle as '*genetic ENL*' and the Outer Circle as '*functional ENL*' to take into consideration that many English varieties in the Outer Circle have become accepted or codified varieties spoken by people who perceive they are native speakers with native intuition. However, Jenkins (2009) questioned the superiority of native speakers by genetics, arguing that there is a problem in using a model that defines speakers based on their proficiency because genetic native speakers may have limited vocabulary and low grammar proficiency. The fact that English is someone's second or third language does not always imply that speaker is less competent than their native speaker counterparts.

In short, even though these proposed models seem to be different in their details and try to move beyond what Kachru has defined in his three concentric circles, they all highlight the same key concept, which focuses on ‘polymodel’ of the language as a result of the changes in the English profile and its landscape. Moreover, it is likely that in the real situation of the spread of English might be too complicated to simply use three circles. But still, the original three circle model of Kachru could be very useful as a base line to help us see how English is being used around the world through various functions, patterns, and types of spread that differs from one context to another. Also, even though some scholars argue that Kachru’s model might underestimate the current situation, the researcher believes that it might constitute an attempt to propose a polymodel of the English language. Also, there is nothing wrong to start the framework with Kachru’s model as his model has in fact opens up our view to the pluralism and inclusiveness concepts, which means that the use of English language should not be considered from monolithic view. Rather, it should take sociopolitical realities, power, and politics in each setting which English is embedded into consideration. His idea is that the spread of English is not the transplanting of one model and placing it in other countries. Therefore, his model might be better used with awareness that it begins to address the complexity of the situation and the exceptions in different contexts. Also, it is a good start to take into account the concept of ‘*expertise*’ as a more appropriate view for Englishes rather than ‘*nativeness*’, regardless of where speakers are from and what other languages they speak, as suggested by Jenkins (2009).

2.2.2.2 Pluralist approaches to World Englishes

According to Bolton (2004, 2005), there are many distinct approaches to studies relating to WE, with significant overlaps between them. Three broad groupings of approaches are 1) Linguistic in orientation (English studies, Corpus linguistics); 2) Both linguistic and sociopolitical concerns (Sociolinguistic approach and World Englishes approach); 3) Sociopolitical and political in orientation (Linguistic imperialism and Critical applied linguistic approach). World Englishes’ core, in fact, involves various key attitudes and beliefs that have assisted in protecting endangered

languages and cultures, upholding linguistic and racial diversity, and supporting educational equality of opportunity. The following table summarizes the three main approaches and the related sub-approaches to World Englishes.

Table 2.1

Approaches to World Englishes

Approach	Exponent (s)	Focus/Objective(s)	Timeline
I. English studies	Quirk (1962, 1972, 1990), Greenbaum (1985), McArther (1992), Gorlach (1995), Schneider (1997)	Describes English structure (Syntax) against typical variation measurements Provides accurate, detailed linguistic descriptions of WE (Corpus Linguistics) based on ideas-no single standard of correctness of English.	1960s-present
II. Sociolinguistic			
1) The Sociology of Language	Fisherman, Cooper, and Conrad (1972, 1977)	Identifies relevant sociopolitical predictors for the use of English in postcolonial communities. Re-examines English as a lingua franca of a capitalist system rather than as a vehicle of imperialism.	1960s-present
2) Features-based	Trudgill & Hanna (1982), Cheshire (1991)	Describes ‘standard varieties’ of English based on ‘differences’ in phonetics, grammar, and vocabulary. Based on the idea that varieties of English and sociolinguistic analysis can answer the question of where errors stop and ‘where legitimate features of local varieties start’.	1980s-present
3) Kachruvian studies	Kachru (1992 onwards), Smith (1981,1987,1992), Lowenberg (1984), Bolton (1994), Pakir et al. (1994), Gupta (2003), Madiano (2003), Kirkpatrick (2002)	Promotes pluricentricity and inclusivity to WE, highlighting ‘sociopolitical’, ‘sociolinguistic’ realities, ‘bilingual creativity’ of the outer circle and expanding circle societies. Offers a politics and power concept with pragmatic recognition of the spread of English and an examination of NS ideologies from the inner circle.	1980s-present
4) Pidgin and Creole	Todd (1984, 1995), Romaine (1988), Holm (1988/89), Mufwene (2001)	Describes and analyzes ‘mixed’ languages, code-mixing, and dynamics of linguistic hybridization	1930-present

Table 2.1***Approaches to World Englishes (Cont.)***

Approach	Exponent (s)	Focus/Objective(s)	Timeline
III. Applied Linguistics	Halliday, MacIntosh & Streven (1964, 1977, 1980), Brumfit (1982), Kachru (1982/86, 1992)	Explores the implications of WE for language teaching and learning, not teaching only British or US model.	1960s-present
IV. Lexicography	Webster (1806, 1828), Butler (1981), Orsman (1997), Silva (1998)	Expresses a national linguistic identity.	1980s-present
V. Popularizers	McCrum, Cran and MacNeil (1986), Crystal (1995, 1997)	Interested in the mass reading public in matters related to world Englishes.	1980s-1990s
VI. Critical Linguistics	Phillipson (1992, 2000, 2003), Pennycook (1994, 1998); etc.	Expresses resistance to the linguistic imperialism and cultural domination derived from a Marxian political analysis and postcolonial theory	1990s-present
VII. Linguistic Futurology	Graddol (1997); etc.	Predicts future trends in the spread of English and English language teaching Worldwide.	1997-present

Note. From “Where WE Stands: Approaches, Issues and Debate in World Englishes,” by K. Bolton, 2005, *World Englishes*, 24(1), 70-71.

1. *English studies approach*: According to Bolton (2004, 2005), in the early 1980s, there was a paradigm shift in the approach to English studies because various branches of linguistics recognized the notable expansion of English worldwide. Early endeavors to examine World Englishes came from an English studies approach, which is represented by the efforts of linguists such as Randolph Quirk, Robert Burchfield, David Crystal, Sidney Greenbaum, Tom McArthur, Manfred Gollach. McArthur, who has been the editor of *English Today* since 1985, has suggested the notion of plural Englishes as the foreground in the discussion. Later in the 1990s, Sydney Greenbaum presented an important work of English corpus linguistics to contribute precise and comprehensive linguistic descriptions of World Englishes. However, in many senses, the English Studies approach is *linguistic* in orientation and focuses on the centrality of linguistic descriptions of ‘features’ at the levels of phonology, morphology, grammar and vocabularies of

varieties of English, against the matter of variations, which are typically measured (all as cited in Bolton, 2005).

2. *Sociolinguistic approaches*: Sociolinguistic Approaches to World Englishes include four types of studies; 1) Sociology of language; 2) Features-based approaches; 3) Kachruvian studies; 4) Pidgins and Creole studies. According to Bolton (2005), during the 1980s the studies on world Englishes continued to be partially linguistic, particularly the characterization of world Englishes in the Caribbean, Africa and Asia (second sense of World Englishes definition), which are mainly in the field of '*pidgins and creole studies*'. The work of Gorlach (1980), Todd (1984/1995), Muhlhausler (1986), and Holm (1988/89) explain and examine 'mixed' languages and the dynamics of linguistic hybridization. Another approach under Sociolinguistic approaches to WE is '*featured-based*', which tries to identify the distinctive features of varieties. Trudgill and Hannah (1982/1994) focus on pronunciation or accent, vocabulary and grammar. while Cheshire (1991) proposed more accurate 'variation studies' based mainly on analysis of sociolinguistic variation rather than study of only linguistic features, which he believed would explain where errors stop and 'legitimate features of a local variety' may start (all as cited in Bolton, 2005).

Another sociolinguistic approach is the '*sociology of language approaches*'. Joshua A. Fisherman, one of the significant scholars of this approach, has contributed sociologically-detailed treatments of the advance of English, and the 'post imperial English' through research on issues such as language maintenance/shift and ethnolinguistic identity. Fisherman (1996) as cited in Bolton (2004) suggests that English is currently less an *imperialist tool* and more a *multinational tool*. He also notes that the world economy has gone into a new capitalist stage and discussed English in the framework of economic globalization, which was a critique of Phillipson's Linguistic Imperialism as both 'antiquated' and 'erroneous'.

However, during the same period of the 1980s, Braj Kachru, Yamuna Kachru, and Larry Smith appeared to go beyond linguistics into an analysis of the *sociohistorical*, *sociopolitical* and *ideological* (ethical) foundations of the discourses of

world Englishes under the *Kachruvian Approach*. Its influence to World Englishes extends across various sub-disciplines including *applied linguistics*, *discourse analysis*, *critical linguistics*, and *educational linguistics*. Kachru (1992) presented a ‘socially-realistic’ approach to ‘world English’ which allowed him to create the ‘three circles of English’ model of World Englishes representing ‘the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in various cultural contexts’. This shows the movement of the language as it extended from Britain to other ENL countries in the first diaspora, to ESL countries in the second diaspora, and lately, to EFL countries, with no means to present the superiority of any particular circle. Moreover, he also argued for the ‘bilingual creativity’ of the Outer circle and Expanding circle societies, and ‘power and politics’, which caused peripheral English speakers to rewrite the discourses of their English in academics. Overall, his ‘inclusive’ and ‘pluralism’ theory of World Englishes, connecting the expansion of English to language change, language and race, language and nationalism, and the issue of multilingualism, led many scholars to later deal with the sociopolitical contexts of English.

3. *Applied linguistic approach*: In 1960s, Applied Linguistic Approaches to World Englishes began with the study of Halliday, MacIntosh, and Strevens. The newly-emergent field of applied linguistics was generally related to language learning and teaching and language pedagogy theories. In other words, the scholars in this field attempt to examine the ‘implications of World Englishes’ for language learning and teaching. During this period, these scholars argued:

English is no longer the possession of the British, and the Americans, but an international language which increasing numbers of people adopt for at least some of their purposes... it is no longer accepted by the majority that the English of England, with RP as its accent, are the only possible models of English to be set before the young (as cited in Bolton, 2005, p.293).

4. *Lexicographical approach*: According to Bolton (2004, 2005), this approach mainly concerns the objective to fulfill the expression of national linguistic identity. The

lexicographical approach in the Inner Circle begins with American dictionaries and glossaries (Pickering, 1816; Webster, 1828; Bartlett, 1848) and extends to newer national dictionaries such as the Canadian Oxford Dictionary (Barber, 1999), the Australian Macquarie Dictionary, (Butler, 1981), A Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles (Sylva, 1998). The Outer Circle, for instance South Asia, also produced its own glossaries and wordlists in the form of the An Anglo-Indian Dictionary (1885) (all as cited in Bolton, 2005). According to Butler (1997) as cited in Bolton (2005), dictionaries are essential for the recognition of World Englishes and he argues that the dictionary, the flexibility of English, has ability to serve as a vehicle to express Asian or local culture, which is one of its great characteristics since it left English territory. Quirk (1990) as cited in Bolton (2005) also believes that a substantial assertion for an English variety is supported when it is codified through national dictionaries.

5. Popularizers, Critical Linguists, and Futurologists:

5.1 The popularizers: By the mid-1980s, forms of media documenting the expansion of English appeared for a wide audience. These were published in England and North America. Successful popularizers were McCrum, Cran, and MacNeil's (1986), 'The Story of English', a BBC documentary TV series on the history of the English language. McCrum, Cran and MacNeil mentioned the dark side of the expansion of global English, which included the eradication of linguistic diversity, provoking a strong reaction from cultural critics who resented the perceived triumphalism and some linguists' intolerance (all as cited in Bolton, 2004).

Another significant popularizer in the last 25-30 years is David Crystal, who began to write for a popular audience in titles such as The English Language (1988), English as a Global Language (1997), and the Stories of English (2004). Crystal (1997) notes that his aim is mainly to provide 'the relevant facts and factors' associated with a global language, why English has reached worldwide status, English's place in the world, and the future of the language as a world language, in a concise and factual way without political bias. Crystal (1997) also asserts that the extensive spread of English is mostly rational since "English is a language which has repeatedly found itself in the right place

and the right time” (p.110). Robert Phillipson’s response was that Crystal’s work was *Eurocentric* and *triumphalist* (Phillipson, 1999; Crystal, 2000 as cited in Bolton, 2004).

5.2 *Critical approaches*: The discourse on WE significantly changed in 1992 with Phillipson’s notable ‘*Linguistic Imperialism*’, which drew on the politics associated with English. The core of Phillipson’s theoretical approach to *Linguistic Imperialism* primarily concerns his stance on the political relationships between ‘core English speaking countries’ (Britain, US, Canada, Australia, New Zealand), and the ‘Periphery-English countries’ where English is considered as a second language (e.g., Nigeria, India, Singapore), or as a foreign or international language (e.g., Scandinavia, Japan, Thailand). Phillipson (1992) has made strong arguments to show that this relationship is structurally and systematically unequal, where the political and economic superiority of the ‘core English-speaking countries’ has been established and maintained over developing nations or former colonies of European powers. Phillipson (1992) also claimed that such political and economic powers are accompanied by ‘English Linguistic Imperialism’, which he defined as “*the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages*” (p.47).

Phillipson (1992) furthered the concept of ‘*linguistic human rights*’ to warn about the negative consequences of English linguistic imperialism. Phillipson (1992) also questioned whether “*ELT can help create greater linguistic and social equality, as well as whether a critical ELT can help fight linguicism*” (p.319). Phillipson’s work has inspired other important theorists like Alastair Pennycook, who has also been influential in forming critical perspectives and inspiring discussion on world Englishes and applied linguistics in the last ten years. Pennycook’s (1994) ‘*The Cultural Politics of English as an International Language*’ supported Phillipson’s criticisms of applied linguistics and ELT in terms of how they have helped to legitimize the contemporary capitalist force, while examining Anglophone countries’ (Britain and America) role in promoting English globally for their own *economic* and *political* purposes by protecting and promoting

capitalist interests. Pennycook's most recent book, *Critical Applied Linguistics* (2001) defines 'critical applied linguistics' as:

...is more than just a critical dimension added on top of applied linguistics: It involves a constant skepticism, a constant questioning of the normative assumptions of applied linguistics and present a way of doing applied linguistics that seeks to connect it to questions of gender, class, sexuality, race, ethnicity, culture, identity, politics, ideology and discourse. (p.10)

5.3 Futurology approaches: Crystal (1997) and Graddol (1997) are key scholars who examine the future role of English globally. Crystal (1997) as cited in Bolton (2004) addresses main issues such as English as a global language and the ownership of English language, stating that nobody can claim exclusive ownership of English, even a large English-speaking country like the USA, which may have about 20% of the world's English speakers. He also mentioned that there may be those who are uncomfortable with this, especially Britain, but they have no choice. Graddol (1997), another futurology scholar, also devotes his attention to English in the future and writes 'The Future of English?' to identify two main issues linked to the concept of *world standard English*: whether English will split into many different languages; and whether American and British English will still be considered as the only correct models, or a 'new world standard' will arise. Counter to Crystal (1997), Graddol (1997) does not argue for the concept of a *world standard English*, but instead predicts a *polycentric* future for English standards, based on his analyses of sociopolitical and economic influences from the expansion of English.

In summary, the pluralist approaches to World Englishes can be grouped into three main focuses: 1) approaches with a linguistic orientation (English Studies and Corpus Linguistic Approaches); 2) approaches that have linguistic and sociopolitical interests (Sociolinguistic Approaches, Kachruvian's Studies); 3) approaches that mainly focus on a sociopolitical and political orientation with little linguistics (Critical Approaches, Linguistic Imperialism). These approaches are somewhat overlapping with

different orientations, but all share a similar recognition of the spread of English worldwide and its effect on the pluricentricity of the language.

2.2.3 Paradigm shift in ELT

It seems that the current state of linguistics that appears to counteract linguistic variations or sociolinguistic realities in a worldwide context (Canagarajah, 1999), which are influenced by the spread of the English language and the increase in users. It is useful then to revisit the conventional paradigm of linguistics and its fallacies, and to re-examine in what way that ELT paradigm and pedagogy should shift in order to enable educational practices to become more informed, realistic, and to better serve globalization and the current communicative needs of learners.

2.2.3.1 Fallacies based on traditional ELT paradigm

Many scholars have discussed a number of fallacies, and Krachru can be considered one of the most influential scholars. Krachru (1996) criticized the 'leaking' research paradigm and the motive for launching paradigms for profit, primarily for economic gain, which can be divided into six fallacies that have gained the support of many scholars.

The *first* fallacy is "*Interlocutors us vs. them*". In traditional assumptions, English is usually learned in order to interact with native speakers from Inner Circle societies. However, this assumption does not hold true anymore in the current EIL situation in which English has become the main language for people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, meaning that the interactions of Chinese with Pakistanis or Thai with Singaporeans take place in localized discourse strategies (e.g., politeness or persuasion). This has been supported by many scholars (McKay, 2012, 2002; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Jenkins, 2009; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Matsuda, 2003; Kubota, 2012; Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Graddol, 2006). Even international students studying in the Inner Circle countries like US or UK are likely to use English to communicate with international interlocutors like themselves such as Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, etc., rather than with the native speakers from the Inner Circle communities (Widdowson, 2003).

The *second* fallacy is the ‘*Judeo-Christian canon (norm)*’ vs. *Multi-canons*. It is believed that English is learned to understand and teach British and American cultural values and Judeo-Christian traditions. Kachru (1996) argues that, in fact, English is also essentially used to recreate and embody local culture values and identity. That is to say, English is an essential tool to convey local traditions and values. Kachru and Nelson (1996) also note that language is actually bound up with ‘identity’, which means that language is not only used as a tool to communicate thoughts or ideas between people, but also *tell others who we are and where we belong to*. We may witness various examples from ‘bilingual creativity’ defined by Kachru & Nelson (1996), meaning that bilinguals or multilinguals use English in their writing, which reflects their own real world embedded with culture, social pragmatics, and linguistics. For instance, the extract from Kachru and Nelson (1996): “*The next morning I packed my brother’s tiffin carriers more than usual – extra dal, extra chapatis*” (p.84); “*the son of a dog! The seed of a donkey!*” (p.86). These are all examples of bilingual creativity, as the latter example does not appear in the Inner Circle forms as a function when abusing someone. This can be also seen in a Thai context as well such as the use of words like ‘*krengjai*’, ‘*Toh moo boo cha*’, ‘*boon-khun*’, ‘*Pee..*’, etc., which also do not exist in the British or American real world, and make no sense to them. McKay (2002) also discussed this fallacy, noting that one of the main reasons for using English as an International Language (EIL) is to facilitate the sharing of ideas and culture with others in multicultural communication; therefore, it is essential for learners to be able to think about their own culture in relation to others, not only learn about other cultures. By the same token, *the objective of EIL teaching should not be for students to conform to Inner Circle countries’ standards nor to behave in accordance with its conventions* (Kramsch, 1993), *but instead recognize how particular pragmatic differences might impact their own cross-cultural encounters*. Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) also supported this by noting that we learn English not only to understand others but to communicate ourselves to others, with the responsibility in two-way communication in the hands of both speakers.

In regard to a speaker's identity, Kachru and Nelson (1996) raised an interesting question: *if Americans teach North American English since they don't want to be labeled as British, why can't we feel so? Can Indians teach Indian-English like North American?* The essential point here is that we should note that people use language to represent who they are, and a monolithic attitude can affect the issue of identity. If we employ only a particular model or norm, it may not be able to represent our different real worlds and fully communicate our identity to others. In fact, we have the right to use English as a medium for international communication without losing our identity.

Thus, this fallacy of a monolingual attitude should be cast aside and replaced with a multicultural view. With a monolingual view, we tend to see bilingual creativity as 'wrong'. The problem is that through such a monolingual view, other circles will never be able to reveal their real world. On the other hand, through a multilingual or multicultural view, users and learners are more likely to see those texts as differences, which reflect an individual's real world. Moreover, according to McKay (2002), with this fallacy learners are not likely to be aware of the existence of the diversity in all cultures, particularly in the modern age of travel and migration when cross-cultural interactions occur every moment.

The **third** fallacy is '*Endocentric vs. Exocentric models*'. Traditional assumptions claim that international non-native English varieties struggle to attain native-speaker competence as the goal of teaching and learning English (Cook, 2014; McKay, 2002, 2012; Jenkins, 2006, 2012; Sridhar & Sridhar, 1992), in particular, to adopt Received Pronunciation (RP) or General American (Kachru, 1996). This holds true in many ESL/EFL countries, including Thailand (Choomthong, 2014; Cook, 2014; Matsuda, 2003; McKay, 2002, 2012). Kachru (1996) argued that such a view has no empirical validity and is pragmatically counterproductive. The following will discuss the main problems in applying native speaker models linked to SLA frameworks and identity representation.

Regarding the problems in applying NS models, McKay (2002, 2012), and Sridhar and Sridhar (1992) as cited in Jenkins (2009), argued that Second

Language Acquisition (SLA) research stemming from the idea that all learners desire native-speaker competence should be challenged because this assumption will not help us understand the diverse ways and functions that English is used within multilingual settings. English, in fact, does not serve all the functions that it might serve for learners in the Inner Circle. Those in the Inner Circle commonly learn English as their mother tongue or as a replacement for their first language but most bilingual English users who are not in the Inner Circle use English in addition to other languages they speak. That is to say, the learning objectives of many current English users are far more limited than those who learn English as a consequence of the migration to an Inner Circle country. This argument is supported by Graddol (1997), who believes that many of the world's bilingual and multilingual speakers communicate with other multilinguals and use each of their languages for different purposes, with English used alongside other languages. The choice of language or *language appropriateness* depends on what is practical and suitable for each situation and context, rather than being considered as a 'default' language. Canagarajah (2005b as cited in Jenkins, 2006) also supports that a single dialect of English is inadequate for many learners to meet their real-world needs. Therefore, it is a myth to presume that the English used by L2 speakers must be pure English identical to the English spoken by L1 speakers in the Inner Circle communities. In light of these arguments, it would not be an overstatement to say that SLA theory and pedagogy do not view the acquisition process based on the functions that English serves within the local community, sociolinguistic and sociopolitical realities, which might be because the words 'success' and 'failure' are always linked to the term *native speaker*, as noted by Cook (1999):

SLA research has often fallen into the comparative fallacy (Bley-Vroman, 1983) for associating L2 learners with the native speakers. This tendency is reflected in the frequency with which the words succeed and fail are associated with the phrase native speaker, for example, the view that fossilization and errors in L2 users' speech add up to failure to achieve native-speaker competence. (p.189)

Cook (2014) also challenged the traditional assumption of the native speaker as the language learning model for L2 users, asserting that “*good students are not failed native speakers: they are successful L2 users*” (p.76). He also challenged the assumption with a ‘multilingual competence’ concept, proposing that multilingual users can do something a monolingual cannot - namely function in two languages, code switch, to translate or to be aware of the language system. The native speaker target will actually show what L2 users cannot do in terms of native speakers; however, it cannot reveal multilinguals’ unique skills and attributes that go outside the native speaker box. Cook (2014) also asserts that *the native speaker goal is too much of a burden for many L2 learners who can make far better progress if they aim at a target they can realistically achieve - successful L2 users - rather than the native speaker target that they can never achieve*. The argument that the learning goal of native speaker models may not be feasible for EIL learners has also been echoed by McKay (2002), who has pointed out a serious consequence that this could possibly *demotivate* learners when they frequently encounter *failure*.

Another problem in applying the native-speaker model is noted by McKay (2002). She questioned whether most learners have the intensive and extensive input available to reach native-like competence, especially for those in the Outer Circle and Expanding Circle. The extent and composition of the language input they obtain is more limited, and they generally do not have access to the input necessary to achieve native-like proficiency. This is also supported by Kasper (1997), and Sridhar and Sridhar (1992) as cited in Jenkins (2009), who argued for the traditional SLA assumption, assuming that the native speaker input available to learners is sufficient to enable learners to fully achieve native competence. In addition, there are also biological constraints to achieving native-like fluency when learners have already passed their critical period based on the SLA perspective.

Another challenge for the native-speaker goal was brought up by Kirkpatrick (2007), McArthur (1998) and Kasper (1997) as cited in Jenkins (2009), and McKay (2002), who pointed out that it is incredibly difficult to define a native speaker

and native-speaker competence, even within the so-called standard English spoken in the Inner Circle communities, particularly American and British or within native speakers themselves. Therefore, it is not reasonable to use such insufficiently formed terms as a basis for pedagogy and research in SLA.

Moreover, reaching native speaker or Inner Circle models may not help learners understand speakers with various accents or those that come from different L1 backgrounds. Thus, native speaker models may not be sufficient to help prepare users of English to be intelligible in real international communication (Choomthong, 2014; Mukmination, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; McKay, 2002, 2012; Brown, 1995). This view is also supported by Kubota (2001) and Smith (1983) as cited in Matsuda (2003), who note that the inner-circle orientation to ELT may be suitable to prepare ESL learners to communicate in the inner circle, but it is *insufficient* for teaching EIL because of the diversity in how native speakers use English. Teaching English aimed for inner circle communication *neglects* learners' real linguistic needs, *obscures* their understanding about the colonial history and politics of English, and even *fails to empower* them to recognize their right to take ownership of English.

Kasper (1997) as cited in Kachru and Nelson (2000) argued that there could be a conflict due to the sense of '*appropriateness*' for L2 users when they use English vs. a native speaker view; for example, Indian users of English using English for making a request might be seen as overly polite by a native judge. Therefore, when the instructional models are only transferred to the learners without addressing knowledge about differing cultural values, pragmatics, communicative norms or styles that identify language appropriateness in different cross-cultural situations, miscommunication may still occur. This can be explained with the framework of Halliday (1970) as cited in Kachru and Nelson (1996) for the 'functional approach', enabling an understanding of what underlies a language system or how language works. We should keep in mind that when language users create language, this always comes with 1) an interpersonal function (=social relation); 2) an ideational function (=individual identity); 3) a textual function (=meaning), plus the 'ability' to construct situational appropriate discourse. This

emphasizes the importance of the idea that language works beyond merely ‘linguistic’ matters.

Furthermore, holding the traditional assumption of native speaker as a target language learning model, McKay (2002) has pointed out the dangers of such an assumption being transferred to an eastern culture of learning, as such an approach can *“perpetuate differences, promote the concept of otherness, and lead to simple dichotomies and stereotyping”* (p.121). It is often believed by many users of English that other models differing from the native speaker norms are likely to present ‘poor’ English or other automatic attitudinally loaded ideas such as ‘inferior’, ‘low educational level’, or even that speakers may come from provincial areas and have lower social status (Kachru, 1996; Jindapitak & Teo, 2013). A barrier to communication can be created when users tend to lack awareness of diversity and perceive ‘differences’ in cross-cultural communication as a ‘deficiency’ or ‘inferiority’. Matsuda (2003) supported this by noting that the monolingual view that teachers and students hold could lead students to *ignore the human diversity* or varieties of English influenced by social and political realities of different contexts; *develop negative attitudes in cross cultural communication* such as perceiving other varieties of accents, vocabularies and expressions as inferior, non-standard, or a wrong version of English, or *prevent the mutual respect* required for success in any international communications. Such negative attitudes do more harm than good when one particular model is imposed onto learners, especially when that language is considered an ‘international language’, which that such a language does not belong to any particular speech community (Jenkins, 2009).

Moreover, according to Widdowson (2003), accented English or different forms of English do not always mean ‘inferiority’. We may witness proficient users of English from Scandinavia, France, Singapore, or India who gain very high scores on proficiency tests like TOEFL despite their accented English or what is perceived as ‘broken’ English when they communicate among themselves both intra and international contexts.

This fallacy, according to Kachru and Nelson (1996), has also brought up the issue of *bias viewing*. When native speakers don't understand other varieties of English, they view this as *unintelligible* and *undeserving* of the label of English. However, when the Outer Circle or Expanding Circle don't understand the Inner Circle's use of English, which may be because the conflict with the sense of '*appropriateness for L2 users*' vs. '*native speaker monolithic view*', we cannot call their use of English 'unintelligible', but rather 'not good enough in English'. And it seems that this happens because we tend to believe in the myth or fallacy that native speakers of English are the best and should be counted as the only 'standard'.

Sridhar and Sridhar (1994) as cited in McKay (2006) provided an excellent critique to the traditional assumption that it is a learner's objective to reach native-like competence in English. Sridhar & Sridhar point out that various studies of indigenous varieties of English (e.g., Indian English, Singaporean English, Nigerian English) plainly show that a native standard variety can be perceived by local people as 'distasteful and pedantic' and 'affected or even snobbish'.

The *fourth* fallacy is '*Interlanguage vs. Institutionalized Varieties*'. According to Kachru (1996), based on the traditional paradigm, users of English in the Outer and Expanding Circle were believed to produce an 'interlanguage' in terms of their language acquisition or viewed as being on their way to achieving a more native-like English competency as it is believed that the teachers' ultimate acquisitional goal and learners' ideal is to attain native-like competence (Cook, 2014). An interlanguage is thus an approximative system differing from a first language and the target language (native models of English). Then, the interference inevitably results in *error and fossilization*.

Quirk (1990) as cited in Bolton (2004) also denied the feasibility of any non-native variety being institutionalized, with clear implications for foreign language teaching in terms of the requirement of native teacher assistance and for non-native teachers to be in contact with the native language. He also concludes that "the mass of ordinary native-English speakers have never lost their respect for Standard

English, and it needs to be understood abroad too...that Standard English is alive and well, its existence and its value alike clearly recognized” (p.378).

Kachru (1991) as cited in Bolton (2004) challenged Quirk’s assertion that there is widely recognized variation within a non-native variety. Kachru also considers Quirk’s argument to be a *rejection of sociolinguistic and educational realities in which multilingual societies* (Outer and Expanding Circle countries) differ from those in Britain or North America. Such attitudinal connotations with reference to World Englishes seem to be flawed with respect to various issues. Kachru (1996) expanded the monolingual example to other contexts of English contact, instead of regarding them as varieties of English in their own right. Also, this generalization of an interlanguage notion seems to ignore sociolinguistic, socioeconomic, and sociopolitical realities, which facilitate English language policy throughout different contexts. This is also supported by Canagarajah (1999) who notes:

Often the speaker’s L1 is considered to be the culprit in creating fossilized items. Furthermore, code-mixed versions of bilingual communication can be stigmatized as fossilized forms that prevent progression towards native speaker competence. This means that the unilateral movement towards native-speaker norms, and the uniform criteria adopted to judge the success of acquisition, ignores the positive contributions of L1 in the construction of unique communicative modes and English grammars for periphery speakers (p.128).

An interesting fact supporting the challenge to this *interlanguage fallacy* was raised by Kachru and Nelson (1996). It was reported that freshman composition students at United States universities, for example, may be monolingual speakers of English who are believed to be the owner of the target language (English) for second or foreign language learners to acquire in the other end of interlanguage continuum based on the SLA framework (Selinker, 1972). However, it is common for their teachers to complain that they “can’t write”, “have limited vocabularies”, “have no sense of idiom”, focusing on their limitations. *So, what should such an approximative*

system for native and monolingual speakers of English be called? Interlanguage? Therefore, this should imply that being labeled a native speaker does not mean that one possesses the best, richest, most noble model anyhow. Also, we should be aware of our own attitudes. Kachru and Nelson (1996) content that it is taken for granted that ‘second’ should be as less worthy or not as good as ‘first’ in all contexts it will be applied. In fact, institutionalized varieties should be considered as legitimate varieties like those varieties developed in the Inner Circle countries. According to Kachru (1992) as cited in Brown (1995), lexical and morphosyntactic innovations that have emerged especially in Outer Circle varieties as well as in Expanding Circle varieties have *pragmatic foundations*. Such innovations have developed through similar processes as language change from British to American, Canadian, Australian, and New Zealand English varieties. The contact with the local environment and between cultures specifically has assisted the development of these changes to meet the pragmatic needs in the country.

The *next* fallacy is ‘*Native input vs. Local initiative*’. It is believed that native speakers of English provide substantial input in terms of teaching, policy formation, and are even responsible for administering the spread of English around the world (Kachru, 1996). Quirk’s statement (as cited in Bolton, 2004) that native teacher support is needed and non-native teachers require continual interaction with the native language could be evidence to support this assumption.

In response to Quirk’s statement, Kachru (1996) noted that this idea may be slightly valid during the colonial period, but it does not seem valid in the current postcolonial period. In fact, the responsibility for policy formation and administration of the spread of bilingualism or multilingualism in English is in the hands of the local people who use it. The argument has been supported by Canagarajah (1999) in his book ‘*Resistance to Linguistic Imperialism*’, and by Phillipson (1992), and Pennycook (2001) who provided support for ‘*Critical ELT*’ in the postcolonial age.

Another argument was raised by McKay (2002) who challenged the notion that it is not necessary and appropriate for the input in language teaching and policy formation to be informed by the Inner Circle models. She indicated that the

adoption of Inner Circle input for methodology model might be associated with a form of ‘*pedagogical imperialism*’ on the part of Inner Circle educators, demonstrating the power to influence the methodology of the Outer Circle countries, specifically Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The promotion of CLT has been fueled by the spread of assumptions made by the Inner Circle countries about English language learning to other countries, supported by a large textbook industry that promotes communicative approaches. McKay argued that the primary foundation of CLT of using mother tongue is misguided and not appropriate considering that English is being learned primarily in bilingual contexts and is not a culturally sensitive methodology for Asian learners and teachers. The supports have been made in many contexts; for instance, a Pakistani university class where the teacher adopted CLT, and ironically found that the non-threatening and relaxed environment she attempted to set up in her classroom had actually turned into a possible cause of *stress* and *conflict* (Shamim, 1996); or difficulty in China where a large percentage of students were concerned that this approach would make it less likely for them to pass the traditional national examinations which were mostly structure-based; or difficulties in the large class size, limited resources and equipment (Burnaby & Sun, 1989 as cited in McKay, 2002). Based on this evidence, Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) as cited in McKay (2001) suggest that EIL pedagogy should be based on the concept ‘*global thinking, local teaching*’, which underscores Kachru’s assertion that the responsibility for policy formation and administration in language teaching is in the hands of the local people who use it.

The **last** fallacy is ‘*Deficiency vs. Differences*’, which actually overlaps with the fourth fallacy - ‘interlanguage vs. institutionalized variety’. This assumption holds that the diversity and variation in English, and innovation and creativity in the Outer or Expanding Circles, are indicators of the decay of English (Kachru, 1996), which is not true as explained earlier. Kachru (1996) pointed out that differences do not mean deficiency, and the consequence of this monolithic view is that “what is viewed as deficit by one group of English users may indicate pragmatic success to other users,

while what causes linguistic suffering to one group is the cause of ecstasy for the other” (p.84).

2.2.3.2 What assumption/ paradigm should current ELT shift to?

The current ideology and pedagogical practices are still dependent on the aforementioned traditional assumptions. Many scholars such as Cook (2014), Kachru (1996), Baker (2012), Jindapitak and Teo (2011), Boriboon (2011), Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), McKay (2012) note that the pedagogical methods and materials have not yet caught up with the new challenges that English poses in that it has become a world language. This deficiency is specifically noticed in the conceptualization of communicative competence, teaching methodology, classroom materials, and test of international competence in English as examples (Mukminatien, 2012; Kachru, 1996; Jenkins, 2006; Brown, 1995). Many scholars suggest that there is a need to shift the paradigm of the models of ELT to serve the changing profile of English at present. The following will discuss the shift from a native-speaker ideological paradigm (EFL paradigm) based on the concept of English as an International language into ELT curricula implementation (EIL paradigm).

In the *first* shift focusing on ‘*cultural content*’ issue, according to McKay (2002), the goal of teaching EIL should not be to meet Inner Circle standards, but rather to understand how specific practical deviations may influence cross-cultural interactions. There is no need for any bilingual users to try to seek native speaker models to advance their practical competence for suitable use within their own country or cross-cultural contexts (McKay, 2003). Renandya (2012), Kirkpatrick (2007), and McKay (2002) underscore the importance of *intercultural awareness*. McKay (2002, 2012) notes that it is also essential as part of the paradigm shift to EIL that learners need to be able to consider their own culture in relationship to others and that diversity exists in every culture, rather than have an ‘oversimplified view’ of the area of language learning. That is to say, *success and failure in any language should be considered within the sociolinguistic and pragmatic realities of the context that English is being used* (Kachru, 1996; McKay, 2012; Brown, 1995). These can be transferred to the students in the

classroom by exposing them to varieties of cultural knowledge in a broader sense and beyond the Inner Circle samples, as well as pragmatic discourses from conversations among non-native speakers in Outer and Expanding circles so that they can encompass and transfer these various cultural knowledge to unexpected situations of international communication, while at the same time remaining aware of language appropriateness and how pragmatic realities can be interpreted differently in different contexts (McKay, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). Moreover, the shift in WE/EIL curriculum in various contexts should be more appropriately addressing the current English users and their situations, particularly in terms of taking into account the ‘*culture-bound localized strategies*’ of politeness, persuasion, and requests in English which are more culturally significant, effective and appropriate than are the native strategies for interaction offered to EIL learners (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Kirkpatrick (2007) mentions that “*If English in Asia is used primarily for communication between nonnative speakers of English, then the way those people speak English becomes more important than the way native speakers speak English*” (p.23). This suggests that the newer EIL paradigm-based curriculum should be more authentically created for their contexts. In other words, language pedagogy should be geared towards *realistic* and *authentic* profiles of English (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012).

The *next* issue focuses on the ‘*NS model*’. Since the realities are that EIL learners have to interact with different kinds of English users and uses beyond the classroom, and are exposed to varying forms and functions of English with multilingual speakers other than American and British English (Matsuda, 2003), learners of English may not wish to speak a single English variety. Therefore, the *learning goal should be shifted from achieving native-like competence to becoming successful L2 users*. (Cook, 2014; Matsuda, 2009; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Renandya, 2012; McKay, 2012). In addition, Pennycook (2000) as cited in Jindapitak and Teo (2013) suggested that the idea of native speakers being the authority for a language should be replaced by a *newer paradigm* that involves language classroom pedagogy that prepares students to develop skills and knowledge that enable them to become competent EIL users in

different English contexts, not just perform linguistic activities in a classroom, but also to become effective EIL users who are aware of the diverse contexts of English.

Another shift area from the traditional assumption is highlighted by McKay (2002, 2012), who pointed out that many language learners today use English to serve their own specific goals; consequently, an effective *new paradigm of EIL must not make the assumption that learners are attempting to become fully proficient in the language*. And this implies that little contribution would be made to learning if the language policy or responsibility in administration is informed by the Inner Circle norms that do not share the same goals of learning and uses of English. Therefore, the shift into EIL paradigm needs to examine the particular needs of English learners today. This challenge also holds true for the Thai context, which is also in the Expanding Circle where English does not serve any internal function like Japan, Indonesia, Laos, etc. The use of English in the Thai context is far more limited compared to ENL or ESL countries, which also means that the goals of necessarily attaining full proficiency in the language should be questioned.

Furthermore, *another shift* could be made in ‘critical applied linguistic’ perspectives which teachers may try to relate to classroom teaching. This view is supported by many scholars like Friedrich (2007) and Birch (2009) as cited in Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), who raised the question of how English language teaching teachers and EIL teachers can advance *social justice* and *peace*; meanwhile, Holliday (2005) also addressed the social and political forces surrounding EIL teaching practices from a critical point of view by associating the issue of power, ownership of English and native-speakerism. Another World Englishes scholar, Bolton (2005), asserted that a shift in ELT to address the World Englishes notion also begs the question of whether we can have a largely humanist view of life on this planet. While universalistic ideals might appear apolitical or outside the scope of politics and be unimportant to some, to others they provide a deeper understanding of humanity, which is actually significant for all professional fields, not only educators. Said (2003) as cited in Bolton (2005) noted:

A necessary role of educators that as far as the politics of English are concerned, if our perspective is essentially humanist, we can strive to bridge any gaps exist between ourselves and others, and strive for the best for our students and ourselves as educators. Our roles require understanding and compassion for others, which is not monopoly of any particular political theory, but might instead be seen as part of a 'worldly humanism' that has the potential to connect with others (p.79).

Based on critical applied linguistic view, Buripakdi (2012) is another scholar who also calls for a reconsideration of teaching practices in countries where English is not a native language by *engaging learners with social, cultural, and political issues in relation to language teaching*. From his perspective, policymakers and educators should shift away from apolitical views of English as well as make language class more than a place to teach a language; instead, teachers and educators need to include the social, cultural and political aspects of language teaching and learning, and go further than focusing only on applying pedagogical principles or techniques in local classrooms (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011).

The *last* issue regarding the paradigm shift is that EIL educators are engaged in teaching an international language that no longer belongs to any particular country or culture. Pennycook (2000) as cited in Jindapitak and Teo (2013) and Cook (2014) disagree with the idea that native-speakers are the sole authority of language, and advocates that it be replaced by a newer paradigm that relates language classrooms to the world and takes into account local adaptation and appropriation. McKay (2002) suggests that it is logical that ELT should not be connected to a certain culturally influenced pedagogy; rather English should be taught in a way consistent with local cultural expectations, on the basis of *feasibility* in the classroom. For Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) and McKay (2002), the paradigm shift should be geared toward an appropriate pedagogy which is '*global thinking, local teaching*'. EIL educators today are required to

be cognizant of English as a world language and the implications for a range of cross-cultural communicative purposes, as well as consider the way English is used locally.

To be more specific on the roles of the local teacher, in response to the EIL paradigm shift, Renandya (2012) suggests that given the diverse socio-cultural settings in which English is taught today and the changes in the ELT landscape, there is a need for teachers to critically re-examine pedagogical practices, and to adjust and expand their roles to include those that are well-attuned to the assumption and principles for teaching English as an international language. He proposed that the expansion or adjustment include the following five areas: promotion of intercultural rather than native-speaker competence; an awareness of other varieties of English; multilingualism in classes; instructional materials containing local and international cultures; and teaching methodology that is socially and culturally sensitive.

In short, in order to be up-to-date, appropriately respond to the current state of English as a world language, and promote ELT in the contemporary sociolinguistic and sociocultural worldwide context, it is necessary to acknowledge the pluricentricity in the use of English and put aside the EFL paradigm informed by native-speakerism in local curriculum development. Rather, local teachers and educators do have the rights in their way to use English and decide how it should be culturally sensitive taught within their own context, where any decision should be made in consideration of economics, politics, and culture around the world, while Thailand cannot neglect these evolving trends.

2.2.3.3 Possible benefits from the paradigm shift to WE/EIL

According to Matsuda (2003) and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), with the paradigm shift to WE/EIL, *first*, students can be exposed to varieties of English, which can foster the ability to negotiate different Englishes or facilitate learners' communication abilities when encountering different kinds of English uses and users (Sharifian & Marlina, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Kachru & Nelson, 1996; Kubota, 2012; Mukminatien, 2012). *Second*, familiarizing learners with native and non-native uses and users can help them develop a sense of tolerance to linguistic diversity;

students can then overcome their reluctance to use another variety once they see other varieties are available to them (Kachru & Nelson, 1996). **Third**, learners will become truly internationally-minded speakers (D'Angelo, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011) who are conscious of the role of English in the world and the world in English (Pennycook, 2000 as cited in Jindapitak & Teo, 2013). Learners will have a chance to develop an awareness of diversity, mutual respect, understanding, and compassion for other standard varieties of English across cultural boundaries (D'Angelo, 2012; Matsuda, 2002). This could help learners become aware of and respect 'human diversity', which is required for success in any international communication. This can link to the next or **fourth** benefit, which relates to teachers helping to fight *ethnocentrism* and *linguicism* (Phillipson, 1992; Brown, 1995) through their teaching by encouraging learners to develop their understanding and awareness about human diversity and equality, a good characteristic of any educator (Said, 2003 as cited in Bolton, 2005). **Fifth**, it can help students gain more confidence, develop a positive attitude towards their own English, help to lessen their anxiety when speaking English in class, and encourage them to participate in class activities (Lee, 2012). **Sixth**, it can help students develop the communicative competence needed for international communication, including linguistic competence and other competences such as strategic competence, pragmatic competence, as well as intercultural competence (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Sharifian & Marlina, 2012; Lee, 2012; Renandya, 2012). **Seventh**, it can help teachers to better assess students' overall communicative competence, not just grammatical competence but also discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence, which encourages learners to attempt to use language more. As a result, they will gain confidence about their English communicative ability, and focus more on being effective communicators rather than being native-like (Matsuda, 2003; Brown, 1995). **Eighth**, it can encourage language learners to concentrate on a more realistic learning objective of becoming effective EIL users (Boriboon, 2011; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Cook, 2014). The essential point here is that the exposure to varieties of EIL and successfully modeling EIL users through classroom instruction contributes to the legitimacy of new varieties of English and a better attitude toward

learners' own English (Hino, 2012; Lee, 2012; Chiba et al., 1995 as cited in Matsuda, 2003). *Lastly*, the paradigm shift could better serve the current and changing profile of English, which is currently used for communication between non-native speakers rather than with native speakers from the Inner Circle countries. On the top of this, it seems that the paradigm shift to WE/EIL paradigm may also be able to fill the gap of the infancy of WE notion at a practical level, while it could also help reduce foreign language classroom anxiety, the main obstacle to language achievement, based on some of the principles and benefits described earlier.

2.3 ELT Situation in Thailand

The Thai nobility recognized early on the importance of English not just as an intellectual interest, but as a vehicle for communicating with countries which threatened to arrive as colonizers. English was used by Thai people to protect their independence and as a vehicle for absorbing modern ideas and technology into the country.

(Masavisut, Sukwiwat, & Wongmontha, 1986, as cited in Buripakdi, 2012, p.205)

The above statement clearly shows that in Thailand the use of English serves its own linguistic purposes (Buripakdi, 2012) and illustrates how *colonial power* has long influenced the adoption of the language. English first arrived during the reign of King Nang Klaw (1824-1854) when American missionaries came to teach English to young children (Aksornkul, 1980, p.72, as cited in Buripakdi, 2012). Later, when the considerable threat of not knowing the language of the invaders became apparent, English was politically and inevitably introduced to the royal palace with no fear of colonial power in King Mongkut's reign (1851-1868). Firstly, the language was restricted to royal family members before later becoming available to middle-class Thais during the reign of King Vajiravudh (1919-1925) (Masavisut et al., 1986). During this period, the Compulsory Education Act of 1921 was issued, where English became a required subject nationally for students beyond Grade 4 (Dumrongphan et al., 1982 as cited in Methitham

& Chamcharatsri, 2011) and teaching methods were based on rote-memorization and grammar translation. In 1960, when the notion of English for international communication began its role in the English curriculum, Foley (2005) as cited in Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) notes that the audio-lingual method used to train army interpreters was introduced as a replacement for traditional grammar translation, but with very little success. Later, another Western-based method, the 'communicative approach', became popular in ELT worldwide. In 1996, a shift took place when English became compulsory for all primary students from Grade 1, and this extended the communicative approach to a functional-communicative approach (Wongsathorn, 2000 as cited in Foley, 2005). Recently, the British Council has provided a series of free teacher training programs for local teachers in Thailand to be trained on teaching methods to use in their own English classes. However, these adopted methods as described above tend to be promoted for non-native teachers and learners as an appropriate means of teaching and learning without recognition and understanding of the local teaching and learning contexts embedded in their specific cultural, social and political environment (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011).

The most recent change implemented in 2002 by the Educational Act and National Education Curriculum bases English on four orientations or 4Cs: Communication, Culture, Connection, and Community. Also, the Thai government planned to push English to be taught as a second language in Thailand in year 2556 (Office of the Basic Education Commission, AD 2008).

However, Thailand is considered an EFL country, so the use of English is often limited to the classroom; thus, learners have few opportunities to use English in their daily lives, unlike the situation in Singapore or India, where English is used as second language and for intra-national functions. Using the concentric model of Kachru (1992), Thailand is an Expanding Circle country where English is not a part of its history as a second language. However, English has played a crucial part in Thai education for more than one hundred years, and it is essential for the continued economic and technological development, as well as the export-driven economy and tourism. In

addition, for the National University Entrance Examination, English is used as a requisite subject (Darawawang, 2007 as cited in Lieske, 2014). Furthermore, English was adopted as the only working language for the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), of which Thailand is one of the members (Kirkpatrick, 2008).

In general, for the English teaching situation in Thailand, at the university level, the university curriculum is much less controlled and flexible than elementary or secondary curricula, which must be informed and authorized under the national curriculum, and there are more opportunities for university teachers to implement innovative programs and choose materials.

2.3.1 Analysis of ELT in Thailand

2.3.1.1 English language achievement problems in Thailand

The data from the Office of The Basic Education Commission (OBEC) B.E.2556 (AD 2013) showed that the national average scores from the English subject were as follows: for grade 9 students, it was 30.35%, whereas for grade 12 it was 25.35%, which indicates that the average ability to use English language of the students in Thailand is considered at '*need development*' level based on the set criteria (OBEC, B.E.2556). In addition, a report at one government university in Bangkok looking at several workplaces found that graduate students who are currently working and in the process of the recruitment do not yet have satisfactory English proficiency, especially with regard to speaking skill or the use of English for real communication outside class (Statement of the rector of one government university in Bangkok, 2012).

The results on students' language performance implies that the problem may not be caused only by the 'cognitive' variable, the major aspect on which second language researchers like to put their focus. According to Bloom (1976), there are in fact three factors affecting academic achievement: 1) *cognitive entry* - intelligence, aptitude, language learning strategies; 2) *affective entry* - language learning beliefs, anxiety, self-confidence, attitude, motivation; 3) *quality of instruction* - teaching materials and teaching methods.

English language achievement problems among Thai learners can be caused by a disparity between policy objectives and what truly takes place in the classroom. Even though the ultimate goal of learning a foreign language is the ability to use the language for communication, students fail to obtain a sufficient command of the language, especially outside the classroom (Choomthong, 2014), which could be the result of misguided language instruction and inadequate trained teachers. Also, as a result of teachers' limited proficiency, many Thai students are unable to communicate effectively and are engaged mostly in written forms of learning (Karnnawakul, 2004; Kimsuwan, 2004 as cited in Choomthong, 2014).

In addition, Fitzpatrick (2011) as cited in Choomthong (2014) addressed the communicative approach implemented in Thailand and discovered that a number of Thai English teachers struggle to use the communicative approach because of their own limitations in speaking the language, but also because of the backwash effect of national examinations. The findings were consistent with English language education in other contexts such as China and Korea (Li, 1998 as cited in McKay, 2002).

Another point is that based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2542, 2545 and 2551 (A.D. 1999, 2002 and 2008), where language policies are detailed, one of the four main areas is '*to be able to harmonize the language itself with culture of the native speaker*' (Ministry of Education, 2008). This foreign language learning aim is inconsistent with the use of language for communication in real-life settings for a large number of users and interlocutors from the Outer and Expanding Circles. Therefore, it might be said that the students are not adequately equipped to use the language effectively and successfully as they haven't been prepared for the exposure to various Englishes, for the various communication strategies needed for international communication and the broader and deeper senses of cultural knowledge beyond the native speaker culture or communicative norms, nor for sensitivity in EIL and international communication. Therefore, it is no surprise to see that many Thai students cannot use English effectively to serve their specific needs in the global society.

Choomthong (2014) also confirmed another cause that might prevent Thai students from communicating effectively could stem from an affective factor like *'fear'* or *'anxiety'* as many of them are not confident to speak in class due to the fear of making mistakes. In fact, the evidence in Thailand and other contexts described earlier confirms the importance of *'affective variables'* and how they may affect language learning outcomes. In fact, such negative feelings can be closely related to the teaching pedagogy and the materials. To illustrate, since English became an international language, the Thai government, language policymakers and many educational institutions have introduced various teaching methods from Westerners such as the Audio-lingual method, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), or classroom materials like commercial textbooks from publishers mainly centered in native speaking countries like the US and UK, or other Western-based teaching media and technology, or even hiring native speakers in many schools, with the thought being that learners can develop their English proficiency with a native speaker standard if learners learn from the original sources (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Boriboon, 2011). Scholars like Boriboon (2011), and Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) also support this, highlighting the domination of a native speaker ideology that has for a long time informed ELT in Thailand. This should be taken into account as it could be considered the indirect cause of the low self-esteem and low English achievement of Thai learners.

2.3.1.2 EFL paradigm domination in Thai society

A *'paradigm'* is driven by a particular set of *beliefs* or *ideologies* people hold regarding the world (Boriboon, 2011). According to Boriboon (2011), Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011), and Jindapitak and Teo (2013), while at present many contexts around the world have gained an interest and acceptance in WE/EIL notion, believing that English belongs to whoever uses it (Jenkins, 2009; Matsuda, 2003; Widdowson, 2003; McKay, 2003; Kachru, 1996), ELT in Thailand is still very oriented to an *EFL paradigm*. To clarify, the EFL paradigm is driven by Western ideology (in contrast to the EIL paradigm), which believes that speakers who are born and raised in a country where English is used as their first language, such as in the UK, the US,

Australia, New Zealand, and Canada, are the ones who ‘own the English language’ (Boriboon, 2011). With the EFL paradigm, speakers who take this view would feel like they are borrowing someone’s property and there is a need to use it according to the standards determined by the ‘owner’ (Seargeant, 2009). This native speaker ideology is actually believed to have a significant psychological impact on the users of English (Jenkins, 2009).

English language education in Thailand is deeply rooted in the EFL paradigm, which encourages learners to perform in reference to the directions given by native speakers (Buripakdi, 2012; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012, 2013; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011). This is because in Thailand, standard English is considered that which is used by the Inner Circle countries, ignoring the fact that English is currently used by a greater amount of users in the Outer and Expanding Circles (Choomthong, 2014). Boriboon (2011) and Methiham and Chamcharatsri (2011) point out that in the Thai educational system, EFL paradigm has been adopted by most teachers, administrators, practitioners, and those who hold the power to set language policy (Boriboon, 2011; Buripakdi, 2012). Thai English teachers are expected to conform to theoretical and pedagogical techniques that are informed and rooted in Western-based methodology. Consequently, Thai students are initially imposed upon by their teachers and those who have power in policy and curriculum, and later on, they carry the stress of attempting to ‘sound native-like’ to conform to speakers from the English-speaking West. Most of them have unattainable dreams of being able to fully interact in English with a British or American accent, especially to listen to and respond with either British or American accents, and be fluent in both speaking and writing (Methiham & Chamcharatsri, 2011).

This situation is hardly a surprise as most Thai teachers tend to believe that the ultimate goal of English learning is to help students adopt and achieve the native speaker model (Choomthong, 2014), similar to many other ESL/EFL countries (Cook, 2014; Jenkins, 2012; Mukminatien, 2012; Matsuda, 2009; Kubota, 2012; McKay, 2012), as well as trying to bring learners close to the native speaker model as much as

possible in terms of form, pronunciation, and cultural norms. Thus, they tend to teach linguistics, culture, and pragmatic appropriateness that are oriented to native speaker models whether they are teaching listening or speaking skills (Boriboon, 2011; Matsuda, 2012). Overall, based on the EFL paradigm, success and failure in English language learning is determined with native norms as the yardstick (Sherifian, 2009; Jenkins, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Alsagoff, 2012). As a result, Boriboon (2011) notes that many Thai learners fear to speak English as they don't want to lose face or get a negative evaluation if they cannot speak with a native speaker accent. Most Thai people wish to acquire a native speaker accent as it symbolizes that a person is 'competent', 'modern', or even from 'high-class' society (Buripakdi, 2012). It can be concluded that this is an important indirect cause of the low English achievement of Thai learners (Boriboon, 2011).

According to Foley (2005) as cited in Boriboon (2011) and Buripakdi (2012), the EFL paradigm is a *consequence of the colonization* led by English speakers. During the colonization, English was used not only for intellectual interest, but also for advancing the underlying *political agenda* as it was the means to communicate with countries that threatened to colonize them, and to learn about their culture, knowledge, in order to make Thais be accepted as a civilized community who deserved independence as mentioned earlier (Masavisut, Sukwiwat, & Wongmontha, 1986 as cited in Buripakdi, 2012). Therefore, ELT has been closely tied to the colonizers like the UK and the US, and has been continued by the economic dominance led by the US, which has greatly influenced English users in Thailand in choosing an English model for themselves (Boriboon, 2011). Colonial power has also been asserted by McKay (2003) to be influential for the retaining of the EFL paradigm in many EFL/ESL contexts.

Moreover, other possible reasons for EFL ideological domination in Thailand could be that the US and the UK are the most influential in forming the theoretical framework and principles in ELT, which make them become the center of textbook production, classroom materials, teaching methods, and testing techniques (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Boriboon, 2011) that many countries including Thailand tend to adopt. The idea that the EFL paradigm could be reinforced by the

teaching aspect and materials was supported by MacIntyre & Gardner (1991) as cited in Occhipinti (2009), and Seargeant (2009) as cited in Boriboon (2011), in that negative experience may be caused by teachers as well as the methods he or she adopts. That is to say, students do not develop language tension and heavy burden by themselves at the very beginning, but rather reinforcement of teachers and those who have power in the society through the social process. Boriboon (2011) notes that ELT in Thai society has been deeply entrenched in the native speaker ideology for a long time and formed by people who have power, policy makers, teachers and then passed on to learners, parents and society as a whole. In light of this, it is possible that the *introduction of only a native norm in classroom teaching and materials* can underpin the learners' perception that US or UK English varieties are the only norm in the world or that they have the ownership of the English language, while ignoring the existence of other English varieties in realities.

In addition, Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) point out that an *uncritical examination of teaching materials and methods* has not yet been seriously discussed in ELT in Thailand, while the teaching methods informed by the West always play a substantial role. This is because these promoted teaching methods are research-supported and are pedagogically sounded. Thai teachers willingly 'adopt' these teaching methods and materials, not realizing that the teaching contexts are different. Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) further note:

Histories, festivals, and cultures from the West in English textbooks are perceived as civilized and modern, while the local ones are outdated and need to keep up with the world. By immersing students in native speakers' cultures, we marginalize ourselves both with regard to language and culture. With help from media and the internet, students are likely to perceive that the native speakers' norms are better than the local ones (p. 64-65).

According to Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011), the EFL paradigm is not only promoted through teacher-led processes such as CLT-oriented classrooms or the selection of teaching materials, which tend to evaluate learners against

the idealized native-speaker model, but also reinforced through *extra-curricular activities* created by English language departments such as celebrations on Christmas, Halloween or Thanks-giving. Methitham's study (2009) as cited in Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) indicated that Thai students are reinforced for adopting an ideology of nativeness by having them become acquainted with Western cultures through cultural activities. One of the participants (Thai teacher) stated that these activities would make students get closer to the Western culture as they call themselves the Department of Western languages.

The evidence of EFL domination in Thailand reinforced by the textbook and materials is also observed by the researcher's own experience as an English teacher, based on the examination of many English textbooks adoption in various courses. It seems that *local characters tend to be marginalized*, and the majority of characters in the textbooks are from the Inner Circle countries like US or UK. Moreover, most of the learning materials are still based on native speaker model accents or cultural norms, especially listening and speaking skills. Kubota (1998) raised a similar concern regarding English textbooks in Japan, observing that they often present an incomplete understanding of the EIL paradigm by presenting the superiority of native speakers of English and their culture, which causes a *negative view towards non-westerners*.

According to Canagarajah (1999), the results of students' negative attitude towards other varieties of English as being inferior to the mainstream inner circle ones is not surprising since native speaker discourses are prevalent in all kinds of media and classroom materials in nonnative contexts. Matsuda (2002) asserts that the *absence of exposure to other varieties linguistic samples* or characters from outer and expanding circle leaves students unaware of the existence of other varieties or *causes them to assume they are inferior*.

It is interesting to note that many teachers, including Thais, may argue that they never impose the learning goal of reaching native speaker competence on to their learners; on the contrary, their goal is to enable students to communicate in international contexts successfully. However, the materials and pedagogy they use in the

classroom seems to be geared toward native speaker ideology (Boriboon, 2011). Methitham's study (2009) as cited in Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011), using questionnaires and interviews with Thai teachers of English found that the majority considered Western-oriented teaching methods as neutral and apolitical tools in teaching English, and they tended to believe that these concepts did not contain any hidden ideologies. In addition, the most preferred teaching method among them was still Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which is the Anglo-American-generated methodology - *"Thai teachers seem to echo the voices and choices of those celebrated Western scholars who attempt to neutralize the monolingual and mono-cultural bias with the promise of communicative competence"* (p.63).

Furthermore, in regard to Thai teachers' assertion that they never imposed native speaker ideology onto students, Canagarajah's (1999) argument is that textbooks in periphery classrooms can be influential to local curricula. Some *practical difficulties* to producing material for every class seem to be common to many periphery countries (Phillipson, 1992). This drives teachers to depend on ready-to-use materials provided by Western agencies and they continue to use them. Many teachers take native norms for granted and see such dependence as an apolitical, or even internalize the belief that ownership and superiority belong to so-called 'native speakers' (Methitham & Chacharatsri, 2011).

As a result, Canagarajah (1999) states that the learning situations and class activities take the communicative norms and cultural values of American communities for granted, and do little to encourage a critical exploration of such discourses. The pedagogical assumption that instrumental activity communicates itself to students could be the reason why textbooks have a potential to influence students. The linguistic ideology of the textbooks or a curriculum intent on giving students fullest possible orientation to the American speech community tend to reinforce the dominance of a 'standard English', by ignoring the existence of local Englishes in the periphery. This assumption hardly fosters a healthy attitude towards the vernacular among the students and can be powerful sociocultural forces that influence learning in a subtly pervasive

manner. He also notes that while some students may be indifferent to such curriculum because it has little relevance to their lives, others may be intensely attracted by the image portraying a lifestyle of superior of the Inner Circle communities. Therefore, language learning cannot be considered as completely innocent activity as it raises the possibility of ideological domination and social struggle. So, *“teachers then should attempt to critically question and examine their courses, relate learning to the larger sociopolitical realities, and encourage the students to make pedagogical choices that offer sounder alternatives to their living condition”* (Canagarajah, 1999, p.14).

Hutchinson (1987) as cited in (McKay, 2012), emphasized the importance of materials development for effective language teaching and learning because materials represent an embodiment of the aims, values and methods of the particular teaching learning situations. McKay (2012) also pointed out that it is commonly acknowledged that materials guide learners’ attention to certain topics, it is less commonly acknowledged that textbooks can direct teaching methods or how learning occurs. This implies that the lack of an EIL concept or *incomplete presentation of English models in teaching materials can dictate or inform the teaching content, as well as shape teaching practices and how learning takes place in the classroom.*

Another contributor to EFL pedagogical and ideological domination in Thailand was observed by Boriboon (2011), who mentions that some teachers believe they are ‘*guardians of standard English*’ because they are capable of reaching a native-like model. Therefore, the protection and worship of the native speaker model is a means to protect a teachers’ own identity and support their social status, maintaining power and respect, which they tend to pass on to learners. From the leading economic status in global context of US and UK, it is not surprising that most Thai teachers and learners desire to achieve native-like models of these two countries and also favor of ‘Americanisms’ or ‘Britishisms’ at the same time.

Furthermore, according to McKay (2012), the prevalent *belief in the power of English* could be another essential reinforcing factor for the continuing dominance of the EFL paradigm, which may be witnessed by many surrounding

discourses provided by private ELT schools. For example, the sales slogan describes British Hills in Japan as a leisure language-learning complex that seeks to stimulate an ‘authentic’ English-speaking environment that is staffed by native speakers recruited from Britain, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, and boasting that the complex is ‘More English than England itself’ (p.39). According to McKay (2012), *the discourse surrounding the use of English* has resulted in many language learners unrealistic expectations of what knowledge of English may bring to their lives. This image of the idealized native speaker or the EFL paradigm in linguistic judgments can be also witnessed from many international schools in Thailand, which take pride in being all-English schools with all teachers being native English speakers (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013). This reflects a general belief in the power of English among many Thais who believe that an inner-circle-native-speaker ideology and pedagogical model would best provide learners with the skills needed for global communicative success (Methitham, 2011 as cited in Jindapitak & Teo, 2013).

In contrast, the *EIL paradigm* is not well known in Thailand as few courses under EIL paradigm are offered by universities (Boriboon, 2011). Understanding of the EIL paradigm is very limited in a Thai educational context. Even many university teachers still don’t understand the principles of EIL, while teachers of primary and secondary levels lack knowledge about it since they do not keep updated with new research compared to university teachers (Nattheeraphong, 2004 as cited in Boriboon, 2011). As a consequence, EIL in classroom practice is still in its infancy in a Thai context (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Boriboon, 2011).

2.3.1.3 Negative effects of EFL domination on curricula in Thailand

(1) Insufficient to fulfill learners’ current communicative needs

The main issue regarding adoption of the EFL paradigm seems to be its incompatibility with the communicative needs of Thai learners in the globalization era (Boriboon, 2011). According to Foley (2005) and Tanielian (2014), the current use of English in Thailand mainly occurs between Thais and other non-native speakers of

English. This could imply that the grammatical rules and lexical forms of English use today are far more varied than ever before. However, very little has been written on what this variation of grammatical form and lexical use suggests for language teaching (McKay, 2012). McKay also considers this as a problem since it implies the *oversimplification of the language complexity* and use today that does not prepare learners to use English with other L2 speakers in the real international contexts.

ELT in Thailand also reveals a similar negative phenomenon as mentioned above as most teaching methods and classroom materials still exemplify only native speaker models. The national curriculum of basic education in Thailand still uses the term ‘native speaker’ in association with the main objective for English language development under the area “*the selection of language, tone, and manner to be appropriate to the level of interlocutor, time, occasion, and place based on the cultural norms of the native speakers*” (Office of the Basic Education Commission, 2008), which is not compatible in the globalization era and the fact that other countries have begun to shift the paradigm to EIL. This is because in real-world international communication, learners will not encounter only native speakers from the Inner Circle, but also non-native speakers from various cultural backgrounds.

To illustrate, EFL ideological domination and its incompatibility with the current communicative needs insufficiently prepares learners for international and cross-cultural communication contexts. This is because the students have limited exposure and are unfamiliar with other varieties of English models including linguistic forms, accents, cultural knowledge, and varying pragmatic appropriateness among intercultural contexts (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Nomniam, 2009 as cited in Boriboon, 2011), which leads learners to encounter problems in their real international communication or even refuse to respect other varieties (Matsuda, 2003). Boriboon (2011) also alleges that EFL might not be able to fully prepare Thai students as EIL users for real use with international interlocutors from cross-cultural English-speaking contexts, especially when the students need more exposure to a wide range of non-native speaker regional accents or English spoken by other ASEAN member countries such as

the Philippines, Laos, Singapore, and Malaysia in order to prepare them for real-world communication (Choomthong, 2014).

Another negative consequence from not exposing learners to varieties of English is asserted by Major et al. (2002). They note that both native and non-native listeners scored significantly lower on listening comprehension tests when they listened to non-native speakers of English, and suggest that a test of listening comprehension at university should include accented English to reflect ‘*authentic language*’ for their language context. This is because the factors contributing to listening comprehension involve ‘*familiarity*’, ‘*degree of exposure*’, ‘*attitude*’, and ‘*stereotyping*’. This is also consistent with McKay (2012) and Matsuda (2002), who claim that the typical classroom focusing only on native speaker model may not be sufficient to prepare learners for success in international communication.

Jindapitak and Teo (2012) also found that peripheral accents were the most difficult to recognize and explain the possibility of less exposure to these peripheral types of English. The informants seemed to lack awareness of linguistic diversity, which was reflected in their inability to identify other varieties such as Japanese, Filipino, and Indian English with correct identification of only 17% and 13%, respectively; meanwhile, 50% of Thai tertiary informants were able to identify the Thai English accent the most, followed by American and British English accents at 26.92%. Supporting Major et al.’s study (2002), the informants’ recognition patterns involve their familiarity, speakers’ phonological features, as well as their attitude about standardness - non-standardness, correctness-incorrectness, and perceptions of intelligibility-unintelligibility of particular variety. This also reflects that in Thailand, “the concept of EIL and linguistic diversity is still in its infancy” (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013).

(2) English language achievement in relation to learner’s low self-esteem

Boriboon (2011) mentions that the way that the government organizations, policy makers, language institutions, and teachers give too much of a priority to nativeness, with or without intention, diminishing the status of Englishes or

Thai English (here focusing more on accent) in society. The overemphasis on native speaker ideology by the authorities and teachers who act as guardians of the native speaker standard can underscore such native speaker ideology in learners' minds, which could be considered a major cause of students devaluing themselves and leading to the fear of speaking English, which could be an indirect factor for Thai learners' low level of English achievement.

To illustrate, it is possible that the domination of EFL paradigm has created a '*deep-seated inferior self-image*' or low self-esteem among learners (Boriboon, 2011; Buripakdi, 2012), which is considered the main factor for 'anxiety'. This negative self-construction or low self-esteem have been gradually formed by most proficient users, influential people, and teachers in Thailand who often stress the idea of native speakers as the only correct model through classroom teaching (Boriboon, 2011).

The evidence is confirmed by some scholars in Thailand (Boriboon, 2011; Jindapitak & Teo, 2013; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Buripakdi, 2012). Learners who hold a monolithic view of the world are likely to undervalue their own English and their status as non-native speakers, or even conclude that their own English is not acceptable (Boriboon, 2011). In Thai society, Buripakdi (2012) found that even most professional bilingual Thai writers had low self-esteem and devalue their English as 'low class' or 'not sophisticated' and expressed their embarrassment to use their Thai English, while aiming for native speaker competence and perceiving the native speaker model as 'more advanced', 'modernity', 'civilization' and 'sophisticated'. They tend to believe that inability to speak the standard English variety is an indicator of lower intelligence and status. People who speak English with a Thai accent are normally perceived as someone in a peripheral position with low proficiency and self-devalued (Buripakdi, 2008, 2010 as cited in Boriboon, 2011). This results in the rejection of the *Thaiglish* identity (mainly refers to accent). On the other hand, the native speaker accent is desired by most Thai people (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012, 2013; Boriboon, 2011).

This is also consistent with the researcher's own teaching experience. Many Thai tertiary students perceive their own English accent as bad or

embarrassing, and are thus reluctant to speak out or engage in speaking activities in class, which is in fact indispensable for language acquisition based on the input and output hypothesis of Krashen (1985). As mentioned earlier, the fear of making errors and low self-esteem are considered as major sources of foreign language anxiety (Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986), while language anxiety is also found to be significantly associated with language learning performance and success.

(3) Fostering unrealistic learning goal (as source of language anxiety)

Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) note that Thai students are imposed upon through the educational system, teachers, and later internalize the heavy burden of struggling to reach ‘unrealistic learning goals’ based on an idealized native speaker model that they can never achieve (Cook, 2014). Many scholars like McKay (2012), Kubota (2012), Tanveer (2007), Renandya (2012), and Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011) also support this and suggest that goal of ELT needs to move beyond the native-like competence to enable learners to become ‘competent EIL users’. This is because such a goal may contribute the learners devaluing themselves for being non-native speakers (Boriboon, 2011) as well as demotivate their learning (McKay, 2002). Bolton (2002) as cited in Bolton (2005) also supports the issue of unrealistic goal by noting that “*the maintenance of traditional target norms of English proficiency may not only lack realism but may also contribute to the stigmatization of the norms of local users (including teachers and learners), contributing to a ‘cultural complaint’ rather than a ‘culture of confidence’...*” (p.388).

Moreover, Matsuda (2003) mentions that the traditional paradigm which does not expose learners to a successful model of non-native speakers who can communicate effectively can actually be dangerous. This is because *students do not have any way to know how successful they could be with their accented English* and they may still feel embarrassed about their accent and then become reluctant to speak. As a result, they are likely to retain their unrealistic learning goal and experience heavy pressure to reach native-like competence.

Another point made by Jenkins (2009) regarding the *belief about the ownership of the language* is that learners do everything to get closer to the model they believe to have the ownership. Jindapitak and Teo's study (2012) on Thai tertiary students' attitude towards varieties of English found that most Thai learners believe that the British and American varieties are the only standard English, while other varieties are non-standard. This is consistent to Matsuda's (2002) findings from Japanese students who believe that standard English belongs to only the Inner Circle countries like US and UK. So, based on Jenkins's psychological impact theory mentioned above, it is likely that Thai and Japanese students would do everything to achieve the native norm, which in fact seems to be an unrealistic goal. Cook (2014) asserts that "*students should aim at a target they can realistically achieve - successful L2 users - rather than to meet a monolingual native speaker target they can never achieve*" (p.77). Consequently, according to Young (1999) and Tanveer (2007), such unrealistic goals defined by the native speaker model (e.g. accent) can be a major cause for language anxiety among L2 learners, which can impair language learning process and performance further.

(4) Reproduction of social inequalities

Boriboon (2011) claims that the EFL paradigm has taken deep root in Thai society at almost all levels as one influential mechanism to '*discriminate social status*', and it may cause Thai learners who cannot speak with a native speaker accent to be unwilling to speak English. Also, the hegemonic power of standard English could gradually build up *linguistic prejudice* and *reproduction of social inequalities*. To illustrate the first sense of 'reproduction of social inequalities', this could involve linguistic prejudice, which refers to the concept of privileging standard English over non-standard English varieties so that people make generalizations and stereotypical statements concerning with language ideology (Buripakdi, 2012). As mentioned earlier, anyone who speaks with a Thai English accent is likely to be perceived as 'low class', 'marginalized' and 'devalued', while British or American English are placed in a position of prestige as original English (Buripakdi, 2012). According to Jindapitak and Teo (2012), the evidence of linguistic prejudice from an incomplete presentation of English

language in classroom teaching can be reflected in the majority of Thai students in the study who appeared to have adopted some stereotypes and prejudices against parts of the world that they were not familiar with or perceived other English varieties as ‘non-standard’, ‘stiff’ or even ‘bad English’ including the Thai English accent, which is consistent to a Japanese case study (Matsuda, 2003).

The language prejudice is also found across ELT contexts. Matsuda’s (2002) qualitative case study of Japanese secondary school students’ attitudes toward English revealed that the participating students held a markedly *Western-centered view of the world*. To clarify, many students considered the words ‘abroad’ and ‘foreign countries’ to be synonymous with the West - North America and western European countries in particular, while other areas such as Africa and South America were beyond their sense of reality, and even other Asian countries appeared not to be *foreign* enough. They showed their preferences for British and American varieties as the only acceptable forms of standard English. Moreover, Matsuda (2002, 2003) also claims that a traditional EFL curriculum, which exposes learners to the limited varieties of English or only inner-circle English, may cause learners to *resist linguistic variations* or even lead to *confusion* when they confront diverse types of English uses and users in authentic texts or in cross-cultural contexts.

Major et al. (2002) also comment on the negative attitudes and stereotypes regarding nonnative or accented speech that exist as perceptual constructs in the minds of both native and non-native speakers of English. Stereotypes include the belief that non-native speakers come from a lower social status than native speakers. In Nesdale and Rooney’s study (1996), Australian children assigned lower status ranking to Italian- and Vietnamese-accented English than to native Australian English. Once the participants recognize an accent, they classified the speaker as coming from a lower status regardless of the extent of that accent. In Gill’s study (1994), native speakers of English ranked standard accents more positively than they ranked non-native accented speech, and Toro (1997) discovered that Puerto Rican students ranked standard American English more positively than they ranked the English of Greeks, Puerto Ricans, and

southern Americans. This is also consistent with the findings on Thai tertiary students who also reflected the same attitudes toward other non-native varieties (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012) or even among writer professions' attitudes from Buripakdi's study (2012). This shows deep-rooted problems associated with *reproducing the inequality in the minds of L2 learners* including Thai.

The next sense of reproduction of inequality can be drawn from Matsuda (2002)'s study, which found that limited awareness and understanding of students regarding the world was influenced by the traditional paradigm. This may *take away a valuable learning opportunities* or make *equality of human rights* impossible in real postcolonial discourses that should reflect local sociolinguistics and sociopolitical realities (Pennycook, 1998). The evidence can be drawn from Matsuda (2002) who notes that the current English focus in textbooks in Japan centers almost entirely on the Inner Circle countries, which is quite similar to the Thai situation. All seven textbooks selected by Matsuda (Grade 7 book) were based on morphological, syntactic rules, phonology, pronunciation, spelling, and vocabulary in standard American English. Also, the findings suggested that Inner Circle characters were given 'bigger roles' in dialogues than others, and implied that Inner Circle native speakers have more authority in using the language (Matsuda, 2012). The use of English presented in the textbooks, especially concerning its use of international interactions in English, primarily consists of examples between native speakers and non-native speakers of English, with only a few between bilingual speakers of English. This shows that learners are taken for granted and provided with few models of the real current interactions in English, which occur in L2-L2 interactions rather than L1-L2. In short, similar phenomena in Japan and Thailand may be evidence of how students are denied valuable '*learning opportunities*' or '*equality of human rights*' to access real discourses in the globalization era.

Another sense of the proliferation of inequality may involve the issue of native speaker teachers and Thai teachers. The possible consequence of the monolingual prejudice can be seen from many institutions selecting teachers to teach English just because they are native speakers from the US or UK. Even worse, some

places recruit English teachers just because of their ‘foreign’ appearance, without considering any language teaching quality. Therefore, Thai teachers have inferior status and are stigmatized even though they have high proficiency in English (Suwanarak, 2010). This could be another form of the reproduction of inequality.

The last sense is that many rural learners who do not have equal access or as much opportunity as learners who have better socioeconomic status are likely to have less work opportunities as they don’t have a native speaker accent (Sitthitikul, 2006). Therefore, English language learning now is not only about communication, but also involves power, access, and identity. According to Boriboon (2011), in order to succeed in education reform in Thailand with the aim of getting rid of social inequality, it is essential that a paradigm shift in ELT needs to happen.

It is also important to note that this perception is not formed by itself, but rather by teachers who have authority in class and by policy makers who have authority in society. This can be considered as ‘*symbolic violence*’ or ‘*misrecognition of the authorities*’, which is passed on from the authorities to learners, parents, and society as a whole through the socialization process and discourse surrounding English until the members in the society have generated ‘misrecognition’ (Bourdieu, 1984 as cited in Boriboon, 2011). In the view of Seargeant (2009), *educational institutions are the most important generators of ideology about what English language is* before these ideas are transferred to society. This implies that in shifting the ELT paradigm, all stakeholders need to take part, while educational institutions and especially the authorities and policy makers have to buy into the shift.

2.3.2 Proposed model solution to language anxiety with WE concept

As mentioned earlier, there seem to be various factors related to language anxiety in classroom learning, and one of the major problems reviewed earlier stems from EFL domination in the Thai curriculum. Therefore, this part will discuss a proposed solution based on the shift to the WE/EIL paradigm model and suggestions on how to incorporate it into existing course or classroom practice.

2.3.2.1 How is language anxiety developed (from WE critical lens)?

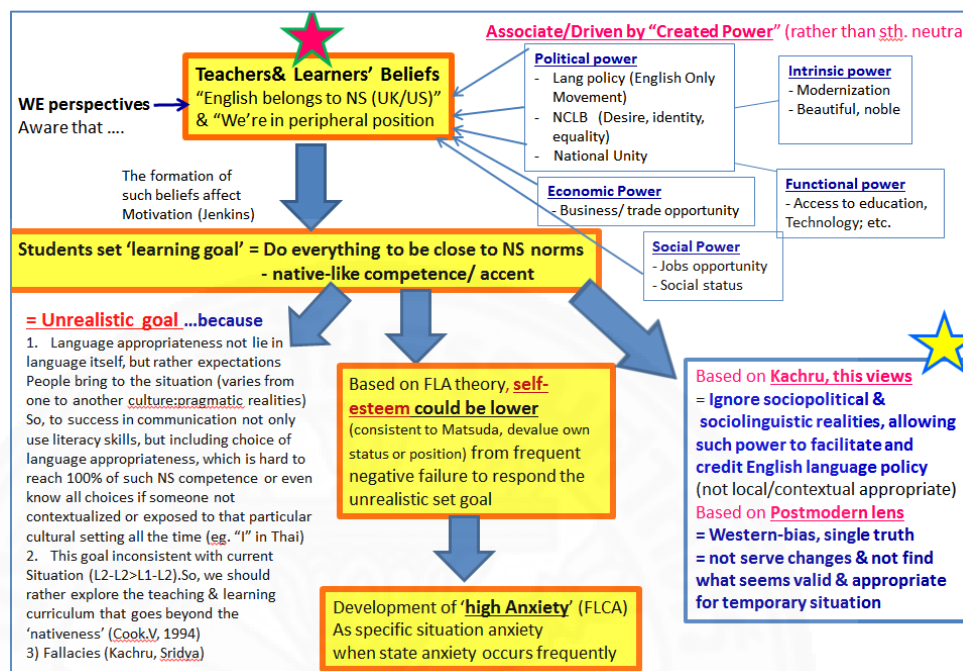


Figure 2.2. Model 1: How can language anxiety be developed (from WE Critical lens)?

To illustrate figure 2.2 above, the researcher studied various theories from WE/EIL scholars such as McKay (2002, 2012), Jenkins (2009), Pennycook (2001), Kachru (1996), Cook (1994, 2014), Phillipson (1992), with the attempt to connect their concepts and expand upon the researcher's framework to create *Model 1: How can language anxiety be developed (from WE Critical lens)?* Adopting a 'critical lens' means that we try to associate power (social, political, economic), politics, identity, equality, desire, opportunity, and differences with something, and here in this study was with language learning and teaching or what Pennycook (2001) termed 'critical applied linguistics'. To clarify, when we transfer this idea to ELT as 'critical ELT', it means that language teaching is not only concerned with the ability to read and write, but it also gives importance to the idea that teachers should understand how power may come into play with language, its access, language appropriateness, and the impact on teaching and learning (e.g., on students' self-perception, identity, anxiety, disrespectful relation).

Thus, with a WE perspective based on this critical lens, it is likely that one of the primary sources of low English achievement caused by language anxiety

comes from the misconception about language learning that is that English belongs to only native speaker Inner Circles, while perceiving other varieties and oneself as inferior, non-standard, or in peripheral positions (Kachru, 1996; Matsuda, 2003; Jenkins, 2009), rather than coming from the cognitive aspect or ability to read or write. With a WE perspectives, according to Kachru (1992, 1996), it is believed that this perception is likely to be affected by ‘created power’. These powers may involve *political power* such as the English Only Movement language policy in the US in the postcolonial era, or ‘No Child Left Behind Policy’ (Jenkins, 2009), which have various effects on learners’ in terms of desirability, identity loss, or inequality in their language choice. Moreover, this could involve *economic power*, such as business trade (Graddol, 2006), *social power* like status or job opportunities (Sitthitikul, 2006), *intrinsic power* such when learners perceive English as a noble or beautiful language (British Council, retrieved from Wikipedia, February 4, 2013), or *functional power*, such as access to higher education or technology (McKay, 2012).

Moreover, in terms of ‘power’ and ‘language’, Halliday (2006) as cited in Jindapitak & Teo (2013) contend that these judgments that certain spoken varieties are more prestigious and better than others, like the way that Thai or many EFL students believe in the ownership and superiority of the Inner Circle countries, are more likely to be a *political matter than a linguistic matter*. That is to say, instead of being used as a way to communicate, language is used politically as a means for socially classifying others. Thus, there is the emergence of ‘unequal social power’ as characterized by different styles of language use. The way that language variety is viewed through the lens of mediated sociopolitical and social-psychological actions (Pennycook, 1994 as cited in Jindapitak & Teo, 2013) may play a key role in these judgments.

However, in the absence of recognition, these powers may lead to misconceptions about language learning, especially about the ownership of English, which then could cause learners to form the *unrealistic learning goal* of achieving native-like models. According to Jenkins (2009), such a belief in language ownership can affect

students' motivation to set goals to achieve the standards determined by whom they believe to be the owner of the language.

The traditional learning goal of reaching the native speaker model may be considered 'unrealistic' due to many reasons discussed earlier in this chapter such as language appropriateness, which does not lie in the language itself but rather the expectations people bring to each other (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). Consequently, knowing only one standard variety or model may not be sufficient for success in all international communication. In addition, it may be unrealistic since such a goal seems to be inconsistent with the current situation where the communication occurs among non-native speakers themselves rather than native speakers from the inner circle countries. Or it could be unrealistic because of some fallacies described by Kachru (1996) and many scholars mentioned earlier.

Consequently, such unrealistic goals as defined by native speaker ideology could be a major source of language anxiety (Boriboon, 2011; Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999) and bring about low self-esteem among L2 learners (Matsuda, 2003; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Boriboon, 2011), once that the learners experience frequent failure to reach such unrealistic goals (Young, 1999). Eventually, the learners tend to develop specific situation anxiety like foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) when state anxiety occurs frequently.

Apart from the formation of 'unrealistic learning goals', it could also have *negative implications for ELT*. According to Kachru (1996), such goals tend to ignore sociolinguistic and sociopolitical realities, while also leading to inappropriate English language policy.

Therefore, teachers should start to look at ELT through a critical lens and with an awareness of how the power may affect their own teaching and learners' goals of learning language, and how such unrealistic goals may lead to profound language anxiety among the learners. Next, a proposed model solution based on the WE/EIL concept will be described.

2.3.2.2 How the WE/EIL concept may help reduce foreign language anxiety among L2 learners?

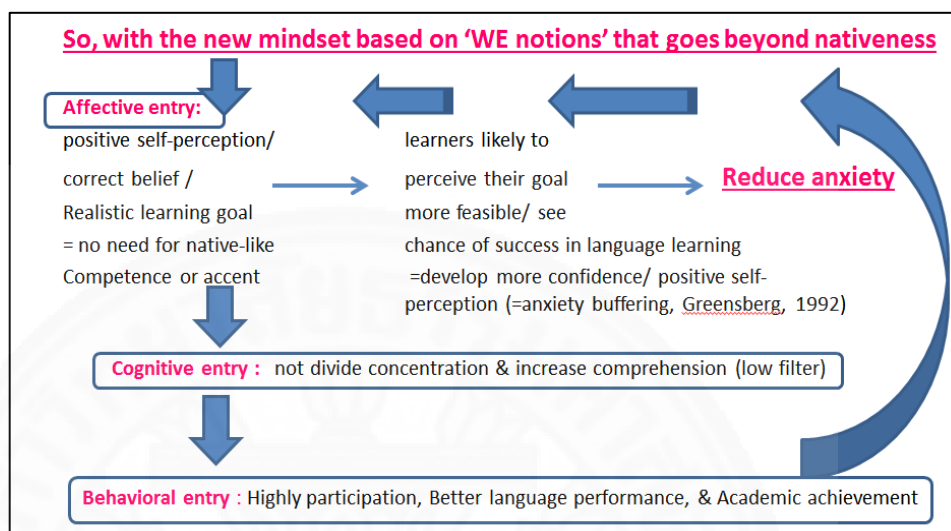


Figure 2.3. Model 2: How WE/EIL concept may help reduce FLCA among L2 learners?.

This proposal was expanded upon the recursive relations model of language anxiety by MacIntyre (1995), which shows the effects on learners' language achievement, and then linked to WE concepts. To illustrate, affective entry involves feelings, beliefs, attitudes about language learning such as language anxiety, or learning goal/attitude to achieve a native-like model. Cognitive entry involves self-cognition, comprehension or understanding, while behavioral entry may involve language learning behaviors like participation or avoidance, language performance as explained by MacIntyre (1995) earlier in this chapter. To illustrate, a teacher's question to a student in a second language class might result in anxiety for the student; anxiety brings about worry and uneasiness. At the same time, cognitive performance is weakened because the attention has to be divided and then performance worsens, resulting in negative self-evaluations and more self-deprecating cognition that continues to worsen performance, and so on (MacIntyre, 1995).

With the proposed model of WE concept into classroom practice, it is possible that learners may feel better about their language learning or help lower the affective filter. This is because one of the primary aims of the WE/EIL concepts is to help

shape more realistic learning goals and move away from achieving native speaker models to being '*successful EIL users*'. Therefore, through the incorporation of WE, learners would start to absorb a new set of goals and develop critical thinking about their own language learning goals. They may start to envision possible success and have more confidence in themselves. According to Matsuda (2003), without exposure to a model of successful non-native speakers of English, the students can never see how they can be successful as non-native speakers. According to Young (1999), giving an opportunity for success to learners can help reduce language anxiety. Thus, WE-based lessons can offer learners a more realistic goal and possible success as a non-native speaker of English, potentially reducing learners' anxiety. Moreover, Lee's (2012) study on a pilot World Englishes course with Japanese high school students showed positive responses through positive attitudes toward learning English as well as less nervousness and more confidence gained by the students to speak English and participate more in class. This was consistent with the studies of Sharifian and Marlina (2012), Hino (2012), Bayyurt and Altinmakas (2012), who also found positive attitude about English among students after incorporating WE in classroom practice. Therefore, under WE principles that increase learners' awareness of other varieties of English, the politics of English, a broader sense of cross-cultural knowledge, and communicative strategic skills, learners could be empowered with EIL notion to recognize their realistic goals in the globalization era that only British or American models may not be sufficient to fulfill their current communicative needs.

Moreover, embedded in WE principles, the learners may be able to interpret interactions in various English more correctly, which will help them be more confident and successful in communication in international contexts. Also, through exposure and interactions with users from other varieties, learners will see their possible success as non-native speakers from successful non-native models (e.g., inviting guest speakers of other English varieties to class, through YouTube clips).

Equipping learners with 'communication strategies', one of WE principles, will also help learners gain more confidence in their language use when

confronting interlocutors or English users from different mother tongues as they can select different strategies to address communication breakdown and be better prepared with the communication skills needed to be successful in cross-cultural communication (Kubota, 2012).

In addition, learners can be introduced to facts and real discourses about English language such as the spread and variations of English standards, examples of some characteristics of variations, implication of the spread, power and politics of English, ownership of English and its EIL status, and fallacies concerning users and uses (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Kachru, 1992). This knowledge should prompt them to think critically about the true ownership of English and their current roles as EIL users. These critical ideas would help them move away from the unrealistic native speaker goal, and set new goals based more on the current world situation.

In a nutshell, learners will be able to develop more realistic goals through World Englishes that attempt to go beyond nativeness. They will also become aware that exposure to other varieties, communication strategies, broader cultural knowledge, and responsibilities of EIL users are all skills and knowledge they need, beyond only linguistic competence, to help them become truly successful in international communication. Also, they can witness real world interactions in which one standard variety may not guarantee success. When learners are equipped with these concepts, it is likely that they will have more confidence in language learning and see that they can also be successful and use English to serve their own needs in the future while recognizing and being sensitive to the needs of others. And when learners develop confidence or self-esteem, it would be a great tool acting as an anxiety-buffer (Greensberg et al., 1992).

Here are examples to support the possibility that WE notion can help students move away from unrealistic learning goals and gain more confidence based on students' comments (TESL M.A. student from Taiwan and America) after experiencing an infusion of WE perspective from an English language education program as cited in Brown (1995). The first writer, a Taiwanese student, noted:

The most difficult mental barrier that I have to overcome during the course of my language learning as a non-native speaker of English is that I was expected to speak like a native speaker of English... while trying so hard to be accent-free, I knew that I would never be able to speak exactly the way a native speaker would speak. But I was telling myself that I must achieve this end. This has become the cause of many undue stresses in my language learning experience. At times, because I was so conscious of my non-native accent, I became unwilling to speak out. The concept that I was introduced to in this term of not having to speak native-like and still be a speaker of English is liberating to me...The important concept will enable me to help my students in the future as not to acquire accent-free English, but English that is intelligible to others. (p.433)

The second writer, an American student, in the same program noted:

The idea of English as an International language is new for me, but the more I think about it, the more sense it makes. I am now reconsidering the validity of going as an ESL teacher to a country where English does have a special status as a second language. Naturally I'm afraid that I would be teaching American English and that is not what my students would need...this article (got from the program) really encouraged me to encourage my students to believe that they are speakers of English and to proudly own their ability to communicate in their own English. (p.434)

The first comment shows that WE/EIL concept has lessened the L2 student's stress in attempting to achieve an 'unrealistic learning goal' of a native-like accent. Both comments also show that their perspectives on WE in ELT have changed because of their exposure to the WE concept. Therefore, based on these statements, the incorporation of WE into classroom practice or courses is likely to help students develop

more realistic learning goals and positive attitudes toward their own English, which can help them gain more confidence in learning and using English.

2.4 World Englishes in Classroom Teaching

WE/EIL curriculum development assumptions involve the recognition of the changing profile of English within multilingual communities, which implies diverse ways that bilingual users use English to meet their specific needs. In fact, learners may not want to acquire native-like competence or accents (McKay, 2006). These implications have led to the new paradigm in ELT and the incorporation of WE principles into classroom practice by the researcher. It is useful to begin with the review of principles to teaching WE/EIL proposed by some scholars before describing the selected principles based on Matsuda & Friedrich (2011) to design the lessons in this study.

2.4.1 Review principles of teaching WE/EIL

In fact, most WE/EIL scholars have come up with somewhat similar ideas for their core principles, but with slight differences in details and wording they use.

McKay (2012) proposed seven principles to development of EIL curriculum. *First*, it should address a ‘*respect for and promotion of multilingualism*’, which is also supported by Renandya (2012) and D’Angelo (2012). To illustrate, this means that EIL should support multilingual policy using code-switching as a learning strategy, as in some cases code-switching can make the meaning of lexical items clear, and allow group planning of English learning tasks this is in contrast to English-only classrooms with roots in colonial policies enacted by Britain and US (Phillipson, 1992), and as part of communicative language teaching (CLT). *Second*, it should address ‘*a pedagogy that resonates with the local linguistic landscapes*’, which means that teachers need to consider some factors in making pedagogical decisions; for example, ‘what languages are used in the local linguistic landscape and how they are used?’, ‘what are the learners’ attitudes toward these languages?’, ‘what are the major purposes the learners have in learning English?’, ‘what are features of the local culture of learning?’, ‘what is

the proficiency level and age of the learners?'. Attention to local linguistic landscape can determine whether or not compulsory English learning is beneficial for all; for example, young Brazilian students who are likely to work in Japan may need Japanese and Portuguese to promote cross-cultural communication and understanding on a local level more. **Third**, it should address '*language awareness*', which refers to an awareness of EIL including *communication strategies* and *accommodation skills* through a multilingual approach, such as supportive listening, communicating non-comprehension in a manner that saves face, asking for repetition, paraphrasing, gauging and adjusting interlocutor's linguistic repertoires (Seidlholfer, 2004 as cited in McKay, 2012), which is also supported by Kubota (2012), Renandya (2012), Kirkpatrick (2007), and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011). The examples of activities can be asking students to gather examples of their own use of emails written in English with other L2 writers. In addition, beyond the practical level, McKay also suggested that it is valuable for teachers and students to cultivate critical language awareness in terms of understanding and challenging unequal relations of power that are presented not only in language and culture, but also in race, class, and other social categories. **Fourth**, it should address an '*examination of the discourse promoting the learning of English*'. This principle is drawn because it is believed that the spread of English has been powered by a prevalent belief in the strength of English, and in many cases the discourse surrounding the use of English promises learners unrealistic accounts or goals of what English knowledge may bring to their lives, such as the British Hills in Japan, which boasts that the language learning complex has "*More English than England itself*". This promotes native-speaker competency in a way that is far different from the reality of the multilingual/multicultural setting in Britain today, as well as being a powerful force in commercial aspects of language learning. **Fifth**, the curricula should promote '*cross-cultural awareness*', which means that the curricula should be culturally sensitive and encourage students to study other cultures as a way of reflecting on their own values and beliefs, which is supported by Kubota (2012), Lee (2012), Sharifian and Marlina (2012), Kirkpatrick (2007), D'Angelo (2012), Renandya (2012), Matsuda and Friedrich (2011). An example of an activity is students

reading about American garage sales and making cross-cultural comparisons such as what the host culture does with the used items; how this differs from what Americans often do with used items; and what might be the reasons for such differences. In this way students can reflect on their own culture in the process of learning about other cultures. **Sixth**, it should address ‘*issue of equality access for all learners*’, and **seventh** it should reconsider the notion of ‘*qualified English teacher*’s. This means that the Ministry of Education and educational administrators need to provide opportunity for teachers for professional development and with needed resources.

Renandya (2012) also proposed five principles that can be used as a basis for discussing EIL-oriented teacher roles. The **first** principle is the ‘*promotion of intercultural competence*’, rather than native speaker competence, which is consistent with Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), Lee (2012), and D’Angelo (2012). This means that in the EIL classroom the teacher is not only a language teacher, but also an intercultural teacher, who should help students acquire intercultural communicative competence by fostering their ability to use English to communicate with other speakers of English from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. To elaborate, a teacher should help learners achieve the knowledge and skills that include the following concepts: 1) the self and the other; 2) how to relate and interpret meaning; 3) developing critical awareness; 4) how to discover cultural information; and 5) how to relativize oneself and value the attitudes and beliefs of others (Byram, 1997). Through activities, teachers may raise awareness of students’ own culture and other people’s cultures; promote understanding and respect of their own culture and other’s cultures; develop more positive attitudes towards cultural differences; raise awareness of the potential misunderstandings that can occur in cross-cultural interactions; and develop skills to resolve potential communication problems. Activities can involve students observing, describing, comparing and evaluating their own and other communities’ cultural practices such as the way they interact or how they choose words from non-linguistic resources to signal communicative intents by giving cultural and linguistic information students need to develop intercultural communicative competence. The **second** principle is the ‘*awareness of other varieties of English*’, which

is one of the key roles of the teacher according to many scholars (Sharifian & Marlina, 2012; Hino, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Lee, 2012; Bayyurt & Altinmakas, 2012; D'Angelo, 2012). This means that teacher should provide other non-native varieties of English or World Englishes rather than limiting it to only the inner circle varieties; for example, including some Singaporean English features when teaching a group of business people from Thailand who are engaged in business with people from Singapore. **Third**, *'multilingualism in the classroom'*, which means that a teacher should equip learners of English with the ability to use both English and the mother tongue with ease. This is because there is no empirical evidence to support the claim that English should be taught monolingually (Phillipson, 1992). Also, the teacher should take on the role of a model of multilingual or bilingual users. **Fourth**, *'instructional materials should represent the world cultures'* of speakers of English as EIL, not just those from the inner circle, supported by McKay (2012), Kirkpatrick (2007); Matsuda and Friedrich (2011); D'Angelo (2012); Lee (2012); Hino (2012). The over representation of the inner circle speaking cultures is problematic because in some contexts like Hong Kong it is counter to the goal of ELT, which according to the Ministry of Education aims to 'extend students' understanding and experience of other people's (Yuen, 2011 as cited in Renandya, 2012). The **last** principle is *'socially and culturally appropriate teaching methods'*, which simply means that certain Western-oriented assumptions and beliefs may not be universally applicable and acceptable. For example, CLT introduces a new culture of learning and may clash with the culture of learning, which can be a source of unhappiness or frustration among learners who grow up in a culture that values the mastery of grammatical skills and linguistic forms; on top of that, learners may not learn very much or worse and develop unfavorable attitudes toward learning English (Ellis, 1996 as cited in Renandya, 2012).

Kubota (2012) also recognized the changing profile of English and believes it is necessary to move away from the monolingual focus in EIL pedagogy. He proposed 'border-crossing communication' concept which includes three main principles, with some, in fact, overlapping with other scholars. **First**, *'critical awareness of power*

and privilege’ is very essential, which means that students as L2 users of English need to be critically aware of such racial and linguistic inequalities and act upon their awareness, nor should they judge the worthiness of interaction with someone based on the interlocutors’ racial, ethnic, or linguistic background. To help students achieve this goal, teachers need to raise awareness and confront these issues instead of remaining colorblind. This principle is also consistent with what McKay (2012) proposed. **Second**, ‘*open attitudes*’ involves the willingness to communicate across racial, linguistic, and class differences even if they do not share the same language. Students need to develop open and positive attitudes for interacting across differences, avoid quick judgments, engage in communication actively and respectfully, and be interested in learning new languages, cultures and life experiences from the interlocutor. This is also related to the principle proposed by Renandya (2012) of ‘intercultural competence’ and by McKay (2012) of ‘cross-cultural awareness’. Again, critical awareness of power and politics can help students explore how to engage in language learning in appropriate and ethical ways. **Third**, it needs to address ‘*communicative skills*’, which means that students must learn to adjust their own linguistic resources and negotiate meaning according to the situation, purpose and the communicative partner’s linguistic repertoires in order for communication to take place. This is also supported by McKay (2012), Kirkpatrick (2007), Renandya (2012), Brown (1995), and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011).

Sharifian and Marlina (2012) are the pioneers of an EIL program in Melbourne, Australia at Monash University. They also proposed certain principles as a framework to develop WE/EIL course, which includes three main principles: *focusing on EIL*; *intercultural communication*; and *World Englishes*. To illustrate, they took the opportunity to develop a course that recognizes the pluricentricity of English in the form of World Englishes, with a major emphasis on intercultural communication and cross-cultural understanding, and revisited the major tenets of the traditional paradigm of ELT, in particular, the prestige of so-called native-speaker varieties of English. The objectives are to 1) guide students to develop their understanding of EIL/WE to a professional level; 2) foster their ability to negotiate different Englishes; 3) gain intercultural communication

skills; 4) gain EIL/WE-informed mindsets and attitudes. These principles are also consistent with other scholars such as McKay (2012), Renandya (2012), and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) in some respects.

D'Angelo (2012) suggested several aspects of a program that embody a World Englishes approach, with the implementation at Chukyo University in Japan, entailing four main concepts. **First** is '*attitudinal change*'. This means that students should have an opportunity to learn about Englishes in the world and to examine their own attitudes and bias toward them throughout the program. The lessons of the program can develop students' awareness of language contact and change, history of language such as Old English to post-modern English to see the ongoing evolutionary nature of language. Moreover, sociolinguistics, Asian Englishes, and cross-cultural understanding can be also introduced in class. These are also consistent with other scholars in terms of the 'awareness-raising' principle in other varieties of English (Renandya, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Modiano, 2009; Widdowson, 1994), and 'cross-cultural awareness' principle (McKay, 2012), and history and politics of English language principle (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Sharifian & Marlina, 2012; McKay, 2012; Lee, 2012; Kachru, 1992; Kubota, 2012). The **second** principle is '*international exposure*', which aims to get students out to the wider world such as study tours in Singapore or Australia. This is to demonstrate that English is in fact no longer limited to the Inner Circle, as well as for allowing students to construct their identity and change their thinking about who they are as English users in globalization era. **Third**, '*language teaching staff*' are teachers from diverse language backgrounds including Outer and Expanding Circles, and not limited to only the inner circle countries. Having multilingual teachers from different backgrounds allows students to be empowered with the sociolinguistics realities in global use, and expose them directly to the linguistic, phonology, lexical, syntax, and cultural (values, pragmatics, discourse) features of various Englishes. This is also supported by other scholars like McKay (2012), Renandya (2012), and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), who also emphasized the importance of the exposure to other non-native varieties. The **last** principle is '*faculty scholarship*', which aims to continue to be active in WE/EIL research

and other professional activities, allowing teachers and staff to keep up-to-date with the current trends in the WE/EIL field such as by inviting guest speakers with the aim to gradually change attitudes among educators.

Lee (2012) also demonstrated the WE notion in his oral communication course, proposing certain characteristics that are quite similar to what D'Angelo proposed in his WE-based course initiated at Chukyo High School in Japan, which is affiliated with Chukyo University and gained support from Chukyo University. The course entailed four main concepts. **First**, '*teachers for the course*' should be from various linguistic backgrounds to promote cross-cultural communication and mutual understanding between English users from different backgrounds while acknowledging the legitimacy of Englishes other than US and UK standard English. **Second**, the '*selection of materials*' or textbook should allow for the incorporation of local culture and additional cultural topics and promote awareness of cultures associated with speakers of different English varieties. **Third**, the '*emphasis of Asia*' is also another principle that distinguishes the course from others. Learning about other Asian countries and their people is important in the era of globalization, where English and culture of the UK and US are not the only key players in today's globalized world. **Fourth**, '*preparation of students and teachers*' is another aspect suggested, which involves providing courses in WE theory to teachers while offering a brief introduction as a part of orientation for the course for students as well as a school letter to parents.

Kachru (1992) as cited in Kimberly Brown (1995) suggested eight elements of WE that should be addressed. These were supported by many scholars later on, as described above. These aspects include: 1) WE overview from a sociolinguistic perspective; 2) an introduction to specific varieties; 3) the legitimacy of such varieties on their own terms (=attitudinal neutrality); 4) the functional and pragmatic range of particular varieties; 5) the contrasting pragmatic functions and realities of particular varieties; 6) the multidimensionality of characteristics, i.e., the implications of the functional ranges of English in various settings; 7) a developed understanding of various canons of English; 8) the of cross-cultural intelligibility of particular varieties of English.

Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) also offered a WE/EIL curriculum blueprint for teachers, administrators, or practitioners on how to implement or design their own courses under a WE approach with five main principles: *selection of instructional materials; awareness to other varieties of English; politics of English and responsibilities of EIL users; three kinds of culture; and communicative strategies.*

At this point, we may see that there are some common core principles suggested by these scholars, even though some use different key terms; for example, Kubota (2012) used the term or topic ‘*open attitude*’ to refer to the same idea as Matsuda and Friedrich who used the term or topic ‘*politics of English and responsibility of EIL users*’. Or McKay (2012) used the term or topic ‘*language awareness*’ to refer to both ‘*communication strategies*’ and ‘*politics of English*’, which were proposed in two ideas and different topics by Matsuda and Friedrich (2011). The core principles and some overlapping aspects can be seen from the table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2

Proposed Principles of World Englishes by Various WE/EIL Scholars

Name of scholars	Proposed Principles of WE/EIL									
	Selection of instructional model	Exposure & Awareness of varieties of English	Politics & Ownership of English	Cultural awareness	Communicative strategies	Multilingual in classroom	Localized Teaching method	Equality in access	Teaching staff	Preparation of students & teachers
1.McKay (2012)		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
2.Renandya (2012)		●		●	●	●	●			
3.Kubota (2012)		●	●	●	●					
4. Lee (2012)		●	●	●					●	●
5.D’Angelo (2012)		●	●	●					●	●
6.Sharifian & Marlina (2012)		●	●	●					●	
7.Matsuda & Friedrich (2011)	●	●	●	●	●					
8.Kachru (1992)		●	●	●						

2.4.2 Selected principles & examples of classroom activity

The researcher used Matsuda and Friedrich's (2011) principles as the framework to design the lesson plans and incorporate the World Englishes notion into classroom practice with Thai tertiary students in this study. It is useful to begin with the definition of an EIL course in this study.

Definition of WE/EIL and the course defined by Matsuda and Friedrich (2011)

In this paper, the term EIL (English as an international language) is defined as the “*function that English performs in multilingual contexts*” (Friedrich & Matsuda, 2010, p.20, as cited in Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011) and not as a particular linguistic variety (or a collection of specific varieties) that are used for international communication. In most communicative interactions that involve speakers from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, the choice of English variety depends on the subject discussed and therefore, it is hard to predict. As a consequence, it is impossible that one variety can be successfully used in all international communication situations. Considering this definition of EIL, an EIL class should aim to prepare English learners to become ‘competent users of English in international contexts’. This class or course does not attempt to teach a linguistic variety of English. An attempt to create ‘competent EIL users’, it means to equally give importance to ‘linguistic competence’, ‘other competences’ (strategic, pragmatic), and ‘other knowledge’ (three types of culture) needed for international communication. What is more, in order to help learners become competent EIL users, teachers have to empower students to think critically and enable them to use English effectively to meet their needs while respecting the needs of others. Table 2.3 below shows the core principles of WE curriculum and how they can be reflected in classroom practice based on Matsuda & Friedrich (2011).

Table 2.3

The Core Principles of WE Curriculum & How Can They Be Reflected in Classroom Practice

Principles	Objectives	Lessons/ Activities
I. Selection of instructional model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enable learners to use English to serve their communicative needs that involve the reality of Englishes. 	-
II. Exposure/ Awareness of Other varieties of English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be aware/ familiar with other English varieties. - Foster accurate impressions of other NNS varieties as legitimate varieties to create democratic-minded learners and create sense of tolerance for linguistic varieties. - Gain confidence, develop a positive attitude toward other English varieties. - Be able to interpret interactions in various Englishes. - Recognize the role of EIL uses & users - Develop realistic learning goals as competent EIL users rather than the goal of native-like competence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expose learners to Englishes through teaching materials (e.g., a short documentary of Aboriginal culture narrated in Aboriginal English, read articles from the Indian English native speaker model, newspapers). - Invite international visitors to class to interact with students, or hire international teachers to introduce successful NNS models. - Students write email to other L2 speakers. - Expand students' meta-knowledge. (e.g., making it a lesson focus by discussing some WE articles or other Englishes).
III. Politics of English/ Ownership/ Responsibilities of EIL users	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Empower critical awareness (e.g., language and power, equality, language choice appropriateness, EIL role & its uses/users), which enables students to explore how to act upon such awareness in ethical ways. - Foster sensitivity & sense of responsibility EIL users (serve own needs while respecting needs of others). - Recognize the importance of mutual intelligibility rather than aiming at native-like competence/ Develop realistic goals. - Adopt open and positive attitudes toward non-native English varieties. - Develop sense of ownership/EIL user identity. - Develop autonomous and independent thinking students who can contribute to society. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read, watch, discuss, write and respond regarding the role of EIL, linguistic imperialism, language policies in own country, spread of English, how it affects uses/users worldwide. - Examine some real discourses from websites/ brochures of school advertisements. - Class discussion on 'Who are native speakers? And concept of 'Standard English'.

Table 2.3

The Core Principles of WE Curriculum & How Can They Be Reflected in Classroom Practice (Cont.)

Principles	Objectives	Lessons/ Activities
IV. Three kinds of culture (Global culture, Future Interlocutors' culture, Students' own Culture)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recognize the wide diversity of culture existing among English-speaking countries. - Foster sensitivity regarding cross-cultural differences. - Extend or transfer their broader sense of cultural knowledge/ understanding to anticipate cross-cultural traits to new or unexpected communication situations. - Establish mutual respect with others. - Reflect own culture, and express in a way that is understood by outsiders. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Readings, discussion, assignments (e.g., Internet searches for government websites created for international tourists to learn about others and expose to nativized varieties/culture). - Assignment on creating a school/ community website for international visitors - Discuss cultural topics and reflect own culture.
V. Communication Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Develop communicative and accommodation skills to address miscommunication occurring in international interactions and negotiate meanings. -Overcome communication difficulties, and make sustained communication happen. -Recognize the importance of being a competent EIL speaker, which requires more than linguistic competence and being native-like. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Explicitly teach and practice communication strategies (e.g., ability to determine meaning from context; paraphrase; circumlocution; summarize; inquire & ask for clarification; non-verbal communication aid; display cultural sensitivity). -Presenting examples of successful communication among L2 users with the authentic communication strategies they use for addressing communication breakdown.

Note. Adapted from “English as an international language: A curriculum blueprint,” by A. Matsuda & P. Friedrich, 2011, *World Englishes*, 30(3), 332-344.

2.4.2.1 Selection of the ‘instructional models’

According to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), for the first principle, selecting a particular English variety/varieties of English as the instructional model is

necessary as it will direct the various components of the classroom activities. Instructional model in this study refers to the ‘chosen variety to be used in the classroom’. The decision of selection should be made on the basis of three things: students’ goals and needs; teacher’s expertise; and availability of resources and materials, which are also supported by McKay (2006). In terms of English varieties, there are three options: *an international variety of English*, the *speaker’s own variety of English*, and *an established variety of English*. In this study, the researcher chose the third option as suggested by Matsuda and Friedrich (2011).

To clarify, the first option -‘*international variety of English*’- refers to a set of rules or characteristics that can be taught to ensure that students will succeed in all communication with other English users, conforming to the idea of ‘*World Standard English*’(WSE) proposed by McArthur (1987). Also, Jenkins (2006) and Seidlholfer (2006) attempted to describe such characteristics by identifying a ‘*lingua franca core*’, or a set of pronunciation characteristics present in interactions with non-native speakers of English, which they found to be essential for mutual intelligibility. Their suggestions provide a foundation for the establishment of a ‘teachable international variety of English’.

However, Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) have pointed out some problems from teaching this first option, which the researcher strongly agrees with. *First*, only a single or a couple sets of varieties cannot reflect the reality of the use of EIL, which is more ‘context-dependent’, and thus one cannot expect that one particular variety of English will occur in all EIL situations. *Second*, teaching a set *standard* or a *core* variety may generate another layer in the English language hierarchy to which individuals would have different degrees of access, and consequently, it would create greater inequality among speakers of different Englishes. *Last*, it is impractical to expect that a variety of English can be taught for every international context since this grossly overestimates the ability of teachers, researchers, or thinkers to determine which varieties will be used across the world.

The second instructional model is *speakers' own variety of English*. This option means to teach a variety owned by students, such as Singaporeans or Indians who can now say they use their own varieties. Many World Englishes scholars contend that the institutionalized varieties of English in the Outer Circle countries should be considered as legitimate as the English varieties of the Inner Circle countries, and so just as valid as local teaching models (Jenkins, 2009). Hino (2011) also suggested that local models of Englishes be used for the teaching and learning in the Expanding Circle. This would enable users to express indigenous values and culture that could not be communicated with the Inner Circle models.

However, even though this suggestion is good for evaluating the legitimacy of Englishes in the Expanding Circle, in the view of Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) it is not clear if Expanding Circle countries are ready for this or can provide a comprehensive account for all purposes and functions, while the students' communicative needs may entail functions beyond the use of English in specific Expanding Circle countries. An example could be Thai English, which may be used and presented for limited purposes and functions like in a technical field. Hence, teaching the Thai English variety would not be sufficient to serve students' communicative needs which are in fact beyond the use of the current Thai English.

The third option, '*an established variety*', is the one the researcher uses. This refers to the selection of one of the established varieties that students will encounter in the future. Established varieties refer firstly to varieties that are 'codified'. This not only applies to American or British English, but it could be other Inner circle or Outer Circle varieties like Australian English, Indian English or even Expanding Circle varieties if they become more established in the future. Secondly, it must be used for a wide variety of communicative functions. Third, it must be well accepted in multiple types of international situations and areas (e.g., business, academic, entertainment). Fourth, it must have representative literature (e.g., Indian English or Singapore English). The third option may be more appropriate in that one can choose an established variety as the primary instructional model, while presenting other varieties during normal classroom

practice. Teachers should point out that the selected primary (dominant) variety is merely one of many English varieties that exist in the world and that other Englishes the students encounter in the future may look or sound different from it.

However, the point here is not to say that the third option is the best choice. The most important thing to consider is that all decisions need to keep in mind students' goals and needs, the goals of the course, teachers' expertise, and the availability of materials and resources, as mentioned earlier. For example, if the goal of the course is to equip learners to study in the US, American English and its culture can be selected as the dominant instructional model for the course. However, the key issue here according to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) is that *any selection should not neglect the needs for students to recognize, appreciate, and prepare for encounters with diverse English varieties*. At the same time, one should not select American or British English just because that is what has generally been taught. Moreover, it is important to note that incorporating World Englishes does not mean removing the Inner Circle varieties or native varieties from English class, but rather '*enriching the curriculum*' by expanding the current repertoire and sociolinguistic reality of English in ELT practice (Matsuda, 2003) in order to equip learners for the future use of English, which will involve non-native speaker interactions rather than just with native speakers.

2.4.2.2 Exposure to and awareness of other Englishes through classroom activities and teaching materials

Regardless of the variety chosen as the primary (dominant) instructional model, Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) asserted the significance of the second principle. Specifically, students must develop an awareness that the variety they are studying is just one of many and may be different from what they experience outside of the classroom. Lack of awareness might leave students believing that there is only one correct variety, which is not only incorrect but could also have a negative effect on students' attitudes towards other varieties of English and their confidence in successfully communicating in multiple varieties of English (Matsuura, Chiba & Fujida, 1999 as cited in Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). In this study, it is also important to note what

distinguishes this class from others is the emphasis on Asia. English lexical items, and practices unique in Singapore, Philippines, Malaysia, Chinese, and India varieties of English were introduced in class, apart from US and UK varieties, for students to learn about other Asian countries, English varieties, culture and people, which are likely to be Thai students' future interlocutors. While ELT in Thailand traditionally focused on English and the culture of the UK and US, they are no longer the only key players the era of globalization today. In a WE-based class, the students have chance to encounter speakers from other parts of Asia rather than only those from UK and US, not only raises awareness about other varieties of English and their legitimacy, but also give students' opportunity to appreciate their own accented English and culture.

Kachru (1996) also supported this idea by suggesting that it is necessary that teachers and students understand how English is presented in the world today, in order to place the variations in the proper context of Englishes as a whole. That is, *differences do not simply mean that one is incorrect*. The notion of a monolithic English as the export of culture and communication for all native English-speaking countries is a fantasy that is now becoming difficult to retain. Kachru also presented some examples of English varieties revealing some unfamiliar features that students should be exposed to such as from an English-language daily newspaper (e.g., from The Nation, published in Lahore, Pakistan, on an inside p.4, as cited in Kachru, 1996).

Karachi, Jan 5: Goods worth more than Rs one crore were gutted when a major fire broke out in a godown in Raheedabad SITE area this morning, fire brigade sources said (p.4).

In this example, Kachru (1996) mentions that American or British readers will be struck by some words like 'gutted' which does not have an American meaning in grammar usage; or the Hindi-Urdu number-word 'crore' (a unit of 10 million); and 'go down' (common in Asian contexts for 'warehouse'). These lexical features and usage do not impede understanding; rather they signify something different and unique from American, British, Canadian, or Australian English.

Apart from exposure to lexical variations, awareness of pronunciation or accent differences should also be introduced in class as another first crucial step to help students avoid quick judgments on others' ability based on the accent or ethnic (Kubota, 2012), which could be introduced through various activities.

The *activities* suggested by WE/EIL scholars to be implemented in the classroom can include, for example, exposing students to various Englishes in the classroom and promoting interaction with EIL users and users by inviting international visitors to class. If that is not possible, teachers may offer different English varieties through e-mails, or project work that requires students to explore websites in World Englishes (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011), or show movies with World Englishes speakers. Moreover, Munro, Dewing, and Sato (2006) as cited in Jindapitak and Teo (2012) also proposed an '*awareness-raising activity*' in class to help learners understand the process through which stereotyped attitudes are instilled and reinforced based on the following three steps: 1) collecting speech samples from various speech communities; 2) presenting collected speech samples to learners in order to evaluate the speakers on some pre-determined dimension; 3) recording evaluation results, followed by in-class discussions of task outcomes. Moreover, Kachru (1992) also suggested the activity that learners become engaged in discussions highlighting shared and non-shared linguistic features including similarities and differences in phonological system, or lexis.

According to Matsuda (2003), teaching materials and content can improve the incorporation of WE/EIL by using World Englishes appropriately. For example, more main characters from the outer and expanding circles can be included in the textbook, and greater roles can be assigned to these characters in dialogues than what is currently found, which would more accurately show the actual growing role that non-native speakers have in EIL. Including users in the outer and expanding-circle countries that students are not familiar with could assist them in seeing that English users are not limited to inner-circle countries like the US or UK and in the future, they may communicate more with other non-native speakers just like themselves (Matsuda, 2002). McKay (2012) also supported this idea by mentioning that many current books focus

exclusively on the linguistic and cultural norms of one of these two countries, which will not adequately prepare individuals to deal with diversity of English they hear. This is not to say that accepted English grammatical norms should not be presented to learners in EIL materials; instead, EIL material development should go beyond the Inner Circle model, providing students with an awareness of the diversity of English today so that they are better equipped for English interactions in ‘authentic’ international situations.

Overall, the *objectives of this principle* are: **first**, to foster accurate impression that the Inner Circle varieties are not the only correct varieties (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011) and value other non-native varieties as legitimate English (Kubota, 2012; Lee, 2012; Hino, 2012; Renandya, 2012). This would help students to be more open-minded about the use of English in worldwide contexts (Sharifian & Marlina, 2012), develop more positive attitudes towards other non-native varieties, gain more confidence in their own English (Kubota, 2012; Lee, 2012), and not devalue themselves for being non-native speakers who are in a peripheral position (Matsuda, 2003; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012). Widdowson (1994) also supported this idea that the awareness of English varieties aims to help train students to be ‘*democratically-minded*’ in viewing non-native varieties of English as having an equal status to native varieties; meanwhile, Munro, Dewing, and Sato (2006) as cited in Jindapitak and Teo (2012) mention that the awareness-raising activity can help students reflect the prejudices held about other Englishes, be sensitive to their own attitudes, and learn that they should not use accent variations as a benchmark to judge ability, but rather be aware that it is due to identity representation. In addition, this principle aims to help students gain confidence from witnessing that being an effective EIL user does not require being a native speaker (Matsuda, 2003); toward this end, the teacher may exemplify successful communication between L2-L2 speakers (McKay, 2012) or expose learners to successful non-native speaker models (Matsuda, 2003). In addition, an accurate impression can help create a greater sense of tolerance for linguistic diversity and avoid resistance or confusion regarding linguistic variations when encountering different types of users in real contexts (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Kubota, 2012). The **second** objective is to familiarize

students with varieties of English and to foster students' ability to interpret interactions in various English correctly. This communicative ability can assist learners confronted with different types of English users and uses (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011), and enable them to negotiate with different varieties in authentic contexts (Sharifian & Marlina, 2012). **Third**, students should be encouraged to recognize the role of EIL where English is now often used with other L2 speakers like themselves, not just native speakers (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). Pennycook (2000) as cited in Jindapitak and Teo (2013) also supported this principle by noting that other varieties of English should be introduced apart from the prevalent Anglo-American English in English classes, which allows learners to become truly '*internationally-minded speakers*', responsive to the current position of English in the world and the world in English.

2.4.2.3 The History, Politics of English, Responsibilities of EIL users

According to Matsuda (2003), an inner-circle-based curriculum is inadequate for addressing the history and politics of the English language around the world. In contrast, an EIL-based curriculum must address issues such as language and power; the relationship between English and various indigenous languages; the colonial past of the language; the power inequality associated with its history (D'Angelo, 2012; Phillipson, 1992; Kubota, 2012); the link to the stories of its worldwide spread; the implication of its spread; the changing forms, functions, users, and variations of English standards; examples of some characteristics of variations, power and politics of English; ownership of English; EIL status; and fallacies concerning users and uses (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Bolton, 2005; Kachru, 1992).

To support Matsuda and Friedrich's framework, Canagarajah (1999) argued that understanding the spread of English with its related history, of the uses, and users of language in different areas of the world is a *prerequisite for critical awareness* of the power inequity that the language's colonial past entails and that EIL users may have to address. Kachru (1992) also noted that learners need to be equipped with the sociolinguistic and sociopolitical profiles of English by introducing them to the spread of English in the world, the ownership of the English language, the concept of

standard English, and the dissimilarity between the use of English in monolingual and multilingual societies. According to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), this is very crucial because without awareness of the power struggles associated with EIL, learners could undervalue their own abilities in international communication and perceive themselves in a peripheral position in international communication. Pennycook (1998) as cited in Matsuda (2003) asserted: “*Without the awareness of such potential power struggles associated with English, learners may internalize a colonialistic view of the world and devalue their own status in international communication. They may feel that their peripheral position in international communication in English is irreversible*” (p.722).

Elaborating on the concept of ‘critical awareness’ may involve four main ideas, which the researcher summarizes from various scholars: 1) awareness of the politics of English, such as how power, equality, desire, race, or identity may come into play in the relationship between English and native language (Pennycook, 1994, 2000; Kubota, 2012). Learners also need to be aware that they should not judge the worthiness of interacting with someone based on the interlocutor’s racial, ethnic or linguistic accent or background (Kubota, 2012); 2) awareness that the English varieties they learn may not always be the most appropriate option for international communication and they must consider the issue of language choice with sensitivity (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011); 3) awareness of the role of EIL and the role of EIL users and its implications (McKay, 2012; Kachru, 1996); 4) awareness that for any communication, two sides are responsible for the communication, which means that native speakers should also be aware that miscommunication may occur from linguistic and cultural variations as well (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). In the attempt to engage learners with critical awareness, it can be said that the WE/EIL paradigm is also related to the *critical approach* or *critical applied linguistic* view, which, according to Pennycook (1994), is not merely added on top of applied linguistics, but involves a steady skepticism, a persistent questioning of the normative assumptions of applied linguistics. This refers here in particular to the SLA framework that uses the native standard as a yardstick for success and failure in English language learning.

Regarding the content in textbooks, for older students as an example, this can address the issue of EIL such as its history, the current spread, what the future may bring, and what role EIL learners may have in that future. EIL teachers should engage students in critical pedagogical discussions on these issues and encourage them to find relationships between language, identity, culture, and power as well as seek their own voice in English (Matsuda, 2003; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011).

To put this idea into *classroom activities*, Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) do not argue that a WE-based course be offered to middle school or high school students that involves reading and responding to a scholarly book like *Linguistic Imperialism* by Robert Phillipson (1992). Instead, teachers should empower students with critical awareness to help them use English effectively in order to meet their own needs while being respectful of others' needs. That is to say, students need to be informed that the variety they learn might not always be regarded as the best option for international communication. For example, if we use the same English sentence to make a request with British and Indian people, they would assess its appropriateness differently as Indian English tends to use English in an overly polite way based on a British persons' judgment. Therefore, it is not possible to find a variety or even a language that would be appropriate in all situations since the appropriateness of a language choice does not lie in the language itself, but is based on the expectations of members of the community itself. EIL users should thus approach the choice of language in a sensitive manner.

Advanced students can read, discuss, watch and write about content relating to the politics of English (e.g., reading and responding to Phillipson's article is possible here), about linguistic diversity and language policies in their own contexts, or even topics about the possibility that their own variety will become an international language such as Chinese language, which would give them a chance to critically scrutinize the relationship between language, culture, identity, and its power, while understanding more about their own local culture (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). D'Angelo (2012) also suggested fostering '*attitudinal change*' through politics and ownership of English such as introducing English history from Old English, the Norman

conquest, the change in the nature of language, which can help students see who they are and critically think about the ownership of English. This is also supported by Bayyurt and Altinmakas (2012), who proposed classroom discussion on topics such as ‘who are the native speakers of English?’ to uncover embedded beliefs and help learners recognize and understand the issue selected before reframing them. Moreover, McKay (2012) suggested activities that examine the discourses surrounding the use of English, which tend to promote the learning of English with an ‘*unrealistic account*’, but rather a dominant force commercially in language learning. This examination can help students become aware of the ‘imagined benefits’ of learning English as opposed to the real benefits. Additionally, teachers may assign students to examine at least three websites or brochures that are designed to advertise local English language institutions, and then list the type of claims, the advantages of acquiring English, and the types of lifestyles associated with the acquisition of English.

Overall, the *objectives of this principle* and the activities mentioned above based on Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) and other scholars are: **First**, to develop sensitivity and responsibility for EIL users in terms of being able to use English to meet their own needs while being sensitive to the needs of others. **Second**, to empower students with critical lenses (critical awareness) of issues such as the role of EIL, language and power, and language choice appropriateness, which enables students to explore how to interact in ethical ways (Kubota, 2012; Sharifian & Marlina, 2012) and seek their own voice in English. **Third**, to uncover students’ own embedded images and beliefs about specific nations or cultures including ‘native-speakerism’ and ‘standard English’ and reframe their understanding on these issues, which helps students develop realistic goals and recognize the importance of mutual intelligibility rather than aiming at native-like competence (Bayyurt & Altinmakas, 2012). **Fourth**, to adopt open and positive attitudes toward non-native varieties (avoiding quick judgments) (Kubota, 2012), inspire a sense of ownership, as well as remove the stigma of being non-native speakers, which can help students change their attitudes and gain more confidence in using their own English (Lee, 2012; Sharifian & Marlina, 2012; Boriboon, 2011). **Last**, to develop

autonomous and independent thinking students who can contribute to society (Hino, 2012).

2.4.2.4 Three types of cultures

Culture, according to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), has a more substantial role in an EIL curriculum than in a traditional English classroom for two reasons. First, the '*scope of culture*' in relation to English is much broader and gives English teachers more to cover in terms of a cultural content. Second, an EIL class may require teachers to teach culture with more '*critical approaches*,' with students needing to be equipped with the skills and awareness necessary for intercultural communication, or which McKay (2012) and Renandya (2012) refer to as intercultural competence. The significance of addressing a broader sense of culture or the three types of cultures in an EIL class is that students generally cannot use what they know about a culture in one situation to facilitate communication in new or unexpected ones. Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) also mention that in most language classrooms the introduction of cultural content seems to be very narrow in focus, which could easily lead to stereotypes about intercultural interactions that are not very deep (e.g., greetings such as the American handshake or the Japanese bow). Therefore, since the advance of English has expanded English-speaking culture, the cultural content of an EIL class needs to include *global culture*, *culture of future interlocutors*, and *students' local culture* in a broader and critical sense, in order to enable students to predict behavior based on cultural traits.

To clarify the *first* kind of culture, Matsuda (2003), and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) state that awareness of common global issues and global cultures is very beneficial. Such subjects as history, world peace, human rights, environment, health, nature conversation, and power inequalities can cut across national boundaries. Discussions in relation to internationalization, globalization, and the spread of English, can encourage students to critically discuss the topics in class, through appropriate readings, or course assignments. The *second* kind of culture of future interlocutors includes identifying those who are from the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles. Learning about many countries from the different circles will help students recognize the

diverse and varied cultures that currently exist among English-speaking countries today. A suggested starting point or resource to find out more about a specific country is government-created-English websites, especially for international tourists. The *third* type is knowing about ones' own culture and the ability to explain it in a way that outsiders can understand. This is also important because the current purpose of using English is to develop and hold relationships based on equality and mutual respect, rather than just to 'learn from others'. This is also supported by McKay (2002), who notes one main purpose for learning English is to be able to explain or communicate one's own culture to others. Therefore, such goals require learners to have the ability to perceive and examine the familiar from an outsider's perspective, which is considered as one of the keys to intercultural competence (ICC) (Deardorf, 2006). It is also important to note that 'local culture' is not limited to traditional culture like 'kimono', or 'sushi' (in the case of Japan). They should include values and common practices where the student is located; for example, family, school, community, which also constitute local culture.

This principle is also consistent with many other scholars such as McKay (2012), Kramsh (1993), Renandya (2012), Sharifian and Marlina (2012), Lee (2012), Deardorff (2006), Byram (1997), who give the importance to intercultural awareness or intercultural competence (ICC). McKay (2012) cited the importance of 'cross-cultural awareness' since English is used for cross-cultural communication and therefore, the curricula should be sensitive to local culture, and supportive to learning about other cultures as a process to reflect on learners' own values and beliefs. McKay (2002) also suggested that teaching materials for EIL should be used in a manner encourages students to reflect on their own culture in relations to others, where the diversity present in every culture is emphasized. Also, the cultural content should be critically examined by students to evaluate what assumptions are present in the text and in what other ways the cultural topics can be discussed. According to McKay (2002), the goal of EIL teaching should be to enable students to identify how particular pragmatic differences could affect their own cross-cultural experiences. Kramsh (1993) also notes that students need to learn about other cultures in the language classroom as a means of

greater understanding their own culture, while Renandya (2012) has highlighted the intercultural competence, which enables students to know themselves, describe, compare, evaluate, respect their own culture as well as other cultural practices.

It is also important to note here that the researcher recognized that ICC is considered as one essential component to teaching WE/EIL principles according to many EIL scholars (Renandya, 2012; Kubota, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; McKay, 2012; Baker, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2008; Canagarajah, 2006) since intercultural communication seems to be a real-world situation that EIL users and learners will inevitably encounter. Several ICC assessment tools have been developed by various scholars as a means to assess learners' ICC, which is believed to be a more appropriate definition for communicative competence in EIL situations than English linguistic proficiency based on native speaker norms (Canagarajah, 2006; Alptekin, 2002). However, ICC assessment tools may not be appropriate for use in this study since first of all, ICC and three types of cultures knowledge is considered as only one of the five components of WE/EIL principles as mentioned earlier, so the assessment of only ICC may not be sufficient to reflect all-of-WE concepts. Secondly, the designed lesson plans need to cover all five principles within limited course time; there are altogether eight WE-incorporation lesson plans - five lessons reflecting the exposure of English varieties; three lessons reflecting the three types of cultures and ICC; three lessons reflecting communication strategies; and two lessons reflecting politics and ownership of English. Therefore, teaching ICC and intercultural awareness only three times may not be enough to see learners' ICC development or assess them; therefore, previous studies that used ICC assessment normally teach ICC throughout the entire course before assessing learners (Yu et al., 2014; Fabregas Janeiro & Nuno de la Parra, 2013).

Suggested *activities* in class by could be designing an English website with content about their own school or hometown for international visitors as a way to explain local culture, while using English in an authentic communicative situation (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). McKay (2012) proposed activities such as assigning students to research about American garage sales and comparing that with what the host

culture presently does with used items. Furthermore, classroom activities according to Tomalin and Stempleski (1993) as cited in Lee (2012) may involve discussion, research, role plays, or comparisons between English culture and various other countries or a learners' own country. These may not only include cultural symbols or products, but also cultural behavior, values, attitudes, patterns of communication in verbal and non-verbal modes. Materials to be used can include local newspapers, visuals, audio, movies, the Internet, stories, songs, interviews, inviting guest speakers, surveys, and literature. Nguyen (2007) as cited in Nunn (2011) also provided a list of learning activities that can assist developing intercultural awareness in class; for example, lecture and readings to develop understanding of the issues, cultural assimilators to develop understanding of values and sensitivity through an explanation of significant cases of cross-cultural behaviors that would most likely be mistaken by students, self-confrontation through mini-drama, which covers one or more examples of miscommunication with teacher discussion after each incident, role plays in which the students imagine themselves in a cross-cultural situation outside the classroom contributing to greater awareness and better understanding of one's own culture and of others, discussion about intercultural topics to help learners develop critical thinking, and inviting foreigners to class to talk about their culture and experience to help learners experience real-life intercultural interaction.

Overall, these principles and activities based on Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) aim to *first* enable students to recognize the wide diversity of culture existing among English speaking countries, and increase their sensitivity to cross-cultural differences (McKay, 2012). *Second*, enable students to extend or transfer their broader sense of cultural knowledge to anticipate cultural traits in new or unexpected communication situations. *Third*, enable students to gain a greater understanding of their own culture (Kramsh, 1993) and reflect on it through the process of learning about other cultures (McKay, 2012), as well as express their own culture so it is understood by outsiders. *Last*, to enable students to establish and maintain understanding and respect for other language users, treating them as individuals with complex and multiple identities,

and avoiding stereotyping or judging someone in reference to their country or ethnic origin (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002 as cited in McKay, 2012).

2.4.2.5 Communicative strategies in EIL classrooms

Linguistic knowledge alone is no longer sufficient to communicate successfully (Richard, 2006), especially in EIL settings where individuals have different linguistic and cultural backgrounds; in light of this, miscommunication is not surprising. Therefore, according to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), in fact, in any communicative situation, including EIL, students need to be well equipped with both linguistic and various strategic repertoires that they can draw upon in order to overcome communication difficulties. On top of that, students need opportunities to practice these strategies in the classroom. Canagarajah (2006) defined the meaning of '*strategic competence*' as the ability to make effective use of various strategies of communication to strengthen intelligibility and negotiate intercultural communication, which Canale and Swain (1980) and Savignon (1997) as cited in Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) supported this as one of the crucial aspects of communicative competence.

In the EIL classroom, students as EIL users need to practice communicative strategies or develop skills to determine meaning from context, engage in circumlocution, summarize, paraphrase, ask for clarification, use non-verbal communication to aid verbal communication, or to exhibit cultural sensitivity by avoiding culturally specific expressions and use appropriate glossing or explanation (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). Seidlholfer (2004) also supported this principle by noting that students should learn communication strategies such as supportive listening, signal non-comprehension in a manner that saves face, such as gestures, drawings, gauging interlocutors' linguistic repertoires, making eye contact, and adjusting speech by simplifying, paraphrasing, and slowing down. This is consistent with Kubota's (2012) suggestion as one core principle in WE/ EIL curriculum, i.e., the need for students to learn how to adjust their language to make communication happen by using accommodation skills. Kubota further suggested that communication strategies and accommodation skills are needed to compliment critical awareness of power and the open

attitude described above. Moreover, according to Mukminatien (2012), students need to learn communication strategies that enable successful cross-cultural communication, which include different linguistic and sociolinguistic norms as well as strategies to gracefully handle misunderstandings. An example of repair strategies in the context of Indonesian schools are strategies to cope with communication breakdowns such as code mixing and code switching into and from their mother tongue (Hudson, 2007; Hoffmann, 1993) as cited in Mukminatien (2012).

Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) note that practicing these skills is necessary since if students are engaged in communication situations that prepare for miscommunication, they learn how to resolve them, and communication in the future will likely be more fruitful. Moreover, it is critical for students to be aware that communication is always two-way, and not only the responsibility of non-native speakers.

Some *classroom activities* to put these communicative strategies into classroom practice can be explicitly teaching communicative strategies and giving opportunities for students to practice in class (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011), or assigning projects that ask students to gather examples of individuals in their local community using English with other L2 speakers, or gathering examples of students' own email using English with other L2 users; alternatively, teachers may exemplify L2-L2 interactions in class (McKay, 2012) to engage students in communication to prepare them for miscommunication and provide ways to resolve it.

Overall, the *objectives of this principle* and activities suggested above can enable students to develop communicative and accommodation skills to address miscommunication occurring in international interactions, negotiate meaning, overcome communication difficulties, and make communication happen (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Kubota, 2012).

In conclusion, through these classroom activities, it is likely that that students can become more international-minded individuals who are aware of the

current status of EIL, its power, its politics, and their own responsibilities as EIL users with the goal of being effective EIL users rather than to achieve the native-like model.

However, it is also important to note that being able to succeed in incorporating WE in classroom practice, we may need changes at multiple levels, not only classroom lessons, activities or teaching materials like textbooks, but also the long-held attitudes, assessment and society as a whole. The researcher agrees with Matsuda (2002, 2003) that WE/EIL not only requires practitioners to look beyond the practices and materials, but also shift the way that we look at English language as a whole and to gain real insights into what ‘international language’ should look or sound like. This is because the way we perceive how EIL should be taught and learned reflects and guides the ELT curriculum as a whole.

2.5 Related Studies

2.5.1 Foreign language anxiety/Factors/Foreign language achievement

Elaine K. Horwitz et al. (1986) investigated the extent of foreign language anxiety with 75 university students (39 males and 36 females within the age range of 18 to 27) from four introductory Spanish classes and used the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (5-point Likert scale) for data collection. The findings showed that the majority of students experienced significant language anxiety. According to the foreign language anxiety statements (19 of 33 items), a third or more of the students experienced anxiety, implying that foreign language anxiety among L2 users is common in foreign language classrooms (at least in introductory classes at the university level).

Anthony J. Ozwuebuzie et al. (2001) investigated the ability of cognitive, affective, personality, and demographic variables to predict foreign language achievement with 184 university students enrolled in Spanish, French, German, and Japanese courses by using questionnaires (e.g., FLCAS). The analysis showed that variables from each of the four domains were significant predictors of foreign language

achievement, while cognitive and affective factors were considered the biggest determinant in predicting foreign language achievement. Average GPA was used as a measure for academic achievement and was determined to be the most significant predictor for foreign language achievement, whereas foreign language anxiety was the second most significant predictor.

Passawee Tintabut (1998) studied the relationship between beliefs, anxiety, and achievement in English language learning for 397 high school students (Grade 11) in Bangkok and found that those with greater English language anxiety did not perform as well in English language learning. In addition, those with positive beliefs about English language learning, performed better academically. However, no relationship between beliefs about language learning and language anxiety was found.

Muhammad Tanveer (2007) explored what causes language anxiety among EFL learners when learning speaking skills using both individual interviews and focus group interviews with 20 participants in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) Unit and Department of Education at the University of Glasgow, who were separated into three groups: 1) ESL/EFL learners; 2) highly experienced ESL/EFL teachers; 3) ESL/EFL practitioners. Among the 20 participants, nine were male and 11 were female. They were between 22 and 60 years old. The results suggested that anxiety was influenced by cognitive and linguistic factors such as a strict and formal classroom environment, giving presentations in class, fear of making mistakes and apprehension about others' evaluation, role of language instructors, self-perception, linguistic difficulties, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Moreover, other factors related to socio-cultural aspects such as the social environment, limited exposure to the target language, cultural differences, social status and self-identity, and gender.

Alessia Occhipinti (2009) investigated foreign language anxiety during speaking activities in a class with 100 university-level students. All the students were English majors in their third year. The focal point of this survey was the observation of speaking anxiety experienced in the English classroom in relation to the context where the language was learned. Two groups of students were observed: one group was 45

Italian students (37 females and 8 males) learning English at the University of Ragusa, Italy, where their first language was Italian; a second group consisted of 55 Spanish students (32 females and 23 males), learning English at the University of Cardiff, Wales, Great Britain. A questionnaire was administered to both groups of students to measure in-class speaking anxiety. The results showed that higher anxiety resulted from in-class activities such as spontaneous role plays in front of the class, speaking in front of the class, giving an oral presentation in front of the class, opening a discussion based on volunteer participation, and presenting a prepared dialogue in front of the class. In contrast, lower anxiety level resulted from such activities as working in groups of three or four, working on projects (newspapers, film strips, photo albums), repeating individually after the instructor, writing a composition at home, listening to questions and writing answers to questions, reading silently in class, or doing exercises in the book.

Tammy Gregersen and Elaine K. Horwitz (2002) investigated the relationship between foreign language anxiety and perfectionism in their study. They interviewed eight students at the Universidad de Atacama in Chile who were taking a second-year English class. The students' comments were audio-recorded as they watched themselves on a videotaped oral interview. With the exploration of the learners' responses to their actual oral performance and the audiotapes analysis including perfectionism, the findings revealed differences between the learners who were anxious and those who were not. They held different views about their personal performance standards and procrastination, fear of evaluation, and concern over errors, which are symbols of perfectionism. The findings propounded a link between language anxiety and perfectionism.

Anthony J. Ozwuebugie et al. (1999) studied the factors that predict foreign language anxiety. They evaluated 210 university students from a variety of majors who were studying French, Spanish, Japanese, and German at a mid-southern university. The results indicated that seven factors predicting foreign language anxiety: age, academic achievement, perceived self-worth, prior history of visiting foreign countries, prior high school experience with foreign language, expected overall average

from current language course, and perceived scholastic competence. Moreover, the results showed that freshmen and sophomores displayed the lowest degree of foreign language anxiety, and that the degree of anxiety was far greater in later years of study.

Phillips (1992) looked at the effect of FLA on students' oral performance. The subjects of the study included students enrolled in French classes and found that FLCA relates to performance in oral examinations. There was a negative relationship between the students' scores on the FLCA and oral exam grades, which implies that the students who possessed higher levels of foreign language anxiety were likely to have lower exam grades than those with less anxiety.

Yuki Aida (1994) investigated foreign language classroom anxiety focusing on non-Western foreign language like Japanese for students learning Japanese as foreign language in University of Texas. She found a negative relationship between FLCA and students' performance, with anxious students more likely to get lower grades.

Azhar Mahmood and Sara Iqbal (2010) compared the level of foreign language anxiety among male and female students to their academic achievement. The study included 1050 students of Government Degree Colleges in Sargodha, Pakistan. The results showed that both male and female students experienced foreign language anxiety, although the level of anxiety was higher among females. Also, both male and female students who had average levels of foreign language anxiety displayed better results in academic achievement than their high anxiety counterparts.

Tanielian (2014) conducted a study on FLCA in a new English program in Thailand with secondary students at a Thai government school in its second year of offering native-speaker ESL instruction and found a negative correlation between FLCA and English performance. He also found that Thai language maths exams scores were significantly better than English language maths exam scores.

Ornprapat Suwantarathip and Saovapa Wichadee (2010) as cited in Chiang (2012) examined how effective the cooperative learning (CL) approach was in reducing foreign language anxiety, and the influence on language proficiency. The study involved 40 sophomores in an English course at Bangkok University in Thailand. The

results showed that when participants reduced their anxiety during cooperative learning, they achieved higher proficiency.

Eamoraphan and Partridge (2015) conducted a study on students' foreign language classroom anxiety through cooperative learning with grade 10 students at Saint Joseph Bangna School, Thailand. The results showed no significant decrease in the foreign language classroom anxiety of the group studying through cooperative learning as well as the control group that studied through an individual approach. Also, no significant differences in communication apprehension were observed between the comparison groups. However, there was a significant difference in fear of negative evaluation and fear of English classes between the two groups.

Bundhit Punsiri (2011) investigated the types of FLCA that Thai EFL students had, the effect of the drama technique on the FLCA level of Thai students, and the effect of drama activities on the English language learning of Thai students with FLCA. The samples were 44 non-English major tertiary students. The FLCA questionnaire, eight drama technique-based lesson plans, and focus group discussion were employed in the study. The results showed that after the experiment through drama technique, the students' FLCA significantly reduced. Based on qualitative analysis, it was found that improvised drama and drama games were the most effective activities to reduce FLCA.

Daniel Yu-ching Chan and Guo-cheng Wu (2004) conducted a study on foreign language anxiety of 601 EFL elementary school students in Taiwan. Questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations, and document collection were employed in this study. The results from the questionnaires revealed clear foreign language anxiety among elementary school EFL students and a significant negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and English learning achievement. Also, the study found that low proficiency, fear of negative evaluation, competition of games, anxious personality, and pressure from students themselves and their parents were the five sources of language anxiety, whereas test anxiety, speaking in front of others, spelling, incomprehensible input, and speaking to native speakers were the five anxiety-

provoking situations. Finally, balance in instructional languages was believed to help reduce foreign language anxiety expressed by the teachers and students in this study.

Chang (2004) investigated the link between anxiety and language learning difficulties by using FLCAS. The result indicated that there was a positive correlation between foreign language anxiety and foreign language learning difficulties variables, which implied that negative anxiety experiences result in lower language achievement.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) found a negative relationship between language anxiety and various measures of language ability including a cloze test, a composition task, and a French proficiency test.

Wang (2010) found that there were a negative relationship between English listening classroom anxiety and listening achievement. The study employed English listening tests and questionnaires as tools to collect data from 125 English majors to investigate English listening classroom anxiety. This study investigated the possible sources of foreign language listening anxiety, which showed that when participants listened to accented English, they became more anxious. Thus, a coping strategy could be to create a listening plan to engage students in authentic English listening. Other sources could be when they are attending lectures, where they cannot control speed, or when they do not have visual cues.

Ganschow and Sparks (1991) as cited in Ozwuebutie et al. (1999) determined that students' beliefs and perceptions about how easy it is to learn a foreign language were the most crucial identifiers of whether they will encounter difficulty in foreign language learning. They also found that generally the students who had high foreign language anxiety were likely to find their language course difficult, while those with lower anxiety levels tended to find their language course easier.

Matthew and Scott (2006) showed that males had three different levels of foreign language anxiety (High, Average, Low), and most of them displayed the average level. Females showed two distinct levels of foreign language anxiety (High, Average) and most of them also displayed an average level. Overall, female students

showed higher foreign language anxiety than male students. Both male and female students with high English language anxiety tended to have lower academic achievement than those who had average English language anxiety.

2.5.2 Studies on World Englishes

Aya Matsuda's (2002) qualitative case study of Japanese secondary school students' attitudes toward English (from Matsuda, 2000) revealed a clearly Western-centered view of the world. To clarify, many students considered the terms 'abroad' or 'foreign countries' to mean the "West"- North America and western European countries in particular, while other areas such as Africa and South America were beyond their sense of reality. Other Asian countries did not appear to be 'foreign' enough from their perspective. Apart from this, the students also revealed that they had little idea about the existing English varieties and questions about the varieties of English caused them to answer "I don't know" or "I'm not sure"; meanwhile, they showed a preference for the British and American variety as the only notion of standard English.

Jindapitak and Teo (2012) found that peripheral accents were the most difficult to recognize by Thai tertiary students, possibly due to less exposure to these peripheral types of English. The informants seemed to lack of awareness of linguistic diversity as reflected in their inability to identify other varieties such as Japanese, Filipino, and Indian English, with correct identification of 17% and 13%, respectively, meanwhile, 50% of Thai tertiary informants were able to identify the Thai English accent, and followed by American and British English accent at 26.92%. Interestingly, the informants' recognition patterns involved their familiarity, speakers' phonological features, as well as their belief about standardness - non-standardness, correctness-incorrectness, and perceptions of intelligibility-unintelligibility of particular variety. Jindapitak and Teo (2012) concluded that two mainstream inner circle countries like US and UK were evaluated more positively than other speakers in outer and expanding circles like Indian or Japanese due to fact that the participants who were tertiary English majors in the field of ELT may have been routinely favorably exposed to pedagogical principles that were profoundly rooted in the native-speaker ideology.

James D'Angelo (2012) developed the WE-Informed curriculum and the first known College of World Englishes, in which the Department of World Englishes (WE) is housed at Chukyo University in Japan. Through developing the curriculum, they found that WE paradigm was very useful for lessening the dominance of native-speakerism, encouraging creativity and awareness of new varieties, and inspiring a sense of ownership of English in Japan that can foster better communication. The program is provided for three levels of Chukyo high schools, undergraduate and graduate, creating synergy and the expectations that graduates of the master's program can move on to teach at the secondary level. Most coursework is completed in three years. During the fourth year students will complete a graduation thesis.

The mission of the undergraduate program includes: 1) to develop graduates who speak educated Japanese English; 2) to expose students to many cultures and Englishes and develop deeper knowledge of the students' own culture; 3) to develop autonomous, independent thinking students who can contribute to organizations and society and foster international understanding. The uniqueness of the WE-based program is based on firstly, attitudinal change via the coursework through developing students' awareness of language contact and change, introducing new Englishes and ongoing evolutionary nature of language. Second, international exposure as the college encourages students to go out into the wider world such as the freshman Singapore study tour, second-year students participating in a three-week study tour in Australia or the Hawaii Internship to change the students thinking that English is no longer owned by the Inner Circle. Third, language teaching staff are both Japanese teachers of English and numerous English teachers from the Outer and Expanding Circles. Fourth, faculty scholarships, with the program supporting WE/EIL research and inviting WE/EIL scholars as regular guest speakers.

Some suggestions have been provided for classroom teachers such as encouraging linguistic hybridity, accepting linguistic creativity in class, developing contextualized academic content, and learning to appreciate and critique local culture values. Moreover, some limitations and challenges could be that first there were some

faculty members who do not buy into the paradigm slow change as faculty prefers to make decisions through consensus rather than top-down decisions, little time for evaluating the program thanks to numerous administrative duties, and time and continual efforts being needed for substantial changes in students' attitudes.

Farzad Sharifian and Roby Marlina (2012) showed how the department of English as an International Language (EIL) at Monash University (MonsU) in Melbourne Australia incorporated the WE/EIL paradigm into the courses or degrees it offers. The department of EIL at Monash University is the first department in Australia genuinely built around the EIL paradigm, which acknowledges the legitimacy and the relevance of World Englishes, and the first to offer undergraduate and postgraduate courses in EIL. The EIL program (=department) at Monash University is an academic content program that focuses on EIL, intercultural communication, and World Englishes. The program provides a new perspective on the current functions and use of English in the light of its global spread, taking into account the implications this has for communication in English, English language pedagogy and research on English in a variety of international contexts. The reasons that Sharifian initiated the program are that he observed two essential aspects missing in the curriculum to which he had been exposed to in Iran, which are first the exposure to a wider variety of Englishes and second training in intercultural communication skills. Hence, he then developed the new program of EIL that recognizes the pluricentricity of English (World Englishes), emphasizes intercultural communication and cross-cultural understanding, and revisits the major tenets of traditional paradigm of TESOL, in particular native speakerism. The program objectives are to guide the students to develop knowledge of EIL/WE to a professional level, to foster the ability to negotiate different Englishes and gain intercultural communication skills and WE/EIL informed mindsets and attitudes.

Some limitations of this program are first a great number of students had mistaken assumptions of what the program teaches, and thought that the program was designed to improve the English proficiency of international students with non-native background. Second is some teachers were still uncertain about how to implement the

theoretical knowledge of teaching EIL in an actual classrooms. Third, the old ideologies of native speakerism linger on.

Hyewon Lee (2012) demonstrated how a pilot program developed from the concept of World Englishes enhanced high school students' communicative competence, increased cross-cultural awareness, and successfully developed students' confidence and positive attitudes toward speaking their own English at Chukyo High School. The program was initiated in 2009 by the Department of World Englishes of Chukyo University and its affiliate school, Chukyo High School. An oral communication class was planned for this program with three teachers involved in this class: one foreign teacher from the Expanding Circle and two Japanese teachers. The class met for 90 minutes every week (eight classes in total). The main objectives of the program were to enhance students' English communicative competence while learning about cultures other than native English-speaking cultures, and to show that the English language is a tool for cross-cultural communication and mutual understanding across cultural boundaries. The students were all at the intermediate level and enrolled on a voluntary basis. They also took a special oral communication class in addition to all of the required English classes.

Characteristics of the course are that first, the teaching staff was also a teacher from the Expanding Circle. Second, the selection of the main textbook involved different storylines from other communication textbooks incorporating Japanese traditional cultures, games, arts. The main theme of the book was 'travel', which allowed teachers to incorporate additional cultural topics and promote awareness of other cultures associated with speakers of different English varieties. The third characteristic was an emphasis on Asia as the people from these countries would be more important for Japan in this era of globalization, as the UK and US are not the only key players of today's globalized world. Fourth was the preparation of teachers and students through brief orientation of the course.

The outcomes of the course were that the students developed more confidence and positive attitudes toward speaking their own English. Moreover, they

were less nervous when speaking English in class and became more willing to volunteer in class activities. For the limitations of the program, firstly the teachers themselves still wondered if their language usage was appropriate for the class. Secondly, the issue of ownership of English was not easily accepted by high school students with limited international experience. Third was the issue of time and timing as teachers had only two months to design the course; thus, the preparation period was short and rushed. Fourth, not many teachers were familiar enough with WE/EIL theory. Last was a lack of available information and resources on pedagogical approaches.

Yasemin Bayyurt and Derya Altinmakas (2012) implemented a course entitled ‘Oral Communication Skills in English’, which was developed based on WE/EIL principles and taught by Derya Altinmakas in the Department of English Language and Literature at Istanbul Kultur University, a private university in Istanbul. Altinmakas (2012) also noticed that student held firm attitudes and beliefs about the English language that one should sound like a native British and American English to be proficient in language, while lacking awareness of other varieties of English. Consequently, she decided to design and implement a whole course of one semester (14 weeks) in 2009. The students were freshmen and sophomores (32 each) with upper-intermediate and advance levels. The examples of class activities were discussions on stereotyping based on YouTube videos representing varieties of English to see how stereotypes are constructed in society and uncover students beliefs about cultures and nations including native speakerism and standard English, as well as debates in class on how curriculums on English language and literature should be revised to reflect the current status of English as a world language.

The results showed some changes in students’ perspectives about WE and positive feedback on WE/EIL, with most of them recognizing the importance of being able to communicate effectively rather than to speak like a native speaker like in the beginning of the term.

Nobuyuki Hino (2012) reported on the classroom practice at Osaka University in Japan that allowed the students to participate in the real world of English as

an International language (EIL) by watching, listening to and discussing the news of the day available on satellite TV and the Internet. In attempt to integrate the teaching of EIL with ‘critical thinking’ and ‘media literacy education’, TV news and newspapers around the world including from non-native countries such India, Pakistan, Japan, Thailand were compared and contrasted, which reflected the diversity of linguistic and cultural values of WE and worldwide users of EIL. This method is called IPTEIL (Integrated Practice in teaching English as an International Language). Hino also considered the internet to be on the rise as a major gateway to WE and integrated pedagogical concepts relevant to EIL with EFL classes for first and second-year undergraduates. Each class meeting once a week for 90 minutes with a total of 15 sessions in a semester. IPTEIL took place in CALL classrooms because of its extensive use of electronic newspapers on the Web.

The objectives of IPTEIL are that the students will: acquire identity as EIL users; become familiar with linguistic and cultural diversity of EIL; gain cross-cultural awareness needed for communication in EIL; establish their own thinking to cope with the varieties of values in EIL; acquire reading skills in EIL in combination with other skills. In class the teacher used English as language of instruction and sometimes used Japanese as an auxiliary aid depending on students’ proficiency. The teaching materials were not textbooks but authentic materials like TV news and electronic newspapers, with a diversity of linguistic norms and cultural values as one of the salient features of the teaching methods. Students were required to compare viewpoints in different media including CNN (US), BBC (UK), ABS-CBN (Philippines), Channel News Asia (Singapore), and the Bangkok Post (Thailand newspaper). Feedback from the students showed that IPTEIL largely produced the intended results by preparing the students for EIL communication especially in cross-cultural aspects. Also, Japanese English as a target model had a good potential of being accepted by Japanese learners of English. What seemed to lead them to this attitude change was the diversity of the English in class. Regarding the limitations of the implementation, it was teacher-centered in its form while students tended to be more passive than active. Another challenge was that many students felt strange talking to their friends in English.

Aya Matsuda and Chatwara Suwannamai Duran (2012) developed practical lessons and activities that can be adopted in existing English classrooms. However, Matsuda noted that simply adding an activity or two does not turn a traditional EFL curriculum into an EIL curriculum, but it would help many teachers who are interested in incorporating WE/EIL notion into an existing course. The primary focuses are: 1) Introduction of World Englishes; 2) World Englishes and Language Attitudes; 3) World Englishes and Local Creativity; 4) World Englishes and Cultures. For examples of lesson plans, see ‘EIL Activities and Tasks for Traditional English Classrooms’ by Aya Matsuda & Chatwara Suwannamai Duran (2012).

Roy C. Major et al. (2002) explored the degree to which native-English-speaking and ESL listeners performed better on listening tests when the speaker had the same native language. A total of 100 listeners were divided into four groups, whose native languages were Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, and American English. They listened to short lectures in English by speakers with four different first languages and answered questions according to the lectures. The findings showed that both native and non-native listeners performed appreciably better on listening comprehension tests when they listened to native speakers of English. Native speakers of Spanish performed markedly better when listening to English speakers that shared their Spanish accent, while native speakers of Chinese actually scored noticeably lower when listening to speakers who shared their first language.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) is considered an excellent predictor determining the success of second language learning acquisition (SLA) and is a major influence on student language learning (Tanielian, 2014; Wang, 2010; Tintabut, 1998; Horwitz et al., 1986; Gardner, 1985 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al., 2001). FLCA includes the worry and negative emotional reaction arousal that occur when a person learns or uses a second language (MacIntyre, 1999). Students who exhibit low FLCA typically tend to have greater success in school, and feel like studying more in class than high FLCA students (Horwitz et al., 1986). The negative effects of FLCA have been recognized and various remedies have been sought by many researchers to date. This study aims to propose tentative guidelines for reducing students' FLCA as well as increasing achievement in English language through the incorporation of World Englishes into EFL classroom practice. It is hoped that this will provide learners with the opportunity to be exposed to varieties of English and cultures in the current real world situations in which learners will encounter interlocutors from various linguistic backgrounds in cross-cultural contexts. At the same time, this incorporation of World Englishes in this study could increase learners' ability to recognize and negotiate with various Englishes in the world, helping them to move away from traditional learning goal informed by native speaker models and become more competent users of EIL where success and failure are defined beyond the native speaker notions (Cook, 2014; McKay, 2012; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012, 2013; Canagarajah, 1999, 2006).

Kubota (2012), Renandya (2012), Jindapitak and Teo (2012, 2013), Baik and Shim (2012), McKay (2012), Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), Song and Damrong (2009), Kirkpatrick (2007), and Matsuda (2003) have discussed the pedagogical implications of WE/EIL in the classroom, which mainly involve raising awareness of the different varieties of English or linguistic variations that exist, and which should be valued as legitimate modes of communication; learners also need to be able to listen, understand

and make themselves understood when using English to communicate in multilingual contexts and to serve their own specific purposes such as business, travel, or study; etc. While some research to date has looked at WE/EIL in the classroom (e.g. Japan, Australia, Turkey, Korea), the use of WE as a remedy for foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) reduction has not yet been investigated, especially in Thailand where WE/EIL is not yet well recognized by teachers, practitioners and scholars. Therefore, the objective of this study was to analyze the incorporation of WE into classroom practice with Thai tertiary students at one government university in Bangkok as a treatment to help the students reduce the anxiety and improve language achievement as a result of the anxiety reduction.

The intent of Chapter 3 is to supply a thorough explanation of the current study which covers the following: the *research design* based on a mixed-methods approach with quasi-experiment and qualitative inquiries as additional data sources; *participants* from the comparison group of the control and experimental groups, which were 92 first-year and non-English major students at one government university in Bangkok; the *context* of 17 weeks of a Foundation English II course but with 10 weeks for the experiment; *data collection instruments*, which included an FLCA questionnaire, an English achievement test, head notes, and focus group interviews; the *procedures*, which were based on the sequence of the instruments used in the study beginning with the FLCA questionnaire, the English achievement test, WE-based lesson plans, head notes, the FLCA questionnaire, the English achievement test and the focus group interviews; the last part presents the *data analysis*.

3.1 Research Design

This study is primarily classroom research aiming to identify and better understand the impact that a certain type of instruction or curriculum has on EFL learning. Mackey and Gass (2005), Dornyei (2007), Nunan and Bailey (2009), Turner and Meyer (2000) as cited in Dornyei (2007) emphasize the necessity of using multiple methods and techniques to explain what is happening in classrooms. These scholars

assert that methodologies directed at the measurement of classroom variables in educational psychology have been mostly quantitative with little exploration of the how and why of learning; meanwhile, qualitative methods can uncover participants' interpretations and allow researchers to revisit conclusions based on inductive reasoning, which can enhance the ability to draw sound conclusions.

According to Sandelowski (2003) as cited in Dornyei (2007), a mixed-methods research is used to gain a better understanding of a target situation, as well as to compare ones' findings with those of other researchers, or in other words, to validate one's conclusions through different methods known as the traditional goal of 'triangulation'. Triangulation has been used broadly in research methodology texts, often as a synonym for mixing methods, which refers to the use of a range of data sources, instruments, theories, and/or investigators as an effective strategy to ensure research validity (Dornyei, 2007).

There are various designs under a mixed-methods approach and the selection is suggested to be centered around the purpose of the investigation or the research question. For example, according to Johnson and Christensen (2004) as cited in Dornyei (2007), QUAN+qual is one the designs, which means that quantitative inquiry is used as the main approach to collect data while qualitative inquiry is used to provide an additional or secondary data source or to help the researcher validate the results by the use of a different instrument. To illustrate, experiments can be improved further by conducting interviews to obtain research participants' perspectives and meanings that lie behind the experimental research findings. Including a qualitative phase to explore the featured process elements in the experiment can greatly enhance the study's internal validity (Dornyei, 2007). In addition, the use of a mixed-methods inquiry can increase internal validity (the claim that the results are from the treatment), external validity (generalizability or reaching a larger audience through quasi-experiments than only-qualitative inquiry can), reliability (as the 'objectivity' tends to be higher when the data is based on numbers such as scores from questionnaires and exams rather than only verbal

data from interviews or headnotes that depend on the researcher's interpretation) (Nunan & Bailey, 2009; Dornyei, 2007).

This study used a mixed-method approach in line with what Mackey and Gass (2005), Dornyei (2007) and Nunan and Bailey (2009) suggest as an appropriate method for classroom research, as more than one method is required to understand what is happening in such complex environment. The classroom can be a complex setting where many things are going on and multiple variables can impact the results of the study. This study employed the organization of a mixed-methods design, which was QUAN+qual. To clarify, quasi-experimental research (=QUAN) was used as the main approach, with qualitative inquiry (=qual) like focus group interviews and head notes to triangulate the results. This is because even though the researcher used quasi-experiment (=QUAN), it might not be sufficient to claim that the results were derived from the intended variable or the treatment as the research occurred in the complex setting of a classroom. Accordingly, this study also needed qualitative inquiry (head notes and the interviews) as additional data sources for the researcher to be confident that the results were truly due to the treatment, which was WE-based lessons, not other variables.

3.1.1 QUAN inquiry

Many classroom studies have been conducted using experimental design, with the main purpose being to look for causal relationships between independent variables (treatments) and dependent variables. Experimental research can be divided into the *true-experimental* class and *quasi-experimental* class. According to Nunan and Bailey (2009), the characteristics of quasi-experimental design are quite similar to those of the true-experimental design in terms of: 1) investigating two comparison groups; 2) predetermined variables of interest; 3) manipulating variables (control variables) or neutralizing research contexts while seeking interventions to measure the effects on dependent variables. However, the difference from true experimental research is the lack of random selection and assignment to the comparison groups. And so there can be

possible threats from selection bias such as the participants' histories, attitudes, level of proficiency, etc. (Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

This study used quasi-experimental class research specifically, 'Nonequivalent Control (Comparison) Groups design', which reflects all four characteristics of the quasi-experimental class design mentioned above. This was appropriate because this study aimed to look for a causal relationship between the independent variable (=WE-based lessons) and the dependent variables (=students' FLCA level and English achievement level). Moreover, this study used comparison groups - the control and experimental groups; if the researcher had used only one group, the participants' progress may have come from their learning throughout the course rather than the intended variable of the WE-based lessons. Also, the researcher manipulated the variables (control variables) such as the use of the same teacher, learning hours, textbooks, amount of participants for both groups, etc., to ensure that the results were not influenced by uncontrolled variables. The variables were also predetermined: the independent variable was WE-based lessons; and the dependent variables were students' FLCA level and English achievement level; the control variables were the same teacher, the test and questionnaire. On top of that, quasi-experimental design was used in this study because of the practicality, as it might not have been possible for the researcher to use true random selection of the participants in a government university enrolled in a foundation English course. The researcher used convenience sampling or non-random selection as the most practical method for selecting participants because the university was in charge of assigning students into appropriate foundation English courses I, II and III based on their pre-existing O-NET scores.

3.1.2 QUAL inquiry

As mentioned earlier, qualitative inquiry was utilized in this study as additional data source to justify the results gained from quantitative inquiry, as well as add richness to the explanations of the findings.

To illustrate, the researcher gained a fuller understanding of the effects of the use of WE-based lessons apart from knowing its causal relationship to the

participants' level of anxiety and achievement in English language through the use of head notes and vignettes to describe the special scenes for backing up the results. Also, focus group interviews were used to gather the participants' views on what they experienced and felt during the course. In other words, the use of qualitative inquiries in this study helped increase the internal validity of the research.

3.2 Context

The university studied was a government university in Bangkok. The university has four campuses, but the campus studied is in Bangkok and was comprised of 15 faculties altogether from both the arts and science fields. At present, there are 539 curriculums provided: 498 Thai curriculums and 41 international curriculums. At the time of the study, there were 27,117 undergraduate students, 8,348 master's degree students and 1,583 doctoral degrees students on this campus. In this study, data was gathered in the first semester of the 2015 academic year, from August to December. The Foundation English II course covered 17 weeks. However, since seven weeks were devoted to university activities such as the commencement ceremony, course orientation, Speexx online introduction and trial, portfolio feedback, etc., the actual data collection was done in 10 weeks, including the incorporation of World Englishes designed to cover eight lesson plans plus two weeks for the pretest and posttest. Each lesson took 1.5 hours. Moreover, since one of the course objectives for Foundation English II course was to foster learners' autonomous learning, the Speexx online program was introduced in this course for the students to study grammar by themselves outside the classroom and during in-class time it was task-based. Therefore, there were altogether five tasksheets (units) to be used in class with the students assigned to group A and group B coming to class only one day per week for 1.5 hours; meanwhile, the other day within the same week they had to do self-study outside class, e.g., study Speexx online program. To clarify, while group A was in class studying on Monday, Group B was doing self-study outside class. On Friday, while group B was in class, group A would do self-study outside class.

3.3 Population and Sample

In this study, the population was 2,596 students first-year students studying in the regular program, non-English majors, taking Foundation English Course II as a compulsory subject at a government university where the researcher was working. They were both arts and science students. About 1,250 students were from arts and 1,350 were from science. They were at the lower-intermediate level based on the O-NET scores in English subject ranging from 31 to 55.

Kaiyawan and Palaprom (2010), and Nunan and Bailey (2009) noted that with quantitative data analysis, larger numbers are desirable because normal distribution work better with a larger data set. Also, most inferential statistics work better with more than 30 subjects in a sample. Therefore, the sample in this study was selected from the population mentioned above and numbered 92 Thai first-year students enrolled in the Foundation English II course in the first semester of year 2015. The sample was split into two groups of 47 and 45 students, consisting of a control group and the experimental group, respectively, in order to provide a normal distribution needed for further inferential statistical analysis as suggested by Nunan and Bailey (2009). In the control group and experimental group, there were 36 females and 11 males, and 32 females and 13 males, respectively. The original numbers of students who did the pretest in the second week of the semester were 57 and 63 students from the control and experimental groups. However, on the pretest day, some of them were absent because of a faculty activity. Some students also withdrew from the study when the consent form was given. Moreover, students who did not completely fill in the pretest and did not write their names were omitted, so the actual numbers of valid questionnaires from the participants were 47 and 45 from the control and experimental groups, respectively. The participants in the control group were from various faculties including Economics, Humanities, Fisheries, Forestry, and Agro-Industry. The participants from the experimental group were from Humanities, Fisheries, Forestry, Agro-Industry, Agriculture and Social Science.

These participants were required to enroll in the Foundation English II course as a compulsory subject since their scores on the O-NET ranged from 31-55 based on the selection criteria of the university. Normally, students with O-NET scores ranging between 56-75 and above do not have to take the Foundation English II Course, but they are required to enroll in the Foundation English course III; meanwhile, those who gain scores above 75 are exempted from these two Foundation English Courses and eligible to choose any of English IV courses provided for non-English major students. Those whose scores are between 16-30 are required to enroll in the Foundation English I course, while scores 0-15 require enrollment in the English Preparation Course (Office of The Registra, 2014).

3.3.1 Sampling technique

Convenience sampling (non-probability) or selection of participants based on the availability of a pre-existing sample is normally used to meet certain practical criteria (Dornyei, 2007). In this study, as students are normally assigned to enroll in the Foundation English II Course by Office of The Registra (2014) based on their pre-existing O-NET scores, convenience sampling was employed. Moreover, all the participants were non-English major students, which was the intention of the researcher because according to the observation and teaching experience, the motivation to learn English of these students tends to be lower than those from the English major and their language anxiety in class tends to be higher than English majors. Therefore, non-English major students were selected to provide observable results and significant differences in students' FLCA level after exposure to the treatment or the WE-based lessons.

3.3.2 Selection criteria

As previously stated, the sample was chosen based on Office of The Registra (2014) criteria by adopting O-NET scores to assign students to an appropriate level of English course that ranged from Foundation English I, II and III. Therefore, both groups who were enrolled in the Foundation English II course had average scores between 31 and 55.

3.4 Data Collection

Five main instruments were used in this study: 1) the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) adapted from Horwitz (1986), Aida (1994), and Tintabut (1998); 2) an English achievement test adopted from previous Foundation English II examinations; 3) WE-based lesson plans as an intervention for the experimental group (see examples in appendix B); 4) the researcher's head notes (vignette); and the focus group interview. The main instruments were the FLCA questionnaire and the English achievement test to measure the participants' anxiety level and achievement level in English language, respectively, after the intervention of the WE-based lessons, while the qualitative instruments, i.e., the focus group interviews and head notes including vignettes were used to supplement the findings and increase the ability to claim that the results were directly caused by the treatment intended by the researcher. The use of quantitative and qualitative instruments is described in two separate sections, starting with the three quantitative instruments as follows.

3.4.1 Instruments: 'Quantitative'

- FLCAS questionnaire
- English achievement test
- WE-based lesson plans

3.4.1.1 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

(1) Purpose

FLCAS, or Foreign Language (English) Classroom Anxiety Scale, is a standardized instrument often used in researching language anxiety, originally designed by Horwitz et al. in 1986. The purpose of this scale is to quantify the level of language learners' feelings of anxiety in a foreign language classroom. However, since the scale was originally used to quantify general language anxiety caused by foreign language learning, the researcher adapted the questionnaire to better serve the purpose of the study, which also addressed World Englishes notion.

(2) Questionnaire development and features

The steps in developing the questionnaire were adapted from the principles of Dornyei (2003, 2007), and Kaiyawan and Palaprom (2010) as follows:

1) *Studied the principles*, theory, and previous research about foreign and English language learning anxiety and World Englishes from related books, articles from journals using both domestic and international sources.

2) *Selected and adapted the questions* from Elain K. Horwitz (1986: 125-135), Yukie Aida (1994, p. 159-162), Tintabut (1998), and drew on Horwitz et al. (1986) and Young's (1999) framework of language anxiety, and Matsuda and Friedrich's (2011) framework of World Englishes, containing 41 items and covering five components of the anxiety as follows. The original instrument developed by Horwitz (1986) of 33 items had high validity and reliability as indicated by the alpha coefficient (.93) and test-retest coefficient (.83).

- Communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation – 17 items
- Fear of failing the class - 4 items
- Comfortableness in speaking with native English speakers – 3 items
- Negative attitudes towards the English class – 3 items
- Unrealistic learning goal & low self-esteem – 14 items

3) *Initially validated* by the researcher's advisor for the overall appropriateness of the content, and then the researcher adjusted the FLCA questionnaire based on the feedback.

4) *Validated* by three experts holding doctoral degrees who had more than seven years of experience in English language teaching. The three experts were selected from both the psychology field specializing in anxiety and the English language teaching field. The validation was done through Item Objective Congruence (IOC). IOC is a process whereby experts check the quality of an instrument used in a study, focusing on content validity or to what extent each item in the test or questionnaire matches the intended objectives (Kaiyawan & Palaprom, 2010).

In this study, three experts were asked to evaluate each item of the questionnaire and focus on both the content and language appropriateness. Scoring criteria for calculating IOC was divided into three levels:

- +1 = the expert is sure that content is valid based on the given objective
- 0 = the expert is not sure that content is valid based on the given objective
- 1 = the expert is sure that content is not valid based on the given objective

Total of scores given by all experts

$IOC = \frac{\text{Total of scores given by all experts}}{\text{numbers of the experts}}$

The results were brought to calculate for the congruence index of each item. Items that gained an average score from all experts between 0.5 - 1.00 was considered to have content validity (Kaiyawan & Palaprom, 2010). On the other hand, items with averages scores lower than 0.5 needed revision since they had a low congruence index. There was also a blank column provided for the experts to make comments on each item and the overall appropriateness. The FLCA questionnaires were be translated into two languages for expert validation - Thai and English - to ensure conceptual equivalence.

Table 3.1

Summary of Three Experts' Suggestions and Revision by Researcher

The followings are the summary of the experts' comments.	The researcher adjusted FLCAS according to the experts' comments.
1. Some words used in some statements were not correct according to the context. For example, the word “อับอาย” (=embarrassed) could not be really used when someone volunteers to do something, rather someone is ‘not confident’ or ‘fear of being incorrect’.	1. The word “อับอาย” (=embarrassed) was changed to “ฉันรู้สึกไม่มั่นใจเมื่ออาสาตอบคำถาม” (=not confident).

Table 3.1***Summary of Three Experts' Suggestions and Revision by Researcher (Cont.)***

The followings are the summary of the experts' comments.	The researcher adjusted FLCAS according to the experts' comments.
2. Some statements mentioned a particular fear or anxiety that we cannot control. For example, it is normal that people would be anxious if they don't prepare themselves well in advance for doing something. Therefore, the item "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class" could not bring to measure FLCA.	2. The statement "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class" was cut out as it could not really measure FLCA.
3. Some statements were not clear and ambiguous. For example, "During English class, I find myself thinking about other things that have nothing to do with the course". The word "other things" was too vague and may not be necessarily related to anxiety.	3. The statement "During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course" was cut out as it was too vague and might not always be related to anxiety.
4. There should be more items addressing World Englishes principles in relation to FLCA.	3. The items addressing World Englishes principles in relation to FLCA were added; for example, - "Practice in intercultural communication that goes beyond linguistic knowledge from this class helps me realize that being competent EIL users does not require only native speaker competence", - "In this class, exposure to samples of communication breakdown situations between L2 speakers and see how they use communication strategies to make the communication success helps increase my confidence in using English".

After the revision, the FLCAS questionnaire included 41 items, covering five aspects as follows.

1. Communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation - 17 items
2. Fear of failing the class - 4 items
3. Comfortableness in speaking with native English speakers - 3 items
4. Negative attitudes towards the English class - 3 items
5. Unrealistic learning goal & low self-esteem - 14 items

5) *Piloting*. Since the researcher did not know how the items would work in actual practice, or whether the respondents would reply to the items in the manner intended by the researcher, based on Kaiyawan and Palaprom (2010) and Dornyei (2007), the researcher gave the questionnaire to 33 respondents who were

similar to the target population that the instrument was designed for (first-year, non-English major students at the same government university being studied).

A noteworthy factor is that the researcher explained in the pilot questionnaires that the respondents had to circle any part of items and make notes on any points that seemed unclear to them and then clarify why they did not understand those particular aspects. The researcher designed the last column in the questionnaire on the right side for the respondents to give comments on any unclear parts or wordings. The researcher also included one open-ended section after the last item for respondents who might want to add further comments, which was clearly designated in the questionnaire as 'optional'.

6) *Item analysis*. The researcher submitted the answers from the pilot group to statistical analyses to fine-tune and finalize the questionnaire. The reliability was analyzed through the statistical package SPSS using the Coefficient of Cronbach; the pilot study was shown to have a coefficient of 0.929, which means that all items had sufficient reliability to obtain consistent data from the participants (Kaiyawan & Palaprom, 2010). After that, the researcher adjusted the FLCAS questionnaire based on the statistics and the feedback provided by the participants. Subsequently, two positive items that seemed to yield inconsistent responses from the participants were deleted. The final version of the FLCAS included 39 items with 14 negative and 25 positive items as follows.

1. Communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation - 16 items
2. Fear of failing the class - 4 items
3. Comfortableness in speaking with native English speakers - 3 items
4. Negative attitudes towards the English class - 3 items
5. Unrealistic learning goal & low self-esteem - 13 items

(3) Features of the FLCA questionnaire

The researcher adapted the questions from Horwitz et al. (1986), Aida (1994), Tintabut (1998), and drew on the foreign language anxiety framework of Young (1999) and Horwitz et al. (1986), and the World Englishes principles from

Matsuda and Friedrich (2011). The items were grouped into five constructs or components of foreign language anxiety with a 5-point Likert scale, including 39 items. The content was composed of positive wording (25 items), and negative wording (14 items). The score assignments were as follows.

Scores for positive-wording items

Strongly agree	=	5 points
Agree	=	4 points
Neither agree nor disagree	=	3 points
Disagree	=	2 points
Strongly disagree	=	1 points

Scores for negative-wording items

Strongly agree	=	1 points
Agree	=	2 points
Neither agree nor disagree	=	3 points
Disagree	=	4 points
Strongly disagree	=	5 points

The minimum possible score was 39 points and the maximum score was 195 points. For this instrument, a higher score showed a high level of foreign language anxiety, while a lower score showed a low level of classroom anxiety. The study used a 5-point Likert scale, and the interpretations of means were based on the following criteria of Tintabut (1998).

4.50 - 5.00	=	Very high anxiety in English language classroom learning
3.50 - 4.49	=	High anxiety in English language classroom learning
2.50 - 3.49	=	Moderate anxiety
1.50 - 2.49	=	Low anxiety in English language classroom learning
1.00 - 1.49	=	Very low anxiety in English language classroom learning

(4) The finalized format of the questionnaire

The FLCA questionnaire was comprised of two main aspects based on its functions as suggested by Dornyei (2003, 2007): 1) factual questions to

reveal certain facts about the participants such as demographic characteristics (e.g., name, faculty, contact information); 2) attitudinal questions to reveal the participants' thoughts, attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and values. In detail, the FLCA questionnaire was divided into four parts - factual, introduction, main body, and ending, as follows.

1) Factual part

The factual part was put at the questionnaire's end since providing their names might remind them of the non-anonymous nature of the questionnaire, which in turn might affect some answers.

2) Introduction

The researcher described the purpose of the study, promised confidentiality, stressed that no answer was right or wrong and that grades would not be affected, and requested honest answers, before thanking the participants. This was followed by specific instructions.

3) Main body of the questionnaire

This part was clearly separated from the instructions and the length of the FLCA questionnaire was three pages, with no time limit for completion; however, the approximate time used was around 15 minutes. Researchers widely agree that anything beyond four to six pages in length that requires over 30 minutes to finish is too long, so the optimal length of a questionnaire in applied linguistics is rather short as the topics may have low interest from the participants' perspectives, which would affect their willingness to spend too much time answering. Moreover, the optional open-ended section was also the last item of the questionnaire.

4) Ending part

Before ending with the final 'thank you', the researcher also included a contact name and telephone number in case if there were any questions, and a brief note saying that the researcher would send the participants a summary of the findings if they were interested.

3.4.1.2 English Achievement Test

(1) Purpose

The English achievement test was used as a pretest and posttest to determine if there was a significant difference with respect to the English achievement scores based on the course, before and after the use of the treatment (WE-based lessons) between the comparison groups.

(2) English Achievement Test development and features

1) *Analyzed* the current course objectives and course descriptions of Foundation English II.

2) *Selected* 80 items from the previous Foundation English II course exam papers, with the researcher ensuring that the items selected appropriately matched the course objectives and course descriptions of the current Foundation English II Course. To be noted here, normally the examinations used for both midterm and final examinations in Foundation English II course are validated by at least four Thai teachers and one native speaking teacher prior to the actual test in order to ensure the validity of the content, level of proficiency, the correctness of language use, and overall appropriateness. The original test included 60 items and 60 points. Therefore, all six previous examination papers from the last three semesters (altogether = 360 items) were selected by the researcher for the 80 items, which were divided into four parts, similar to the original Foundation English II course examination: vocabulary; expressions; structure; reading. The researcher also made sure that each part had balance with regard to the topics selected (e.g., under the structure part - grammar topics such as past simple tense, present perfect tense, modals, etc., should be addressed with the same proportion in the test). The test outline can be seen as follows.

- ***Vocabulary part:*** 20 items 20 marks.
- ***Expressions part:*** 20 items 20 marks.
- ***Structure part:*** 20 items 20 marks. Four items were from Past Simple topics, four items from Modals topics, four items from Present Perfect and

Past Simple tenses topics, four items from Gerund and Infinitives, and four items from Participial adjectives.

- **Reading comprehension part:** 20 items 20 marks. There were two reading passages - 10 items 10 marks for each passage. The items were all based on multiple-choice format with four options. All parts were based on multiple-choice format with four options (a,b,c,d), and two options (a,b) as well as a cloze test with words or phrases provided as the options.

3) *Validated by three experts.* Prepared and provided the course objectives, course descriptions and item objectives to validate the overall appropriateness by three experts holding doctoral degrees with more than seven years of experience in English language teaching, which was done through IOC process to confirm the content validity. To illustrate, the three experts evaluated each item of the test and focused on both the content in terms of whether each item matched the intended objective, as well as focus on the language use. The objectives of each item were given for the experts to evaluate against. The scoring criteria for calculating IOC was +1, 0, -1 as mentioned earlier. The researcher asked the experts to reduce the number of items to around 50. After that, based on the feedback, the researcher adjusted the test items and put together to a final version of the English Achievement Test.

Table 3.2

Summary of Three Experts' Suggestions and Revision by Researcher

The followings are the summary of the experts' comments.	The researcher adjusted the achievement test according to the experts' comments.
1. Vocabulary part: Some words might be too easy and already known by the students, so they could not really measure students' vocabularies knowledge. For example, the word "to open" (account), and the word "ready".	1. Vocabulary part: The words "open" and "ready", which are too easy and already known by the students were changed to the new words "spend" (money), and "goods" respectively in the cloze test part.
2. Expression part: Some choices were not expressions, but rather general statements; for example, "I'd like to open a bank account", or "I'll come back tomorrow". So, they might not measure what this part aimed to measure, which were expressions.	2. Expression part: The general statements "I'd like to open a bank account" and "I'll come back tomorrow" were changed to "What can I do for you?", and to "Would you like this form to fill in at home?" respectively to be able to measure the expressions.

Table 3.2***Summary of Three Experts' Suggestions and Revision by Researcher (Cont.)***

The followings are the summary of the experts' comments.	The researcher adjusted the achievement test according to the experts' comments.
3. Grammar part: For example; - For Past Simple and Present Perfect tense part, some items measured form rather than tense which the four options were "be/ was/were/been". - For Modal verb part, there was no consistent in the options; for example, two options were positive wording while the other two options were negative wording: "must/shouldn't/would/couldn't". 4. Reading part: For example; - Some item was too easy and the answer was too obvious for the students' level; for example, "Which one is NOT marine life mentioned in this passage?".	3. Grammar part: For example; - For Past Simple and Present Perfect tense part, the item which measured form rather than tense was cut out. - For Modals part, two positive wording options were changed to two negative wording options to make all four options consistent. So, the new options were - "must not/ shouldn't/ wouldn't/ couldn't". 4. Reading part: For example; - The item "Which one is NOT marine life mentioned in this passage?" that was too easy for the students' level was cut out.

After the revision, the achievement test (English) included 50 items, covering four parts, which is shown in the following part - the features of the achievement test.

(3) Features of the English achievement test

The English achievement test was adapted from the previous exam papers of the Foundation English II course, which is no longer used. The revised test included a total of 50 items with 50 marks divided into four main parts:

- **Vocabulary part:** 15 items 15 marks.
- **Expressions part:** 10 items 10 marks.
- **Structure part:** 15 items 15 marks. Three items were from Past Simple topics, three items from Modals topics, three items from Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses topics, three items from Gerund and Infinitives, and three items from Participial adjectives.
- **Reading comprehension part:** 10 items 10 marks (1 reading passage).

All parts were based on multiple choice format with four options (a,b,c,d). The time limit was around 45 minutes.

3.4.1.3 WE-based lesson plans

(1) Purpose and overview

WE-based lesson plans were used in this study as the last quantitative instrument, and as the intervention to determine its effects on the

participants' foreign language anxiety levels. In short, the experimental group was provided with the incorporation of World Englishes concepts and exposed to varieties of English from multilingual Outer Circle and Expanding Circle countries to help them recognize that English standards and users are not limited to the Inner circle. The incorporation of World Englishes principles into classroom were mainly based on the framework of Matsuda's and Friedrich (2011). To illustrate, the experimental group was exposed to the selected standard varieties of the Inner Circle as a dominant model, while they were also exposed to the other two concentric circles. Various examples of variations in linguistics, grammar, vocabulary, and cultures from different contexts using English in the current world were introduced in class and integrated into the current course content, while the focal grammar points, vocabulary, expressions and reading skills that were tested based on the current course descriptions and objectives remained the core teaching content.

(2) WE-based lesson plans development and features

The steps of the lesson plans development were adapted from Brown (2012), and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) as follows.

1) *Analyzed* and identified the learners' goals and the Foundation English II Course objectives.

2) *Studied* WE/EIL curriculum development and principles for teaching WE/EIL from various scholars (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Brown, 2012; McKay, 2002, 2012; Renandya, 2012; Kubota, 2012; Kachru, 1996, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2007), as well as studied the Intercultural Communication (ICC) concept, which is related to one principle under World Englishes from various scholars (Deardorff, 2006; Byram, 1997; Alptekin, 2002; Brown, 2014; Chao, 2014; Choeichaiyapoom, 2013).

3) *Selected* and employed the WE/EIL framework, mainly from Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) (while others were also combined and adapted as additional), as well as the ICC framework of Deardorff (2006) and Byram (1997) to design and find ways to incorporate the World Englishes concept into classroom lessons and activities. The first principle of World Englishes was the selection of instructional

model, which was standard varieties from the Inner Circle countries as the dominant variety, while also introducing other models from the Outer and Expanding Circles.

After selecting and adopting World Englishes principles to design the lesson plans, the objectives of each principle were studied and designed to appropriately fit the course objectives, course content, and learners' needs.

4) *Considered* how the entire curriculum and lessons could be organized and sequenced. Normally, the Foundation English II Course is organized by topic, structure, lexical, function, and task-based syllabus as the main roles. However, according to Brown (2012), WE/EIL curriculum can be extended to include more subordinate roles of syllabuses such as 'pragmatic', or 'communicative strategies' across the units or tasks. To clarify, any of these above syllabuses can be used singly or in combination or can be layered such that two or three or more syllabuses are going on at the same time with one of them being the primary organizational unit (e.g., situational chapter headings like 'At the airport' with structural and lexical syllabuses in subordinate roles across chapters). In this study, the researcher adopted this framework and designed the organization to be in combination as suggested by Brown (2012) and used 'pragmatic' and 'communicative strategies' as subordinate roles of syllabuses in order to reflect the WE/EIL curriculum principles defined by Matsuda and Friedrich (2011).

5) *Considered* which topics, situations, or structures to incorporate World Englishes notions for each lesson; all selected principles from Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) were taken into consideration and the selection criteria adapted from Brown's (2012, p.156), Matsuda (2003) and McKay (2002) were applied in this study. The criteria for selection were as follows:

- Include models of all three concentric circles of English users so the students recognize that English is not exclusively owned by Inner Circle societies.
- Include examples of competent bilingual users.
- English language competence, other competencies in particular communication strategies, and other knowledge like cultural knowledge in

a broader sense that will help students transfer such knowledge to cross-cultural interactions and enable them to communicate effectively with others, achieve friendly relations and respect speakers from any culture.

- Help students achieve intelligibility when they are among other English speakers.
- Help students develop positive attitudes, confidence and feel better about their English learning.
- Provide students with awareness of linguistic and cultural differences in various contexts in which English is learned and used, and furnish them with critical thinking skills, mindfulness of their own attitudes, respect, and strategies for handling such differences.
- Use global appropriacy and local appropriation to help learners be both global and local speakers of English. Respect the local culture of learning and promote a sense of ownership and confidence in the local varieties of English.
- Include materials and activities based on local and global situations that are applicable to the students' everyday lives or their real world, pertaining to both native speakers to non-native speakers, and non-native speakers to non-native speakers' interactions.

6) *Collected, adopted, adapted, and developed* WE speech samples and materials for teaching, such as audio clips, dialogues, movies, video clips, readings, etc., instead of using the content and speech samples from only the British standard presented in the core textbook used for the Foundation English II Course. Also, prepared other content about the history, politics of the spread of English and what the future entails, EIL users' responsibilities, cultural variations; etc.

7) *Incorporated* these samples of English varieties and the content mentioned above to design lesson plans, classroom activities and assignments and make sure that all eight lesson plans reflected the selected WE principles as well as the intended objectives of each principle and fit the overall course objectives.

8) *Created a checklist* for all eight lesson plans for the researcher to check whether all lessons covered all the selected principles and the objectives and to clearly identify how WE principles and objectives were reflected in each activity in the individual lessons.

Foundation English II Course syllabus

The course name is Foundation English II (course code 01355112). Total credits are three, with the prerequisite of the Foundation English I course (course code 01355111).

Course objectives are to

1) Enable students to apply significant English structures in listening, speaking, reading and writing; 2) Familiarize students with real language communication; 3) Provide essential knowledge of English for higher study; 4) Foster autonomous learning in students.

Course description

Providing appropriate English structures as a foundation for growth in language abilities: listening, speaking, reading, and writing through the integration of language skills, emphasizing communicative competence.

Course Outline

Students studied 16-online units via Speexx, an online language learning program, and engaged in teacher-facilitated classroom activities and tasks derived from those units and from the five main tasksheets distributed in class. It should be noted that there were five main tasksheets (tasksheet here is equivalent to a unit) used in this Foundation English II course, which were similarly applied in all Foundation English II sections. Each tasksheet (unit) featured grammar, vocabulary and expressions as the core content.

In this experiment, the design was based on the course objectives and the core content of all five tasksheets of the Foundation English II course. Therefore, the researcher had to try to incorporate all selected WE principles into the five tasksheets through the design of the eight WE-based lessons. To clarify, WE-based lessons 1-2 were

incorporated into tasksheet #1. WE-based lesson 3 was incorporated into tasksheet #2. WE-based lesson 4 was incorporated into tasksheet #3. WE-based lesson 5 was incorporated into tasksheet #4. WE-based lessons 6-7 were incorporated into tasksheet #5. WE-based lesson 8 was incorporated into tasksheet #1-5. Each WE-based lesson was composed of various topics; for example, WE-based lesson 1 consisted of three main topics: *Awareness-raising of English varieties*; *Uncovering attitudes through the exposure to English varieties*; *Attitudinal adjustment towards English variations*.

The experiment took 10 weeks. In fact, the whole course took 17 weeks, but seven weeks were devoted to university activities; thus, the experiment covered 10 weeks or 15 hours (1.5 hours per week) including two weeks for the pretest and posttest. The students in the experimental group were taught the same core content and took the same midterm and final examinations as the control group. However, WE principles were incorporated into classroom practice with the experimental group, but not with the control group. Table 3.3 below shows the core content of each tasksheet (unit), which featured grammar, vocabulary, and expressions, as well as shows how the four WE principles were embedded into each tasksheet. It should be noted that there were, in fact, five WE principles based on Matsuda and Friedrich (2011). However, in Table 3.3 and 3.4, only four WE principles are shown as these were used for designing the eight WE-based lessons. This is because the first WE principle, which is ‘Selection of Instructional Model’, should be reflected in all lessons where the Inner Circle model is used as the dominant instructional model, and the other two Circles were also introduced in classroom teaching.

Table 3.3***WE Principles Embedded in Each Tasksheet***

Tasksheets (units)	Core Content	WE Principles embedded in each tasksheet	WE-based lessons incorporated into each tasksheet
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Past Simple • Vocabulary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - time, life stages, childhood, temple fair • Expression <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Asking & giving opinions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposure & Awareness of varieties of English • Politics & Ownership of the English language • Three types of cultures 	WE-based lessons 1-2
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Modal verbs • Vocabulary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - museum, airport, manners, rules • Expression <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Making requests - Making reservations - Asking for & giving suggestions - Talking about manners & rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposure & Awareness of varieties of English • Politics & Ownership of the English language • Three types of cultures • Communication strategies 	WE-based lesson 3
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Present Perfect, Past Simple • Vocabulary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - student life • Expression <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expressing frequency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Politics & Ownership of the English language 	WE-based lesson 4
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Gerunds & Infinitives • Vocabulary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - beach, beach activities and environment • Expression <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - N/A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposure & Awareness of varieties of English • Politics & Ownership of the English language • Three types of cultures 	WE-based lesson 5
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammar <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participial adjectives • Vocabulary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - money, the Sufficiency Economy • Expression <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expressing feelings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposure & Awareness of varieties of English • Politics & Ownership of the English language • Three types of cultures • Communication strategies 	WE-based lessons 6-7

Note. WE-based lesson 8 was incorporated into the core content of tasksheet #1-5.

The WE-based lesson plans

All eight lesson plans were incorporated into the five tasksheets (units) and reflected all four principles of World Englishes concepts based on Matsuda and Friedrich (2011). All WE-based lessons were appropriately and practically designed to integrate into the five tasks sheets, and the content and course objectives determined by the Foundation English II course. The activities were adapted from Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), Matsuda and Duran (2012), McKay (2012), Kachru (1996), and created by the researcher.

Table 3.4 below shows more details regarding WE-based lessons 1-8, the different topics under each lesson, examples of WE-based activities under each lesson, and how the four selected WE principles were reflected in each lesson.

Table 3.4***WE Principles Reflected in Each WE-Based Lesson (Cont.)***

WE-based Lessons (1-8)	Topics	WE Principles reflected in each WE-based lesson				Examples of Class Activities
		(1) Exposure to & Awareness of Varieties of English	(2) Politics & Ownership of English	(3) Three types of cultures	(4) Communication Strategies	
<u>Lesson#1:</u> <i>Introduction & Exposure to Varieties of English from the Three Circles</i>	1) Awareness raising of English varieties	✗		✗		1) Listen to a monologue and dialogue presenting English varieties and fill in the blanks. 2) Watch YouTube clips of various English accents focusing on Asian contexts & Critical reflections e.g., - <i>What is the nationality of the speakers in each clip?</i> - <i>Which accent sounds the most intelligent to you?</i> 3) Watch YouTube clips of proficient NNS users (Thai) and critical reflection on e.g., - <i>Do you think being proficient speakers of English requires speaking like NS?</i>
	2) Uncovering attitudes through the exposure to English varieties	✗	✗	✗		
	3) Attitudinal Adjustment towards English variation	✗	✗			
<u>Lesson#2:</u> <i>Further Exposure to Varieties of English</i>	1) Awareness-raising of English variations through analysis of shared and non-shared linguistic features (pronunciation & vocabulary)	✗	✗	✗		1) Watch YouTube clips of people from different linguistic backgrounds talking about features of each English variety. Note down the shared & non-shared features among the varieties. 2) Group presentation on each English variations & Post- critical reflections on questions e.g., - <i>What makes people use different words to refer to the same thing?</i> - <i>Should there be just one international variety?</i> 3) Read the transcript of each English variety features and answer the questions.
	2) Critical reflection on English variations & the rights to the ownership of English	✗	✗	✗		
<u>Lesson#3:</u> <i>Intercultural Awareness</i>	1) Inviting NNS guest speaker	✗	✗	✗	✗	1) Invite NNS guest speakers to class to share their cultures & miscommunication experiences. 2) Make suggestions about Thai culture to the NNS guest speakers with the use of modal verbs.
	2) Reflection on students' own culture	✗	✗	✗	✗	

Table 3.4

WE Principles Reflected in Each WE-Based Lesson (Cont.)

WE-based Lessons (1-8)	Topics	WE Principles reflected in each WE-based lesson				Examples of Class Activities
		(1) Exposure to & Awareness of Varieties of English	(2) Politics & Ownership of English	(3) Three types of cultures	(4) Communication Strategies	
Lesson#4: <i>Understanding Politics & the Rights to Ownership of English</i>	1) Recognizing and critical reflection on the spread of English through the colonial past	×	×			1) Watch YouTube clip, read and respond to WE articles about the spread of English and its implication for EIL users, and about the right to the ownership of English. 2) Group discussion on: “Who do you think currently owns the English language?”
	2) Recognizing and critical reflection on current English users the & ownership of English	×	×			
Lesson#5: <i>Global Culture: English language as an important tool for positive global change</i>	1) Awareness-raising on students’ learning goals beyond English proficiency	×	×	×		1) Watch YouTube clip of international students’ language learning goals. 2) Watch UN-Secretary General Ban Ki-moon talking about global crisis & Critical reflection on the world problems in relation to language learning. 3) Group presentation: International Youth Conference: Topic “Global Crisis & Youth Power”. Focusing on <i>Problems in Thailand/ and students’ contribution to help solve the problem.</i>
	2) Critical reflections on Ban Ki Moon’s talk on Global Crisis	×	×	×		
	3) Youth Power Project	×	×	×		
Lesson#6: <i>Communication strategies: Success in Cross-Cultural Communication</i>	1) Awareness-raising of what causes intercultural communication problem	×		×		1) Watch YouTube video and discuss the possible communication problems based on the clips. 2) Read two conversations presenting communication problems and analyze communication strategies the speakers used. 3) Explicitly teach communication strategies. 4) Practice using communication strategies: ‘Word Guessing activity’
	2) Analyzing various strategies used in miscommunication situations			×	×	
	3) Communication Strategies practice			×	×	

Table 3.4***WE Principles Reflected in Each WE-Based Lesson (Cont.)***

WE-based Lessons (1-8)	Topics	WE Principles reflected in each WE-based lesson				Examples of Class Activities
		(1) Exposure to & Awareness of Varieties of English	(2) Politics & Ownership of English	(3) Three types of cultures	(4) Communication Strategies	
Lesson#7: <i>Critical Examination on the fallacies about learning English</i>	1) Understanding and being critical towards six fallacies about learning English		×	×		1) Group presentation & discussion on the six fallacies about learning of English. 2) Examine real discourses from website/ brochure of various language institutions around the world. List the claims that are made regarding the benefits of acquiring English. 3) Create a poster: ' <i>An Ideal language school</i> '. Students (in groups) have to create advertisements for their own language school.
	2) Examination of the discourse surrounding English language learning		×			
	3) Seek students' own voice in English		×	×		
Lesson#8: <i>i-VDO Project: WE concept to real world</i>	1) NNS interaction in an i-VDO Project on the topic: <i>Amazing Thailand</i>	×	×	×	×	1) i-VDO project on the topic ' <i>Amazing Thailand</i> ' In group, students have to create a VDO involving a real interaction with NNS Also, each group was assigned one Thai cultural topic to design to be included in the iVDO.

*Note. 'Selection of Instructional Models' is, in fact, another main principle of World Englishes in classroom practice based on Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) framework. However, this table does not include this principle since it was assumed to be reflected in all WE-based lessons where the Inner Circle English (British and North American) is selected as the dominant instructional model; meanwhile, Englishes from Outer Circle and Expanding Circle were also introduced as other legitimate models in classroom teaching

3.4.2 Instruments: ‘Qualitative’

There were two main qualitative instruments used in this study: focus group interview and the head notes. The use of each instrument will be described as follows.

3.4.2.1 Focus group interview

(1) Purpose

Qualitative inquiry focuses on describing and understanding human experience, so the primary objective is to locate people who are able to enlighten and deepen understanding of any subject so we can make the most out of a learning opportunity. Focus group interviews are a qualitative inquiry that have been widely used in applied linguistics and a mixed-methods approaches to triangulate with more traditional forms like questionnaires. The focus group interview is useful for orientation to a particular focus or field, or creating and analyzing data from different sub-groups of a population (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). This type of interview seeks to capture information from a group that is working together to respond to questions presented. The instrument can yield high-quality data since it can create a setting with synergy contributing to a meaningful and enlightening discussion (Nunan & Bailey, 2009; Chuto, 2008; Posita, 2005). Reliance is placed on discussions generated by the participants who are responding to questions provided by the researcher, where interaction is primarily between the participants rather than the interviewer. It is hoped that the personal opinions of the participants more easily get exchanged during these interactions. In applied linguistics research it has been widely used in a mixed-methods research, particularly for programme evaluation to assess the effectiveness of a particular course to understand what was working or not working and why (Dornyei, 2007).

Therefore, in this study, the focus group interview was employed as an additional data source and for the purpose of data triangulation to ensure the validity of the findings from the main quantitative data source (students’ FLCA level and English achievement scores), which was not sufficient to make a valid claim that the reduced anxiety was actually due to WE notions. The focus group interview helped reveal the anxiety participants experienced, which is hard to determine by only class observation since anxiety is something inside people’s minds.

Also, this type of interview was chosen as it aligned with the principles of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) in terms of its usefulness for orientation to a particular field like World Englishes in relation to language anxiety.

In addition, the focus group interviews helped the researcher gain more insight into the participants' views; for example, for the question on why the most influential factor making the participants feel anxious was an unrealistic learning goal or low self-esteem, the focus group interview enabled the researcher to understand more about why the participants thought so. Also, the researcher gained a better understanding in what ways the World Englishes in classroom activities seemed to work or not work in relation to anxiety reduction, as well as how the participants in the experimental group experienced the class with World Englishes notions in particular relating to their anxieties.

(2) Interview guideline questions development and features

In order to conduct the semi-structured focus group interviews, the interview guideline questions were developed based on the principles suggested by Dornyei (2007) and Nunan and Bailey (2009). The steps are described as follows.

1) *Studied* the principles and theory of the use of the focus group interview and decided to employ the *semi-structured interview*, which means the researcher developed a set of guideline questions as a point of departure, and followed up interesting developments while letting the participants elaborate on certain issues during the interview.

2) *Developed* 10 guideline questions mainly based on the concepts in the FLCA questionnaire by Aida (1994), Horwitz et al. (1986), Tintabut (1998) and the language anxiety studies by Gkonou (2013), Punsiri (2011) and Young (1999), as well as World Englishes concepts by Matsuda and Friedrich (2011). For the question types and wording issues, the researcher made sure to avoid leading questions, ambiguous words and jargon, and that one simple question contained only one idea at a time to avoid any confusion as suggested by Dornyei (2003, 2007).

3) *Initial validated* by the advisor and then used the feedback to modify the questions.

4) *Validated by three experts* holding doctoral degrees who had more than seven years of foreign language teaching experience through the IOC process. The objectives of the interview were provided to the experts. Normally, based on Dornyei (2007), no more than five to ten guideline questions accompanied by a few closed-ended questions are recommended. The following table is the summary of the three experts' comments and the revisions according to the experts' comments.

Table 3.5

Summary of Three Experts' Suggestions and Revision by Researcher

The followings are the summary of the experts' comments.	The researcher adjusted the questions guideline according to the experts' comments.
1. Some questions were too broad and the researcher might not get the expected response. For example, "Describe your feelings about learning English in this course". The respondents might answer the feelings in general such as only 'good' or 'fine'.	1. The question "Describe your feelings about learning English in this course" was changed to be more specific by giving out the scope of feelings to the respondents to be "Describe your feelings about learning English in this course; for example, enjoyed, relaxed, tense, or terrifying".
2. Some questions were unclear and ambiguous, so the respondents might not think of the same thing when they answer. For example, "To what extent do you think you experience anxiety in English class?". The respondents may not know whether the researcher meant before or after learning this course.	2. The question "To what extent do you think you experience anxiety in English class?" was changed to be more concise by adding the specific time to be "Compare the differences of the degree you think you experience anxiety before and after learning English in this course".
3. Some statements were directly translated from English to Thai language, so the respondents may not fully understand the meaning or might misunderstand. For example, "...ฟอร์มของภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้จริงและมีอยู่ในโลกนี้" ("English varieties that are being used around the world and exist in the world").	3. The statement "...ฟอร์มของภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้จริงและมีอยู่ในโลกนี้" should be replaced by more appropriate word as "ลักษณะของภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้จริงในส่วนต่างๆของโลก".

5) According to the revision, the interview guideline questions included nine questions and that were then *piloted* with nine students whose backgrounds were similar to the target samples (high anxiety based on the scores from the FLCA questionnaire). The piloting step was used to assure the validity of the results. According to Dornyei (2007), "a successful interview guideline needs to be planned carefully, followed by pilots and trials to determine if the questions generate sufficient data while not dominating the conversation" (p.137).

6) After piloting the interview guideline questions, the researcher adjusted the questions that tended to cause confusion during the piloting or

not elicit sufficient data, in order to make them better elicit the participants' views on the effects of WE-based lessons in relation to the FLCA.

(3) Features of the focus group interview and guideline questions

This study employed semi-structured interviews with a focus group with nine developed guideline questions as additional data to reinforce the main discoveries from the FLCA questionnaire. The participants described their feelings about their language learning during the course, how they experienced the notion of NS model and standard English differently, as well as how such experience affected their foreign language anxiety. The interview was conducted with ten participants from the experimental groups (containing participants whose FLCA scores were high in the pretest and dramatically reduced in the posttest). Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, (2011) suggested the appropriate number of participants should be around 4-12 participants, within about 1/2-2 hours in a quiet room at the university where the participants studied, making sure that the place was free from any disturbances (Posita, 2005). This type of interview had both strengths and weaknesses. It might be an unnatural setting as it concentrated on a narrow issue. However, it could provide information that might not have been discovered in a standard individual interview. Also, it helped to save time, while still providing a large amount of data (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011).

Moreover, this study was based on semi-structured interviews, which required the researcher to develop guideline questions as a framework to ask the participants. Semi-structured interviews are appropriate for researchers who don't have much experience in conducting interviews; therefore, the guideline questions helped the researcher have some key questions in hand, and questions could be added or adjusted depending on the situation during the interview to gain the necessary data. The interview audiotapes were partially transcribed in the Thai language.

3.4.2.2 Head notes (Field notes)

(1) Purpose

The use of *head notes* or field notes is for data triangulation with the results gained from the quantitative data or students' FLCA levels and English achievement scores. According to Chantavanich (2005), field notes are used

for prevention of memory loss from the observation, assistance in creating a temporary hypothesis for further data analysis, and in progressively summarizing data along the way of the study. Field notes are the records of data mainly from the researcher's observation, which are considered as important instrument for data collection in terms of supporting the quality control of research. In particular, field notes are needed when observing behaviors of a group of people since relying only on the researcher's memory may not be enough (Chantavanich, 2005). However, thanks to the practicality issue in that the researcher might not be able to use field notes during class teaching, the term '*head notes*' was used in this study. As defined by Lankshear and Knobel (2004), this is a similar concept to 'field notes', but in particular it means the mental notes the researcher makes while observing an event when writing notes might not be practical. Head notes are made in the researcher's mind until they can be written down in detail (as *post facto notes*). It is thus impossible to recall all the observed details stored in memory. Writing head notes down at the earliest opportunity is crucial for producing observation records to prevent the drawbacks of subsequent observations that may interfere with memories of early observations and the fact that details can quickly get forgotten. Therefore, in this study during class time, the researcher observed specific events or actions taking place in the classroom and then made notes after class as early as possible on what seemed to be significant or supportive to the study. Also, audio recording during each lesson was employed to prevent the memory loss.

'*Vignettes*' were also used, in particular, to include in the head notes in order to indicate specific useful scenes as supportive examples of situations representing the events or a certain activities or discussions (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

In this study, the only events selected were those deemed essential for data analysis and directly related to the study. In addition, only those participants who could provide useful data related to the research questions were selected to include in the head notes as additional data to supplement the main findings from the FLCA questionnaire and the English achievement test.

(2) The use of head notes principles

The researcher studied the use of *head notes* or field note as a qualitative data collection instrument from books, articles, and other related documents and mainly adapted the framework of Lankshear and Knobel (2004) and some overlapping concepts from Schensul, Schensul, and Le Compte (1999) and Posita (2005). Lankshear and Knobel (2004) suggested there are no hard and fast rules for laying out field notes or head notes. However, Lankshear and Knobel (2004) suggested a useful way to organize field notes/head notes which is to divide the page into two distinct columns or sections that structure data collection (researcher's observation), e.g., column in which to record the time, location, resources used, teacher/students activities or descriptions of what is happening and also direct quotations of what is said wherever possible; and the other column is 'analytical notes' (field notes/head notes recoding) which refers to personal comments/reflections during reflective moments, and not in the heat of the observation moment (Schensul et al., 1999). Posita (2005) also suggested some overlapping aspects that researchers could combine in the field notes/head notes including 1) *setting* - details of the setting; 2) *activities* - who is doing what, or saying what to whom, and when, or what kind of relationship do the participants or subjects have, or what language is used to express different feeling and attitudes; 3) *context* - backgrounds related to participants' histories, settings, culture, and society help the researcher better understand the meaning behind the event. The language used in the head notes in this study was based on Lankshear and Knobel's suggestion (2004) to be non-judgmental and focus on describing behaviors rather than ascribing meaning or motivations to it. Any interpretations of states of being should be done in a cautious manner. The emphasis was on recording the evidence to make sure that it was sufficient to back up claims during data analysis.

It should be noted here that the head notes were used in this study as an additional data source to support the validity of the findings, rather than being used as the main instrument. Therefore, the researcher made notes based on only certain aspects or situations considered to be relevant, interesting, and essential to supplement the answers to the research questions.

The researcher also combined and adapted the ideas of what could be observed and put in the headnotes related to possible anxiety behaviors based on previous studies including Gregersen and Horwitz (2002), Horwitz et al. (1986), Liu and Jackson (2008), Chan and Wu (2004), Beltran (2013), McCroskey and Sheahan (1978) as cited in Matthew and Scott (2006), and non-verbal cues by Gregersen (2005). For example, these included extent of participation, involvement in task, or eager volunteering by looking at when and how often the participants respond to the teacher (Liu & Jackson, 2008); willingness to ask when uncertain (or instead asking their classmates), high communication apprehensive behaviors such as avoidance behavior, e.g., talking less in class or to their fellow students, or to the teacher (McCroskey & Sheahan, 1978 as cited in Matthew & Scott, 2006; Beltran, 2013); remaining silent and forgetting vocabulary and grammar rules that they have already learned, trembling when called upon (Horwitz et al., 1986); and non-verbal cues as clues for detection of foreign language anxiety, such as an impassive facial expression combined with a jiggling foot, less smiling, a closed body position, less eye contact with the teacher, etc., as showing foreign language anxiety (Gregarson (2005). Moreover, for the experimental group, the researcher also, in particular, observed teacher's teaching activities (Chan & Wu, 2004) based on different WE principles (i.e., awareness of English varieties, politics and ownership of English, broader cultural knowledge, communication strategies) in relation to the participants' foreign language anxiety such as willingness to participate or engagement behaviors.

To sum up, the headnotes in this study consisted of three aspects as a guideline to help the researcher when taking head notes. These aspects included: a) extent of participation- eager volunteering and answering the questions, active involvement in task, willingness to ask teacher when uncertain instead of asking the classmates; b) Communication apprehension (CA) behaviors - talking more in class to both the teacher and classmates on the topic being discussed (not some other things), being active more than silent, remembering grammar rules and vocabulary, rarely trembling when being asked questions; c) Non-verbal cues - smiling, laughing, showing eye contact, not leaning backward and sitting in the front or moving their seats to the front row. All these aspects were observed in relation to the eight different WE-based lessons, which were used as the intervention.

(3) The use of ‘vignettes’ in the head notes

The researcher also used *vignettes*, which were written or voice-recorded events that helped spark discussion about particular or sensitive situations (Simon & Tierney, 2011). Huberman and Miles (1994) note that a vignette refers to “a narrow portrayal of a series of events meant to be representative, typical, or emblematic of a case. It has a narrative scene, story-like structure that maintains a chronological sequence that is usually limited to a short period of time, to one or a few primary actors, to a bounded place, or to all three” (p.81). Vignettes are typically produced by the researcher, resulting in a good database of processed field notes.

Erickson (1986) as cited in Angelides and Gibbs (2006) also describes vignettes as an analytical concept with field notes taken during the event, which are expanded upon in greater detail soon afterwards. In other words, it is a more elaborate piece of literature or a more polished version of the account than found in field notes. Some details in a vignette are expanded upon, while other details are left out. Some aspects are heightened and other aspects are softened, or left as part of the background. This is because a vignette does not represent the original event itself as it is impossible. Even a vignette with extensive detail is a *reduced account*. Therefore, a vignette is rather an abstraction, or analytic concept that highlights the author’s interpretive perspective. Erickson (1986) as cited in Huberman and Miles (1994) also acknowledges that a vignette can be a relevant corrective when hard data lacks meaning and fails to show context. Scholars in the sociological field also use vignettes to discover group beliefs or values, and psychologists use them to predict behavior (Jenkins, Fischer, Berney, & Neale, 2010). In education, works by Jeffries and Maeder (2005), and Pryor and Lubisi (2002) have used vignettes primarily to evaluate students’ achievement (all as cited in Simon & Tierney, 2011). In this study, the researcher then decided to use vignettes only when interesting, special, or relevant situations occurred as an additional data source to supplement the findings from the main quantitative data (students’ FLCA scores), which yielded superficial causal-effect descriptions but lacked in-depth meaning to explain how the effect had been caused or occurred. With vignettes, the findings of the study were observed from more well-rounded angles with more context richness make the study more sound.

3.5 Procedures

Data collection occurred during the first semester in academic year 2015 from 17 August to 11 December. The course covered 17 weeks, 1.5 hours of each class time and altogether 42 teaching hours. However, the experiment covered 10 weeks including the pretest and posttest as mentioned earlier, and the period of the incorporation of World Englishes notions into classroom practice was for eight lessons. Both groups of the participants were taught in Foundation English II course as their compulsory course determined by their O-NET scores. The procedures of data collection are described as follows according to the timeline sequence that each instrument was employed in this study over the 17 weeks with 10 actual weeks of the experiment, by dividing into three phases; before the experiment; during the experiment; after the experiment.

3.5.1 Before the experiment

3.5.1.1 FLCA questionnaire

In the second week of the course, the FLCA questionnaire was given to examine the participants' anxiety before the experiment. The 39-item FLCA questionnaire took around 15 minutes. Before its use, the participants in both groups were told of the purpose of the study, assured of confidentiality, and informed of their right to withdraw without repercussions. After their written consent was obtained, the FLCA questionnaires were administered.

After that, the instructions for FLCA questionnaire completion were clearly explained by the teacher (researcher) step-by-step to avoid any confusion. The participants were assured that all information would be kept confidential and that their names would be changed to pseudonyms in case of any report of the study later on. Moreover, the participants were informed again that no credit would be given for this participation in order to ensure honest answers. The participants were told that there was no time limit for completion. After the participants finished the questionnaires, the researcher checked the scores and grouped the names of the students who showed high FLCA and those with low FLCA for subsequent comparison with posttest and participant selection for the focus group interviews.

3.5.1.2 English achievement test

In the second week of the course, the English achievement test was administered to measure the achievement in language learning as a pre-test, following the completion of the FLCA questionnaires. Similar to FLCA, the purpose of the pre-test and the test instructions were clearly explained by the teacher (researcher) to avoid any confusion, and it was emphasized that all the information would be kept confidential as well as their names would be changed to pseudonyms in case of any report of the study. The participants were informed that no credit would be given for this participation and that they would have about 45 minutes for the test completion. After the participants finished the test, the researcher collected all tests to mark after the class finished and the scores were kept to compare with the post-test scores.

3.5.2 During the experiment

3.5.2.1 WE-based lesson plans

In the second week, there was the introduction and orientation to the lessons so the participants were prepared for the course with World Englishes incorporation and objectives. On the third week until week 14, eight WE-based lesson plans were integrated into the current lessons and the tentative teaching schedule determined by the Foreign Language Department of this university and were used as the intervention in the experiment to examine its effects on reducing participants' FLCA. Two groups were taught with the same core grammar points, expressions and vocabulary, which were used to test in the midterm and final examinations.

3.5.2.2 Head notes (including vignette)

From the third week to week 17 or last week of the course, head notes were used after the lessons as an additional data source to help confirm that the levels of participants' anxiety were really associated with WE-based lessons.

Therefore, to prevent memory loss, data obtained from the head notes were recorded by voice recorder during class time. Then, right after class the researcher wrote down head notes focusing on particular aspects of experience that interested the researcher, including how each group responded differently to the exposure and lack of exposure to WE-based lessons, specifically in relation to foreign language anxiety; their high or low class engagement and participation, which might

be noticed through some avoidance behaviors or eagerness to volunteer in class; and non-verbal cues as mentioned earlier. The head notes were written without worrying about grammar, style, and organization yet with the researcher attempting to maintain a flow as much as possible to prevent any memory loss from paying too much attention to those issues. Also, some important, supportive scenes or events (vignettes) were put in the head notes as it was impossible to record everything happening in one class in order to help support the impact of the exposure to WE-based lessons of the experimental group (or being anxiety-free, i.e., enjoying). Then, the results from vignettes were literal translated with appropriate modification so that the students' responses were equivalent to English version. Moreover, each time something was included in the head notes, the researcher asked herself questions or was reflective at all times like "*Why did I write that?, or What evidence did I have for the claim or assumption I may have just made?*". In addition, the researcher also tried to support her interpretations and insights with clear and relevant examples from the classroom, which could be 'interactions' in the target situation, or 'actual language' data as suggested by Nunan and Bailey (2009) when using field notes.

Furthermore, the head notes were regularly analyzed after each lesson was completed, with the researcher looking for recurring themes and patterns, by initially skimming through the notes to obtain a general idea of the data in the initial coding process. Also, the researcher discarded any irrelevant parts, which refers to *content analysis*, the main method of qualitative data analysis during the data collection. The details are described in data analysis part later in this chapter. Head notes took around 30 minutes to one hour after class for the researcher to put together what seemed to be interesting and important, along with the initial analysis process. The researcher also made copies or backup files of every head note to avoid data loss.

3.5.3 After the experiment

3.5.3.1 FLCA questionnaire

After the experiment on week 17, the last day of the course, FLCA questionnaires were administered again to examine the foreign language classroom anxiety of both groups in order to compare the results with the scores from the second week and find out significant differences between the two sets of scores among the comparison groups. The FLCA questionnaires were administered to the

participants to make sure that students in the experimental group were familiar with and had engaged long enough with World Englishes concepts in classroom practice.

To clarify, the participants were asked to complete the FLCA questionnaire again (the same one as the pre-test), which took around 15 minutes. The purpose and instructions for the questionnaire completion were clearly explained once again by the teacher (researcher) step-by-step, confidentiality was emphasized and it was promised that there would not be any repercussions with regard to the course to ensure honest responses. After that, the researcher checked the scores before further analyzing with the statistical tool in the data analysis procedures.

3.5.3.2 English achievement test

The same achievement test was given as a post-test to measure the participants' achievement in English language learning after the exposure to WE-based lessons, and to determine if there were any substantial differences in the post-test scores between the two groups.

The achievement test was given on the last day of the course right after the participants completed the FLCA questionnaires. The instructions for the test completion were clearly explained again by the teacher (researcher). The participants were assured that all information would be kept confidential and that their names would be changed to pseudonyms in case of any report of the study later on. The participants were also told the objective of the test and that no credit would be given for participation, but rather that the aim was to see how much they had improved in the course, and that they would have 45 minutes to complete the test. After the participants finished the test, all tests were immediately collected and marked after the class finished since the researcher needed the post-test scores to select participants to join the focus group interviews within one week after the course completed to be sure that the participants still remembered their feelings and learning experience in class. After that the researcher marked and checked the scores before further analyzing with the statistical tool in the data analysis process later.

3.5.3.3 Focus group interviews

Within one week after the last day of the course, the focus group interviews were done with the experimental group to gain supporting data on participants' views and their feelings about learning English. Such interviews were

used as self-reports to confirm that the findings were caused by WE-based lessons, not other confounding variables. The focus group interviews took place within one week after the last day of the course to ensure the validity of the findings since the selected participants presumably could still remember their own learning experiences and feelings. The principles used for the focus group interview were adapted from Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011), Dornyei's (2007), and Posita (2005). To begin with, prior to the interview, the participants were informed that an audio recording would be used during the interview, and consent forms were given to all ten participants from the experimental group for an ethical safeguard.

(1) Sample size

According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011), the recommended size ranged between 4-12 participants. Thus, the size selected for the study was ten participants. This is because too few would limit the potential of the 'collective wisdom', while a group that was too large would make it challenging for everyone to participate. To clarify, the researcher selected ten participants from the experimental group. All of them possessed high FLCA in the pretest and their FLCA scores observably reduced in the posttest, while their English achievement posttest scores also increased from the pretest.

(2) Sampling strategies

Since qualitative inquiry aims to describe and understand human experience and the main goal is to question people who are able to give enlightening information about the topic being investigated in order to learn the most, this objective is best achieved through some type of 'purposive sampling' (Dornyei, 2007). This study used '*purposive sampling*' for participant selection to the focus group interview, in particular 'homogeneous sampling' (one of the purposive strategies) as a composition of group interview. 'Homogeneous sampling' refers to the way that the participants from a particular subgroup who share some important experience related to the researcher's study. In this study, ten participants were selected based on their experience of high levels of anxiety in the pretest and low levels of anxiety in the posttest. Also, their English achievement posttest scores apparently increased from the pretest. The participants were a subgroup of the first-year, non-English major students at a lower intermediate level based on the O-NET

scores. Dornyei (2007) suggested that this sampling strategy is useful in providing an in-depth analysis to identify common patterns in a group with similar characteristics. Consequently, this study used a purposive sampling technique (homogeneous sampling) in line with Dornyei (2007), as it allowed the researcher to gain some common values or patterns from the participants who shared similar characteristics (level of anxiety) as well as to explore what feelings or opinions they shared when experiencing the class with World Englishes notions.

Moreover, even though the main tool for participant selection to join the focus group interviews was the use of FLCA questionnaire scores to select the participants whose FLCA level were high in the pretest and dramatically reduced in the posttest, the researcher also used head notes as additional tool to check in case some participants revealed inconsistent findings. This was done to make sure that the study could get a truly homogeneous case sample as intended by the researcher.

(3) Sampling criteria

Since the researcher was aware of the diversity among the sample, which could affect the validity of the results from the interview in terms of the 'selection bias' - the chance of unequal contaminating participants within group or between groups that make the selected participants not a good representative of the population (Nunan & Bailey, 2009), the criteria for the sample's selection were set to make sure that it was varied as possible. The selection criteria used in this study were as follows.

- 1) Level of FLCA (reduced from high to low level) and level of English achievement scores (increased from the pretest)
- 2) Gender (male/ female)
- 3) Fields of study (Arts/ Science).

Each was used on a *voluntary* basis. All ten participants were selected from those whose FLCA levels were apparently reduced from high to low, and whose English achievement scores had also increased. Among these ten participants, five females and five males were selected. Three females were from science field of study, while the other two females were from the arts field. Also, two males were from science field, while the other three males were from the arts field.

(4) Steps to conduct the focus group interview

The steps can be divided into four main phases: recording, starting, conducting, and ending the interview based on Dornyei (2007) principles, which are described as follows.

1) Recording:

The researcher first made a spare of the audio recording in case any problems occurred, and made copies of the original recordings in case of any data loss.

2) Starting the interview:

The researcher behaved in a friendly and non-threatening way, and then explained the purpose of the interviews. Understanding the purpose of questions is believed to increase the motivation of the interviewees to respond openly and in detail (Dornyei, 2007). Next, the participants were informed what would happen with the data, outline, and set the parameters of the interview in terms of length, which was about one hour. The researchers also emphasized that the data would not affect the grades or have any repercussions with regard to the course to make sure that the participants gave honest answers. Moreover, the participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity. The researcher made sure that the interview started off with easy personal or factual questions to create an ice-breaking period and build rapport to encourage the participants to open up. Also, the researcher emphasized that the discussion would center on personal viewpoints and experiences, and that there were no right or wrong answers. The consent forms were administered before the actual interview to address ethical issues.

3) Conducting the interviews:

This step proceeded with the use of interview guideline questions. During the actual discussion, the researcher controlled the flow and kept the group focused, while making sure that all participants had an equal chance to share their feelings and opinions. There were four key principles used at this step.

- Straightforward and clear questions to avoid getting the participants confused.
- Natural flow to make sure that the participants dictated the pace without being rushed.

- Seeking particular details and encouraging elaboration: sometimes the researcher needed to interrupt the natural flow and focus on specific details, letting the participants elaborate on some key word content by using some clarification questions. Also, the researcher used probes in an attempt to improve the quality and relevance of the responses. The participants were asked the same questions, but in a different order.
- Balancing between non-judgmental neutrality and empathic understanding and approval.

4) Ending the interviews:

The researcher ended the interviews by using pre-closing moves including summarizing or recapping the main points of the discussion in order to allow the respondents to correct anything the researcher may have misunderstood or allow them to add more information. Then, the researcher asked if there were any concerns that required further discussion, before including a short winding down phase as well as some positive feedback to make sure that all participants left the discussion without being dissatisfied with themselves. Finally, the researcher expressed gratitude and respect, asking if anyone would be interested in knowing the results of the research study. Telephone numbers and emails were then exchanged to keep in touch in the future and to submit the findings to those who were interested, or in case of any unclear data that the researcher might need more elaboration.

After the interviews, the researcher made copies of the recordings to prevent any data loss. Then, the audio scripts were analyzed using ‘content analysis’ as the main qualitative data analysis method, which will be described next. The researcher also revised the raw accounts for a public report, such as changing participants’ names to pseudonyms and spelling out abbreviations.

3.6 Data Analysis Methods

3.6.1 Quantitative data

The researcher analyzed data (scores) collected from the FLCA questionnaire and English achievement test using the Statistical Package for the

Social Sciences (SPSS) to compute descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, and inferential statistics like *T*-Test. The analysis process will be discussed based on each instrument as follows.

3.6.1.1 Scores from the FCLA questionnaire were calculated for means (\bar{x}), and standard deviations (SD), which are all descriptive statistics.

The interpretations of scores

Since the study used a 5-point Likert scale, the interpretations of means were based on the following criteria, adopted from Tintabut (1998).

4.50-5.00 = Very high anxiety in English language classroom learning

3.50-4.49 = High anxiety in English language classroom learning

2.50-3.49 = Moderate anxiety

1.50-2.49 = Low anxiety in English language classroom learning

1.00-1.49 = Very low anxiety in English language classroom learning

Scores from the FLCA questionnaires were calculated to present means (\bar{x}) and standard deviations (SD), which are descriptive statistics and were used for further analysis of inferential statistics. For inferential statistical analysis, *T*-test was used. To be more specific, an Independent Sample *T*-test (2-tailed) was used to find out the extent of the differences between the pretest scores and the control and experimental groups to make sure that the two groups were similar or had no substantial differences prior to the treatment. Also, Independent Sample *T*-test was used to find out the significant group differences of the posttest scores between the control and experimental groups or to see if there was a posttest difference after the treatment among the two groups. In addition, a Dependent Sample *T*-test (2-tailed) was used to determine if there were significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores within the experimental group and the control group to confirm the effectiveness of the WE-based lessons in terms of reducing the FLCA of the students.

3.6.1.2 Scores from the English achievement test were calculated to present means (\bar{x}) and standard deviations (SD), which are descriptive statistics and were used for further analysis of inferential statistics. For inferential statistical analysis, an Independent Sample *T*-test (2-tailed) was used to find out the significant group differences of the pretest scores between the control and experimental groups to make sure that the two groups were similar or had no significant difference in pretest

scores. Also, Independent Sample *T*-test was used to find out the significant group differences of the posttest scores between the control and experimental groups or to see if there was a posttest difference after the treatment as a result of the reduction of FLCA. In addition, a Dependent Sample *T*-test (2-tailed) was used to determine if there were significant differences between the pretest and posttest English achievement scores within the experimental group and the control group to confirm that the reduction of FLCA resulting from the treatment actually helped increase the students' English achievement.

3.6.2 Qualitative data

The secondary instruments of collecting and investigating the participants' experiences with reference to the factors associated with the World Englishes lessons in reducing their anxiety were based on the researcher's head notes and the partial transcripts from the focus group interviews. The main method used to analyze these qualitative data was '*qualitative content analysis*' (QCA). In short, QCA establishes a means of reducing, simplifying, and interpreting data through systematic qualitative coding techniques (Gkonou, 2013). According to Schreier (2012), Bryman and Burgess (1994), there are many qualitative methods for analyzing data and interpreting its meaning, and QCA is one of them. Berg (2007) as cited in Gkonou (2013) defined QCA as "a careful, detailed, systematic examination and interpretation of a particular body of material in an effort to identify patterns, themes, and meanings" (p.303-304).

QCA also uses a 'coding process' while analyzing data but with a different concept of 'coding' by means of grounded theory strategy. QCA is more like a summary of data, rather than generating new themes as in the case of grounded theory strategy. To clarify, Schreier (2012) noted there are different ways of coding between 'coding to reduce data' and 'coding as conceptual device'. Reductive coding essentially reduces large amounts of data to a few general terms and the focus is on grouping together data addressing the same theme, which can be very useful as a first step summarizing what is there in the data, while there is less of a focus on looking at the data in new ways or creating theory. QCA is rather based on the '*reductive coding*'; according to Schreier (2012), this characteristic distinguishes it from other methods of qualitative data analysis that are concerned with opening up the data,

discovering new aspects of data, and bringing it together in novel ways to help generate theories about the existing data - known as coding for 'conceptual device', commonly used for grounded theory strategy. The broad goal of QCA needs to be qualified in terms of helping us describe the data only in certain aspects, which we may pre-specify based on some coding frames in the researcher's mind. In other words, QCA does not allow us to describe the full meaning of data in each and every aspect (Schreier, 2012).

Therefore, in this study, QCA was chosen by the researcher as it was more a suitable method for analyzing the secondary data source. Moreover, the researcher did not aim to generate new themes or theories, but rather to test the hypothesis and summarize the data gained to supplement and validate the results from the quantitative inquiry.

Steps for Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA)

In this study, for the steps in doing QCA, the researcher drew on the framework of Schreier (2012) and Gkonou (2013) as follows.

1) *Identified units of analysis*: when using QCA strategy to assess written documents, the researcher first decided what units of analysis would be counted (Berg, 1998). 'Units of analysis', according to Schreier (2012) refer to the units chosen for QCA, with each unit yielding one text. According to Chuto (2008), unit of analysis must be decided upon before analyzing the data, which can be a word, sentence, line, paragraph, main theme of the content, characteristics or behaviors of the characters. In this study, the unit of analysis was more the main theme of the content as the researcher did not aim to generate the new theory, but rather used data to supplement the findings from FLCA scores.

2) In *the initial coding process*, the researcher skimmed through all entries from the head notes and transcripts to gain a general idea of the data.

3) After going through all the data, the researcher examined the parts related to the research questions and deleted any irrelevant parts or selected partial transcript to code.

4) The researcher examined the concepts in the selected parts that related to the study's focus. The researcher highlighted the words or phrases or sentences that

captured the concepts or categories that were predetermined as a coding frame. The selection and coding of the relevant texts about anxiety were based on theory and principles related to Young's (1999), while coding texts about WE notions was based on principles related to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011).

5) The researcher created a label or assigned names (codes) to mark as a first subcategory (e.g., *positive attitude towards students' own and other NNS varieties, witness successful NNS model*). Then, the researcher continued going through the data until coming across a relevant passage, with another subcategory then being labeled. After obtaining a first subcategory, the researcher checked whether or not the new passage fit into the subcategories the researcher had in mind. If it fit, the researcher then subsumed that passage or data into the existing subcategory. However, if the data suggested or pointed out a new concept, the researcher then had to create a new subcategory.

6) In *second-level coding*, the researcher grouped similar labels (codes) together, and then assigned a subcategory to be specifically under the main categories of the coding frame. This was done in order to produce a hierarchical sequence of all labels within the coding frame (four main categories based on four WE principles e.g., *Exposure and Awareness to Varieties of English* contained subcategories, e.g., *positive attitude towards students' own and other NNS varieties, witness successful NNS model*). Then, the researcher repeated all the previous steps to make sure sufficient supplementary data was obtained or until the next parts of the data no longer brought up new concepts.

7) The researcher tried out the coding frame though double-coding. This means, the researcher coded and then recoded the data after an interval of about 10-14 days, followed by discussion of units that were coded differently. Then, the coding frame was validated by two experts holding doctoral degrees with more than seven years of experience in English language teaching.

8) Evaluated, expanded, and adjusted coding frame based on the experts' comments.

9) Examined the frequency of themes that were going on under the coding frame.

10) Interpreted and presented the findings.

To be noted here, normally QCA procedures are *flexible*, which means that the coding frame (or main category and subcategory) can be created either in a concept-driven way or a data-driven way; however, overall concept-driven categories (pre-determine coding frame) are much more common when the researcher needs qualitative data to supplement the primary quantitative data source.

Conclusion

Past studies suggested that the World Englishes concepts and classroom implications were beneficial in helping learners form realistic learning goals that go beyond the NS model as well as can better serve learners' real communication needs under the changing profile of English. Also, a few past psychological researches also suggested one key successful method to reduce language anxiety or tension among learners could be helping them develop the realistic learning goals, putting aside the native speaker model (Boriboon, 2011; Tanveer, 2007; Young, 1999). This study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the incorporation of WE in EFL classroom practice in reducing FLCA among Thai tertiary students, as well as explore if the reduction of FLCA could increase language learning achievement.

In summary, there were 92 participants in this study; 47 from the control group and 45 from the experimental group. Pretest and posttest were given to determine levels of FLCA and English achievement as a quantitative inquiry prior to the experiment, and over the 17 weeks of data collection. The researcher's head notes and focus group interviews were used as additional data to support the findings that were actually due to the treatment of WE-based lessons, not other confounding variables. The results are presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) is considered a complex issue in relation to language learning. A mixed-method research design with the use of both quantitative and qualitative inquiry through multiple data sources was thus needed to more comprehensively address the two research questions of this study: (1) Does the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice help reduce FLCA among Thai tertiary students?; (2) Does the reduction of anxiety from the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice help increase the students' English language achievement? There were 47 and 45 participants from the control and experimental groups, respectively, who were first-year students from various faculties including Economics, Humanities, Fisheries, Forestry, Agriculture, Agro-Industry, and Social Science at a government university in Bangkok. In this study, quantitative data were obtained through the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety questionnaire and English achievement test and analyzed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS); meanwhile, qualitative data were obtained as an additional data source through head notes (including vignettes) and focus group interviews with ten volunteering participants from the experimental group and analyzed by the content analysis technique.

To answer research question 1, the results from the FLCA questionnaire as the main tool will be firstly presented, followed by the results from the focus group interviews and the head notes, which will be presented as supplementary data for understanding the data gained from the main FLCA questionnaire, followed by the discussions based on the three instruments. To answer research question 2, the main results from the pretest and posttest of English achievement test will be presented and discussed in relation to students' FLCA level.

Part I: Results

Research Question 1: *Does the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice help reduce FLCA among Thai tertiary students?*

To answer this research question, the following section reports the results from the FLCA questionnaire, the focus group interview and the head notes.

4.1 FLCA Questionnaire Results

To examine whether WE-based lessons were effective in reducing the level of FLCA among Thai tertiary students, the 47 and 45 participants from the control and experimental groups were asked to complete the FLCA questionnaire. The comparisons of the mean, standard deviation, mean difference, and *t*-test results of FLCA of the pretest and posttest in the two groups are presented in Table 4.1 below to illustrate the levels of FLCA before and after the experiment between the two groups.

Table 4.1

The Overall Anxiety Results of the Pretest and Posttest from the FLCA Questionnaire

	Control Group (N = 47)		Experimental Group (N = 45)		Mean Dif.	<i>t</i> -Test for Equality Of Means	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		<i>t</i> Value	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pretest	3.37	.47	3.27	.45	.10	.996	.322
Posttest	3.19	.49	2.37	.58	.82	7.339	.000

*Note. Significant at the * $p < .05$ level.*

According to Table 4.1, the mean scores of the overall foreign language classroom anxiety from the pretest of two groups were very close with the mean difference at .10. The control group and experimental group present mean scores at 3.37 and 3.27, respectively. The *t*-test results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the FLCA of the two groups at .05 level ($p = .322$). The results of *t*-test for equality of means and S.D. revealed that the two groups were equivalent or had

similar FLCA at a moderate level before being exposed to the treatment (WE-based lessons).

Also, Table 4.1 shows that after the treatment (WE-based lessons), the posttest mean scores of the overall FLCA of the control and experimental groups were quite different at 3.19 and 2.37 respectively. The *t*-test results indicated that the mean scores of the level of FLCA of the two groups indicated a statistically significant difference at the .05 level ($p = .000$). The pretest and posttest results also indicated the change in the overall level of FLCA of the experimental group from moderate in the pretest to low level in the posttest, while the level of FLCA of the control group was at moderate level in the pretest and remained the same at a moderate level in the posttest.

However, Table 4.1 presents merely the overall FLCA level in the pretest and posttest. Table 4.2 and 4.3 below will present in more detail of the students' FLCA in relation to the five specific anxieties of the control group and experimental group in the pretest and posttest respectively.

Table 4.2

Five Specific Anxieties Results of the Pretest from the FLCA Questionnaire

Specific Anxiety (Component)	Control Group (N=47)		Experimental Group (N=45)		Mean Dif	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		<i>t</i> value	Sig.(2-tailed)
1.Communication Apprehension & Fear of negative evaluation	3.45	.52	3.37	.52	.08	.748	.456
2. Fear of failing the class	2.95	.82	3.03	.72	.09	-.536	.593
3. Comfortableness in speaking with English native speakers	3.50	.72	3.37	.79	.13	.802	.425
4. Negative attitude towards English class	2.54	.79	2.62	.75	.08	-.515	.608
5. Unrealistic learning goal & Low self-esteem	3.57	.52	3.36	.58	.21	1.782	.078

*Note. Significant at the * $p < .05$ level.*

Table 4.2 presents the mean and S.D. scores of specific anxieties related to the FLCA in the pretest. None of the five specific anxieties between the control and experimental groups showed a statistically significant difference in the means score at the .05 level, revealing that the two groups were equivalent in terms of each specific anxiety before exposure to the treatment. The level of all the specific anxieties in both groups in the pretest was at a moderate level, except for one specific anxiety in the control group – *‘unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem’*, which indicated a high anxiety level. Furthermore, if we look at the mean scores, *‘unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem’* seems to show the highest mean for the control group, while *‘communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation’* and *‘comfortableness in speaking with native speakers’* seem to show the highest mean for the experimental group. In contrast, *‘negative attitude towards English class’* seems to show the lowest mean in the pretest of both groups.

In detail, for *‘communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation’*, the first specific anxiety, the control group’s mean scores were higher than the experimental group, at 3.45 and 3.37 respectively, while the *t*-test results presented no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups ($p = .456$). Secondly, for *‘fear of failing the class’*, the students in the control group showed less fear of failing the class than those in the experimental group, with means at 2.95 and 3.03, respectively, and the *p* value ($p = .593$). Thirdly, for *‘comfortableness in speaking with native speakers’*, the control group’s mean scores were higher than the experimental group, at 3.50 and 3.37, respectively, and the *p* value ($p = .425$). Fourthly, for *‘negative attitude towards the English class’*, the students in the control group showed a more positive attitude towards the English class than students in the experimental group, with the means at 2.54 and 2.62, respectively, with the *p* value ($p = .608$). Lastly, for *‘unrealistic learning goal and self-esteem’*, it can be seen that the control group’s mean scores were a little higher than the experimental group, at 3.57 and 3.36, respectively. However, the *t*-test results of the pretest showed no statistically significant difference between the two groups ($p = .078$) like the other four specific anxieties.

Table 4.3***Five Specific Anxieties Results of the Posttest from the FLCA Questionnaire***

Specific Anxiety (Component)	Control Group (N=47)		Experimental Group (N=45)		Mean	<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Dif	<i>t</i> value	Sig.(2-tailed)
1.Communication Apprehension & Fear of negative evaluation	2.91	.60	2.62	.71	.29	2.151	.034
2. Fear of failing the class	2.60	.86	2.14	.81	.46	2.615	.010
3. Comfortableness in speaking with English native speakers	3.64	.82	3.21	.92	.42	2.336	.022
4. Negative attitude towards English class	2.50	.85	2.11	.85	.38	2.127	.036
5. Unrealistic learning goal & Self-esteem	3.77	.34	2.01	.53	1.76	19.005	.000

*Note. Significant at the * $p < .05$ level.*

Table 4.3 presents the mean and S.D. scores of each specific anxiety under FLCA in the posttest. All five specific anxieties showed significant differences in their mean scores between the two groups, while the control group showed a higher mean than the experimental group. In more detail, among the five specific anxieties, '*unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem*' revealed the largest mean difference at 1.76 and the most significant difference at .05 ($p = .000$), whereas the control group was much higher with the mean at 3.77 (indicating high anxiety level), and the experimental group's mean was 2.01 (indicating low anxiety level). In contrast, '*negative attitudes towards English class*' revealed the least significant difference at .05 ($p = .036$), whereas the control group was higher with the mean at 2.50 (indicating moderate anxiety level); meanwhile, the experimental group's mean was 2.11 (indicating low anxiety level). For the remaining three specific anxieties: *communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation*; *fear of failing the class*; *comfortableness in speaking with native speakers*, the *t*-test results of the posttest also indicated a statistically significant difference between the two

groups at .05 ($p = .034$, .010, and .022 respectively), whereas the control group's means were quite a bit higher than those of the experimental group.

Overall, for the *indication level* of FLCA of the control group, all five specific anxieties remained at the same anxiety level between the pretest and posttest, with '*unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem*' remaining at a high anxiety level, and the other specific anxieties remaining at a moderate anxiety level.

In contrast, for the comparison of the indication level of FLCA of the experimental group between the pretest and posttest, the three specific anxieties - *fear of failing class*, *negative attitude towards English class*, and *unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem* - all presented level change from a moderate to low level, while the other two specific anxieties - *communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation*, and *comfortableness in speaking with native speakers* remained the same at a moderate level. Still, based on the statistical analysis, there was a statistically significant difference in all five specific anxieties between the two groups, which indicated the effectiveness of WE-based lessons in reducing the overall FLCA.

In addition, to answer the first research question and confirm the reduction of the students' FLCA as a result of the WE-based lessons, the overall anxiety results of the pretest and posttest within the experimental group and the control group are presented in table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4

The Overall Anxiety Results of the Pretest and Posttest within the Control Group and the Experimental Group

	Pretest (N = 45)		Posttest (N = 45)		Mean Dif.	<i>t</i> -Test for Equality Of Means	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		<i>t</i> Value	Sig.(2-tailed)
CON	3.37	.47	3.19	.49	.18	3.310	.002
EX	3.27	.45	2.37	.58	.90	10.408	.000

*Note. Significant at the * $p < .05$ level.*

CON = the control group, EX = the experimental group

Table 4.4 shows that after the treatment (WE-based lessons), the posttest FLCA mean scores of the experimental group dramatically decreased from the pretest, from 3.27 to 2.37 respectively, with the mean difference at .90, indicating a statistically significant difference at .05 level ($p = .000$). The results also present the change in the overall level of FLCA of the experimental group from moderate in the pretest to low level in the posttest, which confirmed the effectiveness of WE-based lessons in reducing the students' FLCA. However, the t -test results also indicated a statistically significant difference in the overall FLCA pretest and posttest mean scores of the control group at .05 level ($p = .002$), but with quite lower mean difference at .18 compared to the experimental group at only .90, and indicating no change in the overall level of FLCA at a moderate level.

However, FLCA is a complex issue composed of various factors and specific anxieties. Normally, there are three means to observe FLCA: (i) *behaviors* such as eye contact avoidance, limited facial expressions (Gregesen, 2005) or missing class (Horwitz et al., 1986); (ii) *physical changes* such as heart rate or blood pressure; (iii) *self-reports* such as the FLCA questionnaire and interviews. However, the last approach is considered to be more reliable by most researchers (Tintabut, 1998). Therefore, in order to gain a fuller understanding and a more complete picture to answer the first research question on whether the incorporation of WE into classroom practice could help reduce FLCA among Thai tertiary students, the results from the interviews and head notes (vignettes that included observed behaviors) were employed as additional tools to supplement the main data gained from the FLCA questionnaire. The next part will report the results from the focus group interviews with an equal number of male and female participants (ten in total) from various faculties in order to give a more complete picture of the effectiveness of WE-based lessons in reducing FLCA level in association with different specific anxieties under FLCA.

4.2 Focus Group Interview Results

To supplement the answer to the first research question, focus group interviews with ten volunteered participants were employed to explore the participants' reasons for considering the effectiveness of WE in reducing their anxiety. The main reasons were grouped under four WE principles adopted from Matsuda and Friedrich's framework (2011). Qualitative data analysis was done through a partial transcript of the interviews. The steps involved units of data that were sorted into the predetermined categories (four WE principles). The sorting process continued until all units of data relevant to the study were assigned to the four main principles of WE in relation to FLCA theory, which were used as the framework in this study. In the sorting process, the large amounts of data were reduced and significant repeating patterns were carefully identified. Memos were also employed during the sorting process to note the relationship between units of data and categories.

During the focus group interviews, all participants mentioned that this WE-based course could help reduce their FLCA, especially in relation to one specific anxiety, an '*unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem*'. The results from the interviews seem to be consistent with the results from the FLCA questionnaire in that among the five specific anxieties, '*unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem*' showed the most significant differences in the means of the posttest between the two groups. However, based on the interviews, the other four specific anxieties were not all mentioned by the participants. The next part will present the coding results of the participants' main reasons for considering the effectiveness of WE in reducing their anxiety, which are grouped in relation to the four WE principles.

4.2.1 In relation to WE principle 1: Exposure and awareness of varieties of English

All ten participants revealed that *Exposure and awareness of Varieties of English* reflected in WE-based lessons could help build up their confidence in speaking English and reduce their FLCA due to four main reasons: 1) *Positive Attitudes towards*

students' own English and other NNS Varieties; 2) Opportunity to witness successful NNS Models; 3) Opportunity for exposure to real-world NNS interlocutors; 4) Students' views towards the teacher as more open and less corrective.

(1) Positive attitudes towards students' own English and other NNS varieties

Excerpt 1 below shows examples from four students of how WE principle 1 - *Exposure and awareness of varieties of English* - could help reduce FLCA by developing students' *positive attitude towards their own English and other NNS varieties*. The interview results indicated that the development of such positive attitudes could help students build up their self-esteem and confidence in using their own English, and develop more realistic goals by putting aside NS as the only norm to achieve, resulting in language anxiety being reduced. Most participants also reported to have less fear of negative evaluation once they developed a better attitude towards English variations as not something *wrong* or *inferior*, but rather acceptable just like English from the inner circle countries. They had less fear of being foolish or incorrect in front of others if they use English that is different from the NS model. The WE lessons in which the students watched different varieties of English accents and forms from YouTube clips especially assisted them in uncovering and adjusting their attitudes. ('S1' refers to student number one and so on)

Excerpt 1

From the first activity, I learned that there are not only US and UK accents. There are actually varieties of accents. This made us see a difference. And we don't have to follow anyone if there is a difference and it does not mean wrong. We could also make a difference. And we know that we can communicate successfully even it's different from US or UK models. We realized that they have their accent, we also have ours. It's just different. This made me feel more confident to speak. (S1)

Before studying in this course, I didn't know that there are many standard varieties of English in the world, both vocabularies and accents. I thought there were only US and UK models. And I thought every country needs to follow only these two norms. But now I feel different. I mean I no longer feel that we are inferior, but it's just like we need to adjust ourselves and learn about other varieties. (S3)

Indians use the word 'hotel' to refer to restaurant. If we don't know that they use this word to refer to this, instead of the other word, we would be like...what?! What do you want to communicate with me? We wouldn't understand what they want to say and we would think that it's wrong. But now when we know, we more accept and learn that they use this word instead of the other word. When we go to their country, we will also use like them. It's like we become more adjusted. (S7)

I learned that there are actually many English accents. I feel more confident in speaking. Before this I felt shy and don't dare to speak English with my Thai accent...like I fear that others would think that I am not proficient. But now I think we don't have to stick with US or UK accents. Thai accent is ok. (S2)

(2) Opportunity to witness successful NNS models

Excerpt 2 shows examples from three students of how WE principle 1 could help reduce FLCA by giving students the *opportunity to witness successful NNS models*. Most participants revealed that having an opportunity to witness successful NNS models could inspire them for their own success. As a result, they developed more confidence and less anxiety in speaking English as being NNS users, and also developed a more realistic goal without the need to acquire an NS accent. Also, most participants reported to have a better attitude towards English class and felt like coming to class more than before. One of the WE lessons was particularly effective in presenting a successful NNS model. In the lesson, the teacher invited Chinese and Indian international students to share their study experience in class.

Excerpt 2

I have more confidence, especially about the accent. They (=NNS) also have their own accents like Ban Ki-moon. His accent is very Korean, but he could speak very fluently and confidently even though English is not his mother tongue. (S4)

I like activity that teacher invited Jessica (a Chinese guest speaker) to class. I met a real NNS that spoke with Chinese NNS accent. When she came, she didn't use US or UK accent. I could understand her... understand her accent. So, I think I could do it as well. No need to follow just only British or American models. (S10)

From the activity that the teacher let us listen to various accents, uncover our attitudes, or meet Jessica (a Chinese guest speaker), it made us more open mind and adjust our attitudes. First thing...if we open our mind, we will want to learn more about other accents. That there are various accents, not only the accents that we assumed to belong to NS to be considered correct. We can also be successful with our accented English. Then I felt more interested...motivated to learn more. It's not too difficult. From the past I didn't like English at all...feeling that it's difficult. I didn't want to study and locked up myself. Never believed I could do it. I always thought I would never be able to do it. Now, when I open my mind that it's not that hard from seeing that other NNS can also do, I believe in myself more that I can do it and feel like wanting to come to class more. (S1)

(3) Opportunity for exposure to real-world NNS interlocutors

Excerpt 3 shows examples from three students of how WE principle 1 could help reduce FLCA by giving students *exposure to real-world NNS interlocutors*. Such exposure helped them develop a more realistic learning goal by realizing that NNS are more likely to be their real future interlocutors rather than NS ones, and that they no longer need to acquire only the Inner Circle NS standards to have successful international communication. This realistic goal also leads to the development of self-esteem in using their own Thai English accent. The WE lessons where the students were assigned to do i-VDO project to interview NNS and interact with Indian guest speaker in classroom especially assisted them in exposure to real-world NNS interlocutors.

Excerpt 3

Now I feel more confident to speak English with Thai accent, especially when talking to NNS. Like the i-VDO project when I met Japanese at the dock, they spoke with Japanese accent. We also spoke with Thai accent. So, US or UK standard is no need to be used to give pressure to ourselves as it is useless. Actually, like we are the same NNS. They understood us more and tried to speak more slowly or use simple words with us, which made us understand better than speaking with NS. (S7)

I interviewed a Filipino in the i-VDO project. He spoke very fluently and understandably without trying to use NS accent. They still used their accent. We also don't use English as our mother tongue just like them. At first I thought we should adjust our accent to be like US or UK in order to make others understand us. But actually they also understand other accents too. We thought too much. (S3)

I learned a lot of new vocabularies from the VDO clips and from Rusma (Indian guest speaker). In each place people use different vocabularies and accents. One word can have various meanings. In the past, some words that were used in US or UK might be correct. But now in other places it might not be correct. Knowing only US and UK vocabularies is not enough. We need to keep ourselves updated. (S5)

(4) Students' views towards teacher as more open and less corrective

Excerpt 4 shows examples from two students of how WE principle 1 could help reduce FLCA by allowing students to *perceive their teachers as more open and less corrective*. The majority of participants reported that from the change of their perceptions towards their teacher, they had more confidence to speak out and less fear of negative evaluation by their teachers because the teacher didn't correct their pronunciations, unlike NS models. Rather they thought that the teacher taught them to be more open and adjust their attitude to accept varieties of English as different rather than wrong, which helped boost their confidence in speaking English.

Excerpt 4

I think the most different part of this course is the teacher and new content. This course introduced various accents, let students work in group, exchange attitudes, and supported us to share our voices. Also, the teacher didn't correct us all the time in our accent, pronunciation or grammar. I have studied with British teacher before and he always forced me to speak like him like...speak like this...speak like this in order to be correct English. So, I fear to speak because I couldn't speak like that. And if I speak wrongly or differently, I would be seen as a fool. But the teacher never did like that. Vice versa, the teacher gave us a thought to adjust our attitude, to open our mind that there are actually various accents and they are no right or wrong. They are just different. This made me feel more confident to speak out. (S5)

The teacher helped adjust our attitude to be more positive first, not jumped into teaching only grammar or pronunciation to be like NS like other previous English classes. Rather, teacher taught us to open mind, to understand and accept English varieties as not something wrong. This made us feel that English is not that difficult and have more confidence to speak out even it may be unlike NS. The teacher always supported us even when we pronounced wrongly or spoke wrong grammar. The teacher never scolded us. (S1)

4.2.2 In relation to WE principle 2: Politics and ownership of the English language

Politics and ownership of the English language was also found to help reduce FLCA among Thai tertiary students for two main reasons: 1) *Recognition of EIL power, its uses, and users*; 2) *Empowering students' critical awareness*.

(1) Recognition of EIL power, its uses, and users

Excerpt 5 shows examples from three students of how WE principle 2 could help reduce FLCA by allowing students to *recognize EIL's power, its uses and users*. Through the recognition of the global role of English, its spread, EIL's power, its uses, users, and that English is increasingly used between NNS-NNS rather than NS-NNS, most participants reported to have a more realistic goal of communication with no need to acquire NS competence to succeed in NNS-NNS interactions. Also, most reported an increased sense of ownership of the English language that it is no longer limited to the Inner Circle countries. Instead, it is owned by whoever uses it. Consequently, this helped them develop more realistic goals by putting aside NS models and gaining more confidence in speaking English, regardless of whether it is with a Thai accent. The WE lessons where the students were assigned to read articles about the spread of English and its implications on users worldwide, the ownership to the English language, and the interview of NNS outside class (i-VDO project) especially assisted them in developing sense of ownership to the English language, setting more realistic learning goals, and having the confidence to speak with their own Thai English accent.

Excerpt 5

From the reading the teacher provided, now the ratio of NNS and NS is 4:1. We are the majority of English users. And we no longer communicate only with NS, but rather with NNS like us. So, we don't have to speak like NS anymore. Now, I feel less pressure. (S2)

In the past I think we use English to communicate mainly with NS and US and UK are the owners of the language. After reading the articles about the current status of English, its spread and users, I knew that we are the majority of English users and no longer use with only NS. In real life we meet NNS more. We don't see many NS...like when doing i-VDO project, we went to Wat Pra Kaew (a famous temple in Bangkok).

We met Chinese, Japanese, and Romanian. Now people around the world use English. So, I think the owners should be the ones who use it. So, no need to speak like NS. (S6)

I realized that English is no longer used by only US and UK. Now everyone around the world uses it. And they have their own different accents. We don't have to speak like NS. When they speak with their accents, we can reply with our own Thai accent. I feel no shame, but rather have more confident to speak with Thai accent. In the past if I speak, I always wanted to speak like NS because I think they are the owner. (S3)

(2) Empowerment of students' critical awareness

Excerpt 6 shows examples from three students of how WE principle 2 could help reduce FLCA by empowering students' critical awareness and enabling them to be independent-thinking students who can seek their own voice in English. Most students reported that knowing about the politics and ownership of the English language, power of EIL, and its users based on WE principle 2 helped them critically question the true ownership of English and develop a better attitude towards their own and other NNS varieties, resulting in more confidence in speaking their own English and the reduction of their anxiety. The WE lessons where the students were assigned to read articles about the spread of English, ownership of English, and fallacies about teaching and learning English especially assisted them in developing critical awareness and seeking their own voice in English.

Excerpt 6

Before this I thought that US and UK are the owner of the English language and their English is superior. This might be because we were only informed by the education system since we were young that there are these only two correct models of English. I used to wonder why only US and UK. From this course and from what I searched for more information, it started from colonization, having wars, and then US as economic leader. So, it's like only these two English appear to be acceptable. But now it is not. There is also existence of other varieties of English, which are not wrong. (S1)

English is no longer used only in US or UK. Now it is used all around the world. Because of the colonization in the past, English has become the main language that people use today. In the past, if it was not

England, but instead Thailand that colonized other countries, today the world would be using Thai language. (S3)

In the past I had a lot of pressure as I thought US and UK are the ones who hold the rules and judge whether we use it right or wrong. But now I have more confidence to speak (English) as they are not the only ruler or owner of English. So it is no right or wrong for other versions of English. Actually, vice versa, when we speak English unlike them, they will think of us as uncivilized, underdeveloped. But when they speak Thai unlike us, we rather feel welcome, feel good. (S5)

4.2.3 In relation to WE principle 3: Three types of cultures

Introducing three types of cultures in language class was also found to help reduce FLCA among Thai tertiary students for two main reasons: 1) *Ability to transfer and extend cultural knowledge to facilitate international communication*; 2) *Broader learning goal to become effective EIL users who have broader sense of cultural knowledge*. This principle allowed students to learn about global culture, as well as the different cultures of the Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle countries, leading to reflection on their own cultures. The WE-based lessons in which the students watched Ban Ki-moon's (UN General Secretariat, who is Korean) talk about global warming, or the lesson that invited international guest speakers to class, and the interview with NNS in the i-VDO project especially assisted students in gaining broader cultural knowledge.

(1) Ability to transfer and extend cultural knowledge to facilitate international communication

Excerpt 7 below shows examples from two students of how WE principle 3 could reduce FLCA by helping the students develop confidence in their ability to transfer and extend cultural knowledge to facilitate international communication. Most students noted that such confidence was developed from gaining broader cultural knowledge, which helped them understand and better interpret others' behaviors, while also enabling them to reflect on their own culture.

Excerpt 7

Teacher taught about various cultures and cultural differences in relation to English language learning. This made me see that culture

and language are closely connected. I feel that I understand more about why each individual might behave in this way or that way. It is because of the cultural differences. When we understand the cultural differences, we tend to understand them more and have more confidence when communicating with them. Like we understand that this is the way that person is. They have their own way of life. We also have our own way of life. (S9)

I feel more confident to communicate with others because I think I kind of understand people from other cultures better...like Singaporeans they have the words 'siah' or 'wahlao'. We learn that the person we are talking to is in bad mood or moment or how he/she feels. We (=Thais) actually use the words like 'na', 'naja', 'wah' to express our moods as well. Or different gestures of Indian people like shaking head that means 'yes' or how they treat senior like the example of the last piece of cake that Rusma (Indian guest speaker) told us in class. In the past, I might feel that these actions are strange or may feel annoyed. But now I become more aware of that these all link to culture. (S7)

(2) Broader learning goal to become effective EIL users who have broader sense of cultural knowledge

Excerpt 8 below shows examples from three students of how WE principle 3 could reduce FLCA by helping the students develop a broader and a more realistic learning goal beyond imitating NS linguistic competence in order to succeed in international communication, but development of broader cultural knowledge is also important. This broader cultural knowledge entails learning about the culture of others along with their own culture in order to know how such cultural differences may lead to cross-cultural miscommunication; moreover, learning global culture leads to the development of the awareness that the ability to articulate one's own convictions to a worldwide audience is a more important objective than imitating NS ability. This not only helped most students develop more realistic learning goals, but also lessened their fear of failing class, another specific anxiety under FLCA.

Excerpt 8

In the past, I gave pressure to myself very hard that I have to speak like NS. But now I feel that what really matters is to succeed in real world communication and learn about other cultures as well. (S8)

I think my learning focus has changed. Well, in the past I focused only on acquiring US or UK accent very much. It's like I created problem to myself, creating wall to myself that if I still can't speak like NS, I should not dare to talk to others. But now I feel like wanting to build up friendship more, communicate more, learn about other cultures more. We don't have to speak exactly like NS to understand each other because actually the problem in real communication is not from only not understanding accents, but it also relates to culture. Like the miscommunication in the VDO clips of Indian worker or a foreigner in Thailand. So, we should learn about different cultures to understand each other better and make communication success. (S1)

In the past I focused only on learning English to pass the exam or speak like NS, but now I think English is also used for communicating campaigns which propose solutions to something. Because if we use Thai language, others might not understand. But with the use of English it can help broadcast our message to worldwide. We can use simple words and with our own accents like Ban Ki-moon when he talked about the solutions to global warming. He used a very strong Korean English accent, but we still could get it. (S3)

4.2.4 In relation to WE principle 4: Communication strategies

Communication strategies were found to help reduce FLCA among Thai students for two main reasons: 1) *Ability to communicate in real-world communication;* 2) *Broader learning goal to become effective EIL users with the aid of communication strategies.* This principle was mainly incorporated into WE-based lessons, which allowed students to learn and practice the various accommodation skills needed for real-world communication.

(1) Ability to communicate in real-world international communication

Excerpt 9 shows examples from three students of how WE principle 3 could reduce FLCA by helping the students develop more confidence in their ability to communicate in real-world situations. Most students reported that being taught and allowed to practice useful communication strategies help them feel more confident in speaking English in cross-cultural communication as they know how to deal with communication breakdown or unexpected miscommunication using various strategies, rather than avoiding the communication like before. WE-based lessons that explicitly

taught various communication strategies and assigned the students to use these communication strategies in the i-VDO project in which they interviewed a NNS outside class especially boosted most participants' confidence to speak English.

Excerpt 9

Learning about various communication strategies in class helped me a lot. When talking to foreigners sometimes I didn't know the words that I wanted to say. It's like it was on the tip of my tongue. But now I know strategies like how to categorize or find synonyms to communicate with foreigners more successfully. This gives me more courage to speak. (S10)

I like i-VDO project because it allowed me to use everything the teacher taught in class. Normally, I always prepare script before doing anything like this. But now that I learn about communication strategies, I have more confidence to speak with foreigners without having a script because I know how to get by in the communication or successfully communicate with them. Now when I see foreigners, I feel like wanting to talk to them more than before that I would choose only ones who looked kind. But now no...when I see any foreigners, I have confidence to speak with them all. (S7)

Learning communication strategies allowed me to learn how to make myself understood by others and also to understand others. Before this, I didn't know the strategies, I kept talking and talking and foreigners could not catch my point and I felt bad. But now I know how to use categorizing or asking for repetition, I feel more confidence to speak even though I am not good at grammar or don't know every vocabulary. (S6)

(2) Broader learning goal to become effective EIL users with communication strategies

Excerpt 10 below shows examples from three students of how WE principle 3 could reduce FLCA by helping the students develop broader and a more realistic learning goal beyond imitating NS to becoming effective EIL users who could successfully communicate in the real world. Most students reported that they realized that to succeed in real-world communication with the aid of communication strategies is a more important objective than speaking like NS. Moreover, WE principle 3 was found to

help reduce fear of failing class by helping the students change their learning goal beyond just getting a good grade, and passing or failing the class.

Excerpt 10

Normally, English classrooms focus on teaching only grammar, which I found it could not be really used in real life. But this course also taught various communication strategies which I think could be really used in real life, and help us be more effective English user. Not just only bring beautiful NS accent to the conversation and cannot make the communication success. I think the most important thing is to do anything to communicate successfully, not trying to adapt our accent to be like NS. (S1)

During i-VDO project, at the beginning of the interview, I still used the prepared script. But then once the conversation started, I thought... let's talk without the script! I felt that they (NNS) understood us. In real life, actually most people didn't use US or UK accent, but rather used communication strategies to help understand each other such as giving examples of some words they didn't understand, repetition, hand gestures, synonyms. And we could understand each other well. (S9)

I like the way that teacher focused on adjusting our attitude and teaching communication strategies because this really helped us in real world communication. It helped us adjust our attitude such as learning English is not only for getting a good grade or speaking like NS. I want the teacher to make this course as the new English curriculum because it really helped many students develop more confidence in speaking English, not being obsessed with only passing the course. I think when we have confidence, we will definitely pass anyway. (S3)

4.3 Head notes (vignettes) Results

Since behavioral observation is another approach to indicate FLCA among the students, head notes including vignettes were also employed in this study as additional data source to help answer the first research question: Does the incorporation of WE-based lessons into classroom practice help reduce FLCA among Thai tertiary students? The results from the head notes will be discussed in two main parts: (1) *from the observation of three behavioral aspects* as indicators of FLCA (extent of participation, Communication Apprehension (CA) behaviors, non-verbal cues); (2) *from samples of vignettes* showing the reduction of FLCA in relation to the first two WE

principles: Exposure and awareness of varieties of English; and Politics and ownership of the English language. Data obtained from the head notes and vignettes were recorded by audio recorder during class time. Then, the results from vignettes were literal translated with appropriate modification so that the students' responses were equivalent to English version.

First, according to the overall analysis of the headnotes based on the *observation of three behavioral aspects*, the head notes indicated that most students in the experimental class showed less FLCA than those in the control class in terms of: (a) *High extent of participation* - eagerness to volunteer and answer questions, active involvement in tasks, willingness to ask the teacher when uncertain instead of asking classmates; (b) *Communication apprehension behaviors* - talking more in class to both the teacher and classmates on the topic being discussed (not some other thing), being active rather than silent, remembering grammar rules and vocabulary, not trembling when being asked questions; (c) *Non-verbal cues* - smiling, laughing, showing eye contact, not leaning backward and preferring to sit in the front or moving their seats to the front row.

Second, the head notes also provide relevant and interesting scenes, i.e., *vignettes*, which help support the effectiveness of WE-based lessons, especially in building up most students' self-esteem, and consequently leading to the reduction of FLCA. The results from the vignettes were consistent with the results from the FLCA questionnaire and the interviews in that '*unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem*' were found to be the specific anxieties that were most developed.

Excerpt 1 below is a sample of a vignette observed in the experimental group, which shows how WE principle 1 - *Exposure and awareness of varieties of English* could help bring about positive attitudes towards students' own and other NNS varieties and provide them opportunities to witness successful NNS model. As a result, these led to the development of more realistic learning goals and the confidence to use their own English. Excerpt 1 is a scene during WE lesson 2 - '*Further exposure to varieties of English*'. The teacher focused on: a) raising the awareness and familiarizing the students with various standard English varieties both in vocabulary and pronunciation; b) making students

aware of their own attitude and how it could be an obstacle for language learning or success in international communication. The teacher introduced English variations in pronunciation and vocabulary, focusing on an Asian context including Philippines English, Singapore English, Indian English, Hong Kong English, as well as the Inner Circle British and American English varieties. This scene was at the end of the class after the students watched the VDO clips of varieties of English, and they were assigned to find the shared and non-shared linguistic features among varieties of English and present to class (each group was assigned to present each variety). The teacher asked the students to reflect on the activity and to uncover and adjust their attitudes towards varieties of English.

Excerpt 1 (in relation to WE principle 1)

T: *From this activity and from the group presentation, what did you learn or how did you feel, or have you changed your perception or attitude towards different Englishes? And in what way?*

SS:(students were thinking).

S1: *I learned that there are differences in English vocabularies. For example, the word 'tiffin' means breakfast for Indian English.*

T: *Alright. Good. Good. The differences or variations among English varieties. And do you think it's a wrong or a bad English to use the word 'tiffin' instead of 'breakfast'?*

SS: *No. (altogether)*

T: *Why did you say no?*

S2: *It's just different from American or British English we have learned, that's all.*

T: *OK. So, you mean difference doesn't mean 'wrong' or 'bad'?*

SS: *Ah ah. Yeah (=No).*

T: *Anything else did you learn or have changed after this activity? Like attitude or...*

S3: *Better attitude towards other English accents.*

T: *OK. In what way, can you clarify?*

S3: Before this, I think other accents like Indian or Malaysian like pronouncing 'gok' (=coke) are funny and strange.

T: Yeah I saw you guys laughing at Malaysian English accent or Indian English accent in the last class.

S3: But now I think it's more a uniqueness, not a funny or wrong thing.

T: OK. Anything else?

S4: I just knew that English can be used in other different forms like 'fill up' for Philippines English, apart from 'fill in' that we use. And it's not wrong for them.

S5: For me, I feel more open-minded and have more confidence in using English.

T: How?

S5: Umm....in my own way.

T: Alright. And your own way means...?

S5: Well...Thai English is ok. It does not have to be like US or UK as long as you can communicate with others. Like the Thai guy in the YouTube clip we watched last time.

S4: Teacher can you show example of Thai English accent again? How is it like?

T: (Teacher noted that Thai English is not time-stress syllable and gave examples).

Can you understand what I'm saying? (Teacher spoke Thai English accent)

SS: Yeah...

S6: Beautiful. Actually easier to understand than listening to NS accents.

T: Aha. So now, do you think you still can be effective user of English or make yourself understood with Thai English accent or other English varieties accents?

SS: (most students nodded). Yeah...

As observed from this activity, most students showed an awareness of the existence of varieties of English and that they changed their attitudes towards their own English and other NNS varieties in a more positive way - as *different, unique, and acceptable* - rather than funny or wrong. Also, they tended to set a more realistic learning goal by putting aside the NS-only model and develop higher self-esteem in using their own Thai English accent after being exposed to varieties of English in terms of both

vocabulary and accents as well as witnessing successful NNS models from the VDO clips and their teacher. Most students appeared to be very attentive in watching the clips, presenting the varieties of English by enthusiastically finding more information from other sources like websites apart from the handouts the teacher provided. They also showed high involvement such as thinking along and volunteering to answer when being asked without fear of getting wrong answers, willing to ask the teacher when uncertain rather than asking their classmates, and often smiling. In contrast, most students in the control group showed more impassive facial expressions, smiled less, leaned backward, slept, more absence, made less eye contact, needed a lot of prodding even when being called on, remained silent, and volunteered fewer answers to questions, which indicated language anxiety behaviors based on the aforementioned studies (Gregersen, 2002; Horwitz et al., 1986).

According to these results, it can be concluded that the data gained from most of the head notes and vignettes were consistent with the results from the interviews in that WE principle 1-Exposure and Awareness of Varieties of English could help students develop more positive attitudes towards their own English and other NNS varieties as well as provide the opportunity for the students to witness successful NNS models, which supported Matsuda (2002, 2003) and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) in that these two factors can help learners develop more confidence in speaking their own English and setting more realistic goals. With development of higher self-esteem and more realistic goals, students' FLCA was reduced accordingly.

Another vignette that indicated the effectiveness of WE-based lessons in terms of reducing students' FLCA is presented in Excerpt 2 below. Excerpt 2 shows the words indicating how WE principle 2- *Politics and ownership of the English language* could help most students recognize EIL power, its uses, and users as well as help them develop critical awareness. As a result, this led to the students' development of a sense of ownership towards English and better attitudes towards their own English and other NNS varieties, resulting in more realistic goals and the confidence to use their own English, which are the crucial factors for anxiety reduction.

Excerpt 2 is a scene during WE-based lesson 4 - '*Understanding politics of English and the rights to ownership of the English language*'. The teacher aimed to raise students' critical awareness towards the rights to the ownership of the English language through the readings, examples of real English discourses used to promote English language learning, and through YouTube VDO clips focusing on the spread of English, and its implication on users around the world. This scene (vignette) occurred at the end of the class after the teacher discussed the two take-home readings (The Spread of English and The Rights to the Ownership of the English Language), and after the students watched YouTube VDO about the English spread from the colonial past, and saw real English discourses from books in the market that aim to train learners to attain NS accents. The teacher then provided a list of questions based on the lesson for students to choose one to reflect their ideas and then share them with the class. The questions included 'From the two readings, who do you think owns the English language today?', 'Do you agree with Tommy Koh and the Filipino poet? Why or why not?' (Tommy Koh noted: "When I speak English I want the world to know I'm a Singaporean", while a Filipino poet noted: "English is now our language. It is clear from this that English is now no longer the property only of its native speakers" (all as cited in Jenkins, 2009, p.215), 'What do you think about using a Thai accent when speaking English?', 'Do you think learning the NS model accent and culture is sufficient for success in international communication?'.

Excerpt 2

T: *OK now. As you may see the list of questions provided, choose any to reflect your ideas. I want to hear what you guys think or learn from today's activities.*

S1: *I agree with Tommy Goh. Everyone has the rights to speak English with their own accent.*

S2: *For me, about the word 'owner'. It is used when someone takes the proprietorship to tell anyone that this belongs to you. But in reality, we cannot do that with English*

because whoever speaks English, that person is the owner. So, everyone around the world is the owner.

T: *Interesting. Did you believe in this way before reading and watching the clip? Or after?*

S2: *I don't know. Before this, I haven't thought about it. I might be able to think this way, but when I read, this idea became much clearer.*

S3: *I agree. Now English no longer belongs to only NS. It belongs to everyone because now when you go to anywhere, everyone uses English. So, it doesn't have to be like NS.*

T: *Do you think you still need to acquire only NS model?*

S4: *I think even among Thais we also have many accents (dialects)...like I am from northeast part. I have my accent differing from the north. So, it is the same as English. So we don't have to stick with only NS accents.*

S5: *I think we can speak English with Thai accent. Today our world is more connected. There are various accents and cultures of different countries that we have to communicate with. So, we should learn varieties of accents and cultures, not only stick with only NS models.*

S6: *I think we don't have to follow NS. Just only 400 million...now we are even the majority of English users. So, we should retain our uniqueness. And now no one really owns the English language, so we don't have to follow their norms. Just being able to communicate effectively...that's enough.*

T: *Very good. Interesting. Any other points you guys would like to share?*

S7: *For me actually no one owns English. Well, in the past might be yes because there was a colonization, but now there are various accents. And actually they (=NS) can understand us. We can use our Thai accent. But they (=NS) still think that only their norms are most correct...like my previous British teacher. He always forced me to speak like him, even though he understood what I was saying. And I didn't get him why he forced me.*

T: *I see. Interesting. Anyone else?*

S8: I also think no one own English because even within US there are still different standards and varieties of accents, so it doesn't seem to be right for them to claim for the owner of the language. England also has the north and the south part and each part still speaks differently. Even among NS themselves they still use it differently. So, I think it is not right for them to claim that they are only model that English should be used.

T: Very good.

S9: For me, I also agree with Tommy Goh that we can speak English with Thai accent so that others know we are Thai, not from other countries.

S10: For the question whether it is enough to study only accent and cultural norms of NS to be successful in international communication, I think it is not enough. Because there are many accents and each country uses it in a different way. Another thing is that the vocabularies used in each place do not convey the same meanings. So, we have to learn both accents and cultures of different countries in order to be able to use in real communication.

T: OK. Good. So you mean for real world communication, you need more than NS linguistic ability, but also learning culture and accents of various countries as well, right?

S10: Yeah.

T: OK. Anyone else?

S11: I think we don't have to follow NS model accent because like Japanese or Singaporean when they speak, they have part particle which I could understand. Not a problem. Like us that we also have part particle like 'na', or 'ja'. So, no need to imitate NS model.

S12: For me I think we should practice US and UK models first. I mean practice the ones which are considered to be standard first. Otherwise, we might get more confused.

T: So, you mean other varieties are not standard English? And we should start with Standard English like US and UK and follow only these two models?

S12: No I mean if we still cannot master standard versions, it is impossible to understand other varieties.

What the researcher observed from this vignette is that most students showed critical awareness regarding the ownership of the English language. The change of the assumptions about ownership seemed to have been due to the awareness of EIL's power and its current users around the world. This critical awareness also helped most students develop a better attitude towards their own English and other NNS varieties and a more realistic goal beyond imitating NS models, resulting in the development of more confidence in speaking their own English as they also noticed that there are no exact standards even among NS themselves. Also, they became aware that it might not be sufficient to imitate NS to be successful in international communication, but they instead need to learn different accents and cultures. However, some student still perceived US and UK as the best correct model, which indicated that it takes time to change or adjust attitudes.

It can be concluded that the data from the head notes and vignettes confirm the results from the interview in that the WE principle 2 - *Politics and ownership of the English language* could help students develop more realistic learning goals and self-esteem in using their own English through the recognition of EIL's power and its current users as well as through the empowering of their critical awareness. This support the results gained from the interviews and is consistent with Matsuda (2002, 2003) and Canagarajah (1999), who noted the importance of introducing politics and ownership of the English language issues in the language classroom as crucial in the development of learners' of critical view, sense of ownership towards their own English, self-value and positive attitude towards their own and other NNS varieties. As a result of the development of self-esteem, it is possible that students' anxiety could be reduced accordingly.

Part I: Results

Research question 2: *Does the reduction of anxiety from the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice help increase the students' English language achievement?*

To answer the second research question, the following section reports the results from the English Achievement Test.

4.4 The Increase of Language Achievement Reported in English Achievement Test

Table 4.5

The Overall English Achievement Results of Pretest and Posttest from English Achievement Test

	Control Group (N = 47)		Experimental Group (N = 45)		Mean Dif.	<i>t</i> -Test for Equality Of Means	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		<i>t</i> Value	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pretest	28.49	7.69	30.56	5.94	2.07	1.446	.152
Posttest	33.68	8.43	37.42	5.93	3.74	2.470	.016

Note. Significant at the $*p < .05$ level.

According to Table 4.5, the pretest mean scores from the English achievement test of the control group and experimental group were 28.49 and 30.56, respectively, with the mean difference at 2.07, indicating no statistically significant difference between the mean of the two groups at the .05 level ($p = .152$). Based on the pretest results of independent sample *t*-test (2-tailed) for equality of means and S.D., the two groups were equivalent before they were exposed to WE-based lessons.

Table 4.5 also shows that the posttest mean scores of the control group and experimental group were 33.68 and 37.42, respectively, with the mean difference at 3.74, showing a statistically significant difference between the mean of the two groups at .05 level ($p = .016$) and indicating that the experimental group outperformed the control

group. Therefore, these results indicated that the reduction of anxiety from the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice helped increase the English language achievement of Thai tertiary students.

In addition, to answer the second research question and confirm that the reduction of anxiety resulting from the incorporation of the WE-based lessons into classroom practice enabled the students in the experimental group to outperform the students in the control group in terms of their English language achievement, the overall English achievement results of the pretest and posttest within the experimental group and the control group are presented in table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6

The Overall English Achievement Results of the Pretest and Posttest within the Control Group and the Experimental Group

	Pretest (N = 45)		Posttest (N = 45)		Mean Dif.	<i>t</i> -Test for Equality Of Means	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		<i>t</i> Value	Sig.(2-tailed)
CON	28.49	7.69	33.68	8.43	5.19	7.361	.000
EX	30.56	5.94	37.42	5.93	6.87	9.886	.000

*Note. Significant at the * $p < .05$ level.*

CON = the control group, EX = the experimental group

Table 4.6 shows that after the reduction of the students' FLCA from the WE-based lessons, the pretest and posttest mean scores of the overall English achievement of the experimental group dramatically increased from 30.56 to 37.42 respectively, indicating a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest at the .05 level ($p = .000$). However, the *t*-test results of the control group also indicated a statistically significant difference in the overall English achievement as measured by the pretest and posttest at .05 level ($p = .000$), but with quite a bit lower mean difference at only 5.19 compared to the mean difference of the experimental group at 6.87.

Next, the discussion is presented in two main sections in accordance with the two research questions as follows.

Part II: Discussion

Research question 1: *Does the incorporation of World Englishes into EFL classroom practice help reduce FLCA of Thai tertiary students?*

4.5 Overall Discussion from all Three Instruments' Results

Overall, the results from the FLCA questionnaire, interview and head notes were consistent in indicating the effectiveness of the incorporation of WE notion into EFL classroom practice in terms of reducing FLCA among Thai tertiary students. The evidence was mainly confirmed by the statistically significant difference of the overall FLCA posttest mean scores between the control group and the experimental group, as well as the results within the experimental group that also showed a statistically significant reduction between the overall FLCA pretest and posttest mean scores. Even though the results within the control group also showed a statistically significant reduction between the overall FLCA pretest and posttest mean scores, it is possible that this could have been due to greater familiarity with the teacher, friends, or teaching process developed throughout the semester. However, their FLCA could have been reduced more if they had been exposed to the WE-based lessons, indicated by the statistically significant difference in the results of the FLCA posttest mean scores between the two groups.

According to the results from all three instruments, the primary reason for the FLCA reduction was found to be that the WE-based lessons helped the students develop more realistic learning goals beyond nativeness and developed their self-esteem and confidence in speaking their own English.

To elaborate, the evidence from the FLCA questionnaire showed that *'unrealistic learning goals and low self-esteem'* (one specific anxiety under FLCA) decreased with mostly significant differences in terms of the posttest mean scores

compared to the other four specific anxieties under FLCA, which was supported by the results from the interviews and head notes. The results seem to be consistent with the WE framework used in this study where the main aim was to develop realistic learning goals beyond nativeness, and focus on how learners could be effective EIL users rather than being like NS (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). The WE framework also aimed to develop learners' confidence and self-esteem in using their own English through awareness-raising of the varieties of English, the politics of English, which could lead to the development of positive attitudes towards students' own and other NNS varieties as noted by Lee (2012), and Bayyurt and Altinmakas (2012), who dedicated themselves to developing WE-based courses and found this positive feedback from their EFL learners, including less anxiety in English classes. Consequently, it is not a surprise that an *'unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem'* decreased with mostly significant differences in this study.

As a result, the development of students' self-esteem and more realistic goals beyond imitating NS are the important factors contributing to anxiety reduction based on a psychological view, as the students would see their goals as more achievable or envision possible success in their language learning. In other words, realistic learning goals and self-esteem were found to act as the most crucial anxiety-buffering factor for language learners (Greensberg et al., 1992 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al., 1999).

However, the lowest two ranks with the least significant differences among the five specific anxieties under the FLCA that were reduced as reflected in the posttest mean scores from the FLCA questionnaire were a *'negative attitude towards English class'* and *'communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation'*. One reason for the former could be that attitudes take time to change and one semester was not sufficient for a big change to take place. Also, some negative experience of language learning in the past such as harsh punishment or embarrassing error-correction in front of others by teachers may have taken deep root in students' minds, contributing to negative attitude towards English language class as a whole, which may not be easily gotten rid of (Occhipinti, 2009). For *'communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation'*,

these could be related to cultural matters. Thai students have been oriented in a culture that takes ‘*face value*’ as important, so many students fear to speak English as they don’t want to lose face or get negative criticism if they cannot speak with an NS accent (Boriboon, 2011). This fear of criticism or negative evaluation is also closely connected to students’ *fear of social discrimination* for being seen as having low proficiency or even being low class for performing differently from the NS standard, which stems from the traditional EFL paradigm in which Thai learners, teachers, authorities and society emphasize getting as close as possible to NS norms. This affects learners’ self-esteem as they devalue themselves as local NNS who are inferior and represent non-standard English. The NS norm as a yardstick for only true ‘success’ in language learning is thus deep-seated in learners’ minds, leading to their fear of negative evaluation or social discrimination (Boriboon, 2011), and it will take time to alleviate. Therefore, it is possible that even though the posttest mean scores showed a significant difference in these two specific anxieties, i.e., *negative attitude towards English class* and *communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation*, between the control and experimental groups, they showed the least significant difference level among five specific anxieties because they are associated with attitudes and cultural matters, which might take more time to see a great change.

The next part will discuss in more detail how each WE principle might help reduce FLCA based on the results from the interviews and head notes (vignettes) in relation to the previous studies.

However, it is essential to explain some relevant theories first in order to understand how the WE framework may relate to the reduction of FLCA. According to the baseline study from students’ logs, the personal communication with the OHEC group director (December 17, 2014), and the previous studies, anxiety among Thai students was found to be a major problem affecting their language learning achievement, which has been rooted in learners’ *low self-esteem* and *unrealistic learning goals* informed by the NS norm (Boriboon, 2011; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011). To clarify, unrealistic goals could be the beginning point, which has led to the low self-

esteem, fear of negative evaluation or fear of social discrimination among Thai students if they cannot achieve NS competence. Such an unrealistic goal is rooted in the implementation of an ineffective ELT curriculum in Thailand based on the Inner Circle norms orientation (Boriboon, 2011), through methodologies, classroom materials, textbooks, activities, and social processes. Students struggle to reach unrealistic learning goals informed by the idealized NS model (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011) which they can never achieve by definition (Cook, 2014). This then becomes a potential source of tension and anxiety among Thai learners, as they tend to develop unrealistic goal and devalue themselves for being non-natives in a peripheral position (Jindapitak & Teo, 2013). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) as cited in Occhipinti (2009) noted that anxiety in language learning is not developed at the beginning by the learners themselves, but rather developed after learners have created a certain belief, feeling or attitude about their language learning experiences during their learning period, in which teachers and the learning process are the key players.

Moreover, frequent failure stemming from the unrealistic goal of acquiring NS model can lead students to develop low confidence and low self-esteem. This is considered a crucial cause of language anxiety, which has a negative relationship with language achievement (Tanielian, 2014; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Horwitz, 2001). Therefore, psychology scholars like Greensberg et al. (1992) as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al. (1999) have proposed a terror management theory emphasizing the idea that “positive self-esteem will act as the most crucial protector against any type of language anxiety” (p.913).

Therefore, this study takes these issues into account, and proposes the solution of a paradigm shift in ELT curriculum and classroom practice to address WE/EIL notion as means to build up Thai learners’ positive self-esteem and realistic learning goals, resulting in the reduction of language anxiety. The next section will discuss in more detail how each WE principle could help reduce the overall FLCA and might affect different specific anxieties under FLCA.

4.5.1 In relation to WE principle 1: Exposure and awareness of varieties of English

WE principle 1 - *Exposure and awareness of varieties of English* was found to effectively reduce FLCA among Thai students due to four main reasons: *Positive attitude towards students' own English and other NNS varieties; Opportunity to witness successful NNS models; Opportunity for exposure to real-world NNS interlocutors; Students' views towards the teacher as more open and less corrective.*

(1) Positive attitudes towards students' own English and other NNS varieties

Positive attitudes towards students' own English and other NNS varieties developed from WE principle 1 were found to help reduce Thai students' FLCA. This could be explained in relation to the reduction of two specific anxieties under FLCA: *unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem* and *communication apprehension (CA) and fear of negative evaluation.*

First, according to WE studies, students' *attitudes, learning goal, and self-esteem* are closely connected. That is to say, if the students have positive attitudes towards their own and other NNS varieties, they tend to have more self-esteem and confidence in speaking their own NNS variety, and they are likely to develop more realistic goals without the need to acquire only the NS norm as the only correct model, which is considered a crucial anxiety-buffering factor. Based on previous studies, such positive attitudes can be developed from the exposure to and awareness of varieties of English. Sharifian and Marlina (2012), Lee (2012), Altinmakus and Bayyurt (2012), Hino (2012), Renandya (2012), Matsuda (2002), and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) note that exposure to and awareness of other English varieties can help students think more open-mindedly about the use of English worldwide, create positive attitudes and lead them to respect their own English as well as other NNS varieties. This is because such exposure and awareness help foster an accurate impression among the students that the Inner Circle varieties are not the only correct varieties and then value other NNS varieties as legitimate. Also, the awareness-raising of the varieties of English lesson can help learners

understand the process through which stereotyped attitudes or linguistic prejudice towards NNS varieties are instilled and reinforced, which can also help students create more positive attitudes towards NNS varieties (Munro, Dewing, & Sato, 2006) as cited in (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012). According to Lee (2012), positive attitude towards students' own English is important for contributing to students' self-esteem and confidence in using their own English.

On the other hand, an incomplete presentation of English varieties in language classrooms can lead to a negative attitude towards students' own English and other NNS varieties. Learners may form a *deep-seated inferior self-image* and low self-esteem by concluding that their own English is not acceptable, inferior, or non-standard outside English discourse (Matsuda, 2002, 2003; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012; Boriboon, 2011). According to Canagarajah (1999), the introduction of only NS models ignores the existence of the local, variety, which does not foster a healthy attitude towards other varieties.

Regarding Thailand, Boriboon (2011), Thai authorities and teachers have long given priority to nativeness based on the NS ideological orientation, causing other Englishes and Thai English to be seen as non-standard varieties. Consequently, most Thai students tend to develop negative attitudes towards their own English and other NNS varieties, and accordingly devalue their own English, affecting their confidence in speaking English regardless of whether it is Thai or another NNS accent.

In short, the above studies confirm that the exposure to and awareness of varieties of English, student' attitudes towards their own English, learning goal, and self-esteem are closely connected. Therefore, in regard to the shift to address the WE notion in classroom practice where the students are provided opportunities for exposure to the existence of other Englishes, the results from the interviews and most head notes corroborate the WE studies above in finding that unhealthy attitudes are more likely to occur if students remain unaware that varieties of English exist. These unhealthy attitudes include the ideas that there is only one correct variety, and their English and other NNS varieties are not acceptable, affecting students' confidence in speaking English and

causing them to develop an unrealistic goal based on NS norm. With the exposure and awareness, however, most students reported to develop better attitudes towards their own and other NNS varieties as *different* and *unique* rather than wrong or inferior and gain more confidence in speaking their own English. Most revealed that from the activity in which the teacher allowed them to uncover and adjust their attitudes towards NNS varieties and the Thai English variety through watching YouTube clips of various accents, or the activity that allowed them to explore and describe shared and non-shared linguistic forms and accents of varieties of English focusing on an Asian context, they have *become aware of these varieties' existence* and that *other NNS varieties are also considered legitimate*. Also, they have become more *aware of their immediate judgment on people's ability* based on ethnic backgrounds or accents, which are in fact unrelated.

In a nutshell, the results are consistent with previous studies in supporting the importance of a paradigm shift in ELT that entails more exposure to and awareness of other English varieties in English language classroom as a means to develop positive attitudes towards students' own English and other NNS varieties. These healthy attitudes could help learners set more realistic goals beyond NS norm-acquiring and develop self-esteem in using their own English, considered crucial anxiety-buffering factors (Greensberg et al., 1992, as cited in Ozwuebuzie, 1999).

Apart from a more realistic goal and higher self-esteem that helped reduce the students' FLCA, the development of positive attitudes towards students' own and other NNS varieties from WE principle 1 also led to a decrease of the *fear of negative evaluation*, another specific anxiety under FLCA.

To elaborate, Thai students *fear of negative evaluation* and *social discrimination* because they have developed a deep-seated inferior self-image in English discourse (Boriboon, 2011). Therefore, this implies that if we help students develop a positive self-image, self-esteem or attitude towards their own English, it may help reduce their fear of negative evaluation or social discrimination.

According to Boriboon (2011), introducing NS as the only norm in language classroom and at all levels in Thai society has been an influential mechanism to

discriminate social status. Consequently, anyone who speaks with a Thai English accent is likely to be perceived as having *low proficiency*, *being low class*, *marginalized* or placed in *peripheral position*, and *devalued*, while British or American English are placed in a position of prestige (Buripakdi, 2012). Therefore, most Thai students tend to adopt particular stereotypes and prejudices against parts of the world that they were not familiar with or perceived other English varieties as ‘non-standard’, ‘stiff’ or even ‘bad English’, including their own Thai English accent (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012). This could seriously affect their *Thaiglish* identity (here referring to accent) (Buripakdi, 2012), causing the students who cannot speak English with a NS accent to develop a fear of negative evaluation and social discrimination as low proficiency users, thus increasing their anxiety and eventually leading to an unwillingness to speak English (Boriboon, 2011).

Therefore, with the teaching of WE-based lessons, the results from the interviews and head notes (vignette) are consistent with the above studies in showing that when students develop more positive attitudes, their fear of negative evaluation of speaking Thai English or other NNS varieties seems to be reduced accordingly, while also gaining more confidence to speak their own English. This is because *attitude*, *self-esteem* and *fear of negative evaluation* are closely connected as supported by Boriboon (2011). Most students reported that they became aware of the existence of other varieties and that difference does not mean wrong and started to value other NNS varieties as legitimate ones. Based on this view, they had less fear of being laughed at if they speak English with a Thai accent as they no longer think that the Thai English accent is wrong or bad. Also, they reported feeling more positive and confident to speak English with a Thai accent as it would project their identity.

In summary, WE principle 1 was effective in helping the students develop a more positive attitude towards their own and other NNS varieties, leading to less fear of negative evaluation, higher self-esteem and confidence in speaking English as well as a more realistic goal beyond the NS model, which were crucial factors contributing to the reduction of the overall FLCA (Young, 1999).

(2) Opportunity to witness successful NNS models

The opportunity to witness successful NNS models gained from WE principle 1 was found to help reduce FLCA. The reasons can be explained in relation to the reduction of two specific anxieties under FLCA: an *unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem* and *negative attitudes towards English class*.

First, the opportunity to witness successful NNS models was found to help build up students' *self-esteem and develop a more realistic goal*. The results from the interview indicated that most participants believed that the introduction of a successful NNS model in class through WE-based lessons such as inviting NNS guest speakers from China and India to interact with them in class or watching the YouTube clips of speakers with various English accents could inspire them to strive for success as an NNS user, help them develop more confidence in using their own English and develop a more realistic learning goal beyond nativeness. This is because they witnessed that these NNS models could use English fluently and effectively even with their NNS accents, and these NNS were not at all embarrassed to use their accented English. Also, most students realized that to be understood by others and to be considered successful English speakers, accent might not necessarily be the only valid indicator as they could still understand their NNS interlocutors even with their NNS accents.

The results above are consistent with Matsuda (2003) in that the traditional EFL paradigm, which does not expose learners to a successful model of NNS who can communicate effectively, can be dangerous since the students have no way of knowing how successfully communicative they could be with their accented English; moreover, they may feel embarrassed about their accent and hesitate to use it. The results could also be supported by Kachru and Nelson (1996), who found that familiarizing learners with NS and NNS uses and users can help students overcome their reluctance to use other varieties. Thus, with regard to the shift to address the WE principle 1 in the classroom, the results of this study confirmed that it helps provide learners opportunities for exposure to successful NNS models, which could help them develop more self-esteem

and the confidence to speak their NNS variety, as well as develop a realistic goal beyond NS imitation, considered a crucial factor for anxiety reduction.

Apart from the development of a more *realistic learning goal* and *higher self-esteem*, witnessing successful NNS models from the WE principle 1 was also found to help students reduce *negative attitudes towards English class*, another related specific anxiety under FLCA. Most participants in the interview reported that they don't like English class and doubt their ability to achieve language success. The main reasons were because they perceived English as being too difficult to succeed. When they were asked to define success, they related the term success with NS norms. From these views, the students developed negative attitudes towards English class and had a low self-perception of their own success in language learning.

However, giving students an opportunity to witness successful NNS models was reported in the interview and head notes (vignette) to help motivate most participants to study in English class as they were inspired to believe that they can also be successful (particularly in regard to speaking skill) as NNS users. Most students were more encouraged to study in English class, believing that if other NNS can speak English effectively with their accented English, they can also succeed like those NNS models as well. Therefore, their learning goal might not be too difficult to achieve like before, they developed a more positive attitude towards English and felt like coming to class more.

These results appear to be consistent with Aida (1994) and Young (1999) in that negative attitudes towards English class involve negative emotion about English language, such as language difficulty, or perceptions related to the ability to succeed. Such negative attitudes may be derived from a low self-perception of one's chances for success or low self-esteem caused by frequent failure in the event that learners' ability is denied due to the inability to perform in accordance with NS competence, demotivating the learners in learning English (McKay, 2003). Therefore, with the shift to address WE principle 1 in the classroom, the learners were given an opportunity to witness successful NNS models, which could help build up their self-esteem or self-perception of their possible success without the necessity to acquire NS

competence. This could then motivate them in learning English or enable them to develop better attitudes towards English class, resulting in the reduction of the overall FLCA.

(3) Opportunity for exposure to real-world NNS interlocutors

WE principle 1 was also found to provide learners with an opportunity for exposure to real-world NNS interlocutors, which could help reduce FLCA. The reasons can be explained in relation to the reduction of an *unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem*.

Exposure to real-world NNS interlocutors was found to particularly help the students develop more *realistic learning goal*. Most participants agreed that they have never realized that more current users of English are in fact NNS rather than NS. They had always believed that their future interlocutors were mainly NS. However, when they had an opportunity to be exposed to real world interlocutors in the i-VDO project outside class, watching NNS-NNS interactions from YouTube clips, or meeting an Indian NNS guest speaker in class, they witnessed that these NNS bring their own linguistic forms, accents, and culture to the interactions. As a result, most students formed more realistic goals and realized that their communication would no longer involve interaction with only NS or NS model, but rather with NNS just like themselves. Thus, they may no longer need to acquire NS competence to be successful in NNS-NNS interactions, and in fact knowing only the NS norm may not be enough. Also, they experienced that communication takes care of itself even with accented English as they noticed that their NNS interlocutors would try to use simple words and speak slowly when communicating with them, which made them feel even better than communicating with NS.

From this, it can be concluded that the results of this study were in accordance with Matsuda (2002, 2003) in that a lack of awareness about the existence of varieties of English and students' real future interlocutors was a crucial cause for students to form unrealistic goals limited to only the NS norm since they may simply assume that their learning goal is to communicate only with NS who are from the inner circle countries. The shift to the address WE principle 1 in the language classroom allowed students to be exposed to real-world NNS interlocutors, which helped them see who their

real future interlocutors would be as well as moved them away from the unrealistic learning goal of acquiring NS norms that is no longer necessary in real-world communication between NNS-NNS. As a result, a more realistic learning goal could help them gain higher self-esteem, leading to a reduction in overall FLCA (Young, 1999).

(4) Students' views towards teacher as more open and less corrective

WE principle 1 was also found to change students' views towards the teacher as more open and less corrective, which could possibly help reduce FLCA. The reasons could be explained in relation to the reduction of *communication apprehension (CA)* and *fear of negative evaluation*, one specific anxiety under FLCA. To clarify, according to Tanveer (2007) and Occhipinti (2009), fear of negative evaluation can be caused by teachers as one crucial factor since learners normally do not form such fear at the very beginning by themselves. Particularly in English EFL classrooms, teachers in most cases who have been informed by EFL paradigm were reported to correct students in harsh and embarrassing ways and put a great effort toward bringing their students as close to the NS norm as possible, particularly the NS pronunciation model (Choomthong, 2014).

With the shift to address WE principle 1 in the classroom, the teacher instead exposed the learners to varieties of English and created a sense of acceptance about other NNS varieties, rather than putting NS norms as the only correct standards in the classroom. Most students revealed that in the past their teachers normally corrected their grammatical and pronunciation errors every time, and never introduced the concept that English has variations in linguistic forms and accents. However, during this course, they experienced that the teacher created awareness of the varieties of English in both form and accents through activities in which they were required to explore and describe shared and non-shared linguistic forms and pronunciation as well as awareness-raising activities that allowed them to uncover and adjust their attitudes. Hence, most students tended to become more accepting of English variations and perceived their teachers as more open to accepting their speaking ability, which might differ from NS standards. As a result, the students reported to have less fear of negative evaluation and gained more

confidence or willingness to speak English in class, which is different from the feeling before taking this course.

The results above corroborate Tanveer (2007) and Choomthong (2014) in that the crucial factor making students *fear a negative evaluation* is from teachers who push their students to develop an accent that approximates that of a NS and frequently make learners' aware of their inability to reach the NS goal. As a result, students have been very concerned about making errors or making fools of themselves due to their pronunciation. They also feared a negative evaluation because of performing differently from the NS model (Moore, 1997) as cited in Occhipinti (2009). Therefore, to help learners reduce such fear of negative evaluation, Tanveer (2007) proposed that teachers should help learners dispense with the unrealistic goal of NS pronunciation as the only model, which is consistent with the results of this study.

In short, the WE principle 1 helped students change their views towards the teacher who, informed by WE/EIL notions, was more open and less corrective, allowing them to be successful NNS learners when speaking English as long as it was intelligible, rather than failed learners who could never achieve the NS model. This resulted in less fear of negative evaluation by their teacher and a reduction of overall FLCA.

4.5.2 In relation to WE principle 2: Politics and ownership of the English language

WE principle 2 - Politics and ownership of the English language and EIL users responsibility - was found to help reduce FLCA among Thai learners due to two main reasons: *recognition of EIL power, its uses, and users*; and *empowerment of students' critical views*.

(1) Recognition of EIL power, its uses, and users

WE principle 2 was found to provide learners with an opportunity to recognize EIL's power, its uses and users, which helped learners develop a more *realistic goal* of using English to communicate with NNS rather than NS, develop a sense of ownership of the English language from seeing that NNS is the majority of English users,

and more positive *self-esteem* in regard to speaking their own English, which led to a reduction overall FLCA.

To elaborate, the politics and ownership of the English language involve issues about the worldwide spread of English, the implications of the spread, changing forms, current uses and users, and fallacies concerning the users and uses of the English language (Matsuda, 2003; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Kachru, 1992). Matsuda (2003) asserted that, contrary to what students believe to be so, real current interactions in English occur in NNS-NNS interactions rather than NS-NNS, and students' future interlocutors are more likely to be NNS just like themselves rather than NS from the Inner Circle countries. Also, without such awareness, students are likely to assume that it is Inner Circle native speakers who have the right to use English or have ownership of the English language (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012; Boriboon, 2011). From this view, learners would feel like they are borrowing someone's property and there is a need to use it according to the owner's standard (Sergeant, 2009) or do everything to get close to those whom they believe to own the language (Jenkins, 2009).

In sum, as a result of a lack of the awareness of politics and ownership of the English language, EIL's power, its uses, and users, the students are more likely to form unrealistic goals by assuming that their interactions in English would occur between NS-NNS, and they would thus need to attain NS competence to be successful in international communication. Also, the students are more likely to assume the English language belongs to only the Inner Circle countries, resulting in development of the unrealistic goal of acquiring only the NS norm, and low confidence in using their own English or other varieties differing from the NS norm.

However, by addressing WE notion in the classroom, the students were given the opportunity to recognize EIL's power, its uses and users through WE-based lessons in which the teacher assigned them to read about the spread of the English language, the implications for the current uses and users, the ownership of the English language, and fallacies about English language learning and teaching. Most students revealed that they were unaware of these issues and believed that the English language

belonged to only the Inner Circle countries like the US and UK; however, these lessons enabled them to become aware that they are the majority of current English users and their future interlocutors are more likely to be NNS than NS, resulting in the development of the sense of ownership to English. As a result of this changing perception about the ownership of English, most students reported that they no longer want to get close to NS norms, and that they gained more confidence in using their own Thai English accent.

These results were in line with Matsuda (2003), who determined that the recognition of politics and ownership of the English language, current EIL uses and users can help learners recognize who the majority of English users are in the current situation and who are more likely to be their future interlocutors. This recognition then helped most students develop a sense of ownership of the English language and a more realistic goal as the students would not feel a need to get close or acquire an NS norm; this also resonates with Jenkins (2009) in terms of the psychological impact that the perception of language ownership and students' goals have on language learners.

In summary, WE principle 2 was effective in helping the students develop a sense of ownership of the English language and set a realistic goal beyond NS competence, which led to greater self-esteem in speaking their own English, considered a crucial means of reducing FLCA.

(2) Empowerment of students' critical awareness

WE principle 2 was also found to empower students' critical awareness, which led them to be *independent-thinking students* who can seek their own voice in English, in particular to critically *question the ownership of the English language* and develop *better attitudes* towards their own English and other NNS varieties. This helped them develop greater self-esteem, which acts as a crucial anxiety-buffering factor.

To elaborate, various WE/EIL scholars such as McKay (2012), Kubota (2012), Matsuda (2003) and Canagarajah (1999) emphasize the importance of empowerment of critical awareness among language learners by addressing politics and ownership of the English language in EFL classrooms in helping learners develop a sense of ownership of the English language as well as a positive attitude towards their own

English and other NNS varieties. Canagarajah (1999) notes that historical understanding of the spread of English, uses and users in various parts of the world are a '*prerequisite*' for critical awareness of the power inequity that the language's colonial past may imply and that EIL users may need to deal with, which can lead to the development of sense of ownership of the English language, prevent learners from devaluing themselves in English discourses, and enable learners to seek their own voice in English (Matsuda, 2003). Evidence for the development of this critical awareness from the WE principle 2 is found in the studies of Lee (2012) and D'Angelo (2012), which suggested that addressing politics and ownership of English in class through the introduction of English history and the changing nature of language could help students see who they are, critically question the ownership of English, and also examine their own attitudes or biases towards other Englishes, including their own. Another EIL scholar, Kubota (2012), also supports the importance of such critical awareness as a crucial means to help learners avoid quick judgments when encountering variations and help develop an open, respectful, and positive attitude towards variations in English.

On the other hand, without such critical awareness, Matsuda (2003) notes that learners would not develop a sense of ownership of the English language as they would not recognize how power and language are closely connected. Also, learners may adopt a *colonialistic view* of the world and *devalue their own status* in international communication, assuming that such a position is something irreversible (Pennycook, 1998). This would then lead to a negative self-image and low self-esteem (Jindapitak & Teo, 2012; Matsuda, 2003; Kubota, 2012), considered as the most crucial predictor of language anxiety.

However, by addressing WE in classroom practice, the results from the interviews and head notes (including vignettes) indicated that most students were empowered with more critical awareness of their language learning as they were informed in class through various readings about the current EIL status, the EIL definition, the colonial past as the important factor for the spread of the English language, the economic power factor, the implications of the spread, the changes in uses and users

around the world, the variations in English standards, the ownership of English, and fallacies concerning English teaching and learning, which underlie WE principle 2. Most students revealed that knowing these issues prompted them to question the true ownership of the English language. Also, most students realized that language is closely related to the colonial power and became aware that their negative attitude towards other NNS varieties and their own varieties may arise from such power and through the education system that focuses on the two Inner Circle countries as the only correct standard. These showed that the students' development of critical awareness is a crucial basis in enabling them to seek their own voice in English as noted by Matsuda (2003).

In summary, the results are in consonance with Kubota (2012), Matsuda (2003) and Canagarajah (1999) in finding that WE principle 2 could raise the critical awareness necessary for being independent-thinking students who can seek their own voice in English, particularly in terms of critically questioning the ownership of English. This critical awareness helped them develop a sense of ownership of the English language as well as better attitudes towards their own and other NNS varieties, resulting in greater self-esteem and the realistic goal of using their own English. As a result of greater self-esteem, FLCA could be reduced accordingly.

4.5.3 In relation to WE principle 3: Three types of cultures

WE principle 3 - Three types of cultures - was found to help reduce FLCA among Thai students because of two main reasons: *Ability to transfer and extend cultural knowledge to facilitate international communication; Broader learning goal to become effective EIL user who has a broader sense of cultural knowledge.*

(1) Ability to transfer and extend cultural knowledge to facilitate international communication

WE principle 3 was also found to help develop students' confidence in their ability to transfer and extend cultural knowledge to facilitate their international communication. As a result, this confidence or self-esteem then acted as a crucial anxiety-buffering factor.

To elaborate, according to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), the traditional EFL curriculum does not provide learners with a broader sense of culture. Therefore, the negative consequence is that the learners do not have the ability to transfer cultural understanding in one situation to facilitate communication in new or unexpected ones. According to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), the introduction of cultural content in traditional EFL classrooms is very shallow and often leads to an incomplete understanding and stereotypes about intercultural interactions. Therefore, the cultural content of EIL classrooms needs to be expanded to include global culture, the cultures of future interlocutors, and students' local cultures in order to enable them to effectively anticipate cross-cultural behaviors based on different cultural traits.

The results from the student interviews seem to be consistent with Matsuda and Friedrich's (2011) theory with respect to finding that with the introduction of three types of culture in the language classroom, most students developed a better understanding of cultural differences and became more aware of their superficial judgments when encountering cross-cultural communication. They revealed that after teacher's introduction of the topic of cultural differences from the activity that invited international guest speakers or watching YouTube video clips about cultural misunderstandings, they gained more understanding of their interpretations of others' behavior, such as when Indians shake their heads to indicate 'yes' instead of nodding their heads, or how to treat seniors in both Chinese and Indian cultures, while they could also reflect on their own Thai culture. As a result, this cultural understanding helped them gain more confidence in their ability to communicate with interlocutors from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

In short, the cultural understanding of students' future interlocutors and of students' own culture increased their confidence in their ability to extend their cultural knowledge to facilitate international communication. The development of this confidence or self-esteem in using English in international communication, based on theories in psychology and language learning, can protect students against any type of anxiety.

(2) Broader learning goal to become effective EIL users who have a broader sense of cultural knowledge

WE principle 3 was also found to help students develop a broader and more *realistic learning goal* from being nativelike to being effective EIL users who are informed with broader cultural knowledge. Such a realistic learning goal could lead to a reduction of FLCA.

To elaborate, an *unrealistic learning goal* is caused by the traditional EFL curriculum that has encouraged learners to attempt to acquire only NS competence including linguistic forms, pronunciation, and cultural norms (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011). In order to make learners focus on a more realistic goal of being effective EIL users rather than being nativelike, there is a need for a shift in curriculums to address three aspects equally in the language classroom, including *linguistic competence*, *strategic competence*, and *three types of cultural knowledge* (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011).

Regarding the above theory, teaching three types of culture can be one crucial teaching aspect helping learners to focus more on the realistic goal of being effective EIL users. Three types of cultures include: students' own culture; future interlocutors' culture; and global culture. This cultural knowledge may help learners develop a more realistic learning goal in two main senses. The *first sense* is related to the learning of students' *future interlocutors' culture* and their *own culture*. This could help learners develop broader and more realistic goals not related to acquiring NS linguistic competence, but rather learning about other cultures and students' own culture in order to be successful in international communication. Moreover, the broader goal of EIL should be for learners to understand the wide diversity or cultural variations existing among English speaking countries and recognize how particular pragmatic differences could affect their own cross-cultural encounters, which is more important than achieving the NS linguistic norm as noted by McKay (2002).

The *second sense* is related to learning about *global culture*. Introducing global cultural in the language classroom could help learners develop more

realistic and broader goals that have little to do with imitating NS, but instead developing the ability to use English to articulate one's own convictions in order to bring about positive global change (Matsuda & Duran, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). This could be introduced in class by giving examples of NNS who could use their NNS Englishes to discuss important global issues and propose solutions to a wide audience. This example can help the students become aware that a more realistic and broader goal of gaining the ability to articulate one's convictions to international audience is a more important objective for language learning than imitating the usage habits of native speakers.

Therefore, after introducing three types of cultural knowledge in classroom practice, the results corroborate the above studies in finding that most participants developed a broader and more realistic goal of becoming effective EIL users who have broader cultural knowledge, rather than accepting and acquiring NS competence. This has confirmed McKay's (2002) theory in the first sense in that from the introduction of the future interlocutors' culture in class, the students seem to adopt a more realistic learning goal beyond achieving the norms of the Inner Circle countries. Most students tended to put aside the nativelike goal once they understood that awareness of the cultural variation of their interlocutors is more essential for international communication and for being successful EIL users. Most of them revealed that from the teacher's presentation of the examples of various cultures from the Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle countries, and how miscommunications may occur because of the cultural and pragmatic differences, as well as how such misunderstanding may affect their success in international communication, they became aware that only NS linguistic competence might not be sufficient. They thus became aware that they also need to learn, understand and respect other cultures in order to be successful users in real world international communication. As a result of the development of a broader and more realistic learning goal beyond acquiring NS competence, most students developed more confidence in speaking English.

In terms of the second sense of the development of more realistic goals, the results correspond to Matsuda and Duran (2012) in finding that learning about

global culture can help most students recognize that another essential learning goal of learning English is articulating their own convictions to a worldwide audience and bringing about positive global change, rather than imitating NS. In the interviews, most participants reported that their previous learning goal was limited to acquiring NS pronunciation, passing exams, or getting a good grade. However, after they were introduced to global culture in the classroom, which allowed them to discuss global issues in relation to globalization and English language learning, they became more aware that English is in fact an essential means to broadcast their ideas to the world and bring about positive global change. Most students revealed that they recognized this broader goal especially from the activity in which the teacher let them watch Ban Ki-moon's (General Secretariat to the United Nations) talk in a TV program about global issues and express his views on solving these problems using English to broadcast his message. Most of them noticed that Ban Ki-moon had a strong Korean English accent, but he could still get his message across to an international audience. This supported Matsuda and Duran's study (2012) for using this type of activity to create this broader goal. Moreover, the presentation project in which the students were assigned to propose solutions to one chosen global issue provided by the teacher was also revealed to help most students develop a broader goal beyond NS imitation.

Therefore, it can be concluded that addressing WE principle 3 in the classroom could help students form a broader and more realistic learning goal beyond NS linguistic imitation. Most students became aware of a crucial goal for cultural understanding of their interlocutors from all three concentric circles in order to recognize how pragmatic differences may lead to cross-cultural miscommunication. Also, they became aware of another crucial goal of using English to articulate their own convictions to an international audience to bring about positive global change, which is more important than imitating NS. Thus, as a result of a broader and more realistic learning goal beyond the nativeness, students' self-esteem and confidence in using or speaking English could be increased, leading to a reduction of FLCA.

Apart from the development of a more realistic goal, which could help reduce the overall FLCA, the results from the interview also indicated that WE principle 3 could help decrease students' *fear of failure* or *fear of failing class*, another specific anxiety under FLCA. According to the psychological view, this could be the result of the development of a more realistic learning goal beyond nativeness. To clarify, according to Horwitz et al. (1986), fear of failing class, fear of failure, or the expectation of failure can be used interchangeably and is related to the way that learners place *unrealistic expectations* on themselves about language learning, such as anything less than perfect based on an NS goal being defined as failure. MacIntyre and Noels (1994) as cited in Young (1999) noted that having learners' expectations of failure could lead to anxious learners maintaining high anxiety. Therefore, once learners develop a more realistic goal or expectation, which is not limited to the nativeness, this could help them develop the expectation of success or more positive self-perception regarding their language learning, resulting in less fear or expectation of failure (MacIntyre, 1995).

The results seem to correspond to MacIntyre (1995) and Horwitz et al. (1986) above, in finding that when most students develop a more realistic learning focus instead of the nativeness goal, they reported less fear of failing class or fear of failure. As mentioned earlier, most mentioned that in the past they might focus only on acquiring a native accent, passing the English exam or getting a good grade, but now they tend to develop a broader learning goal of acquiring the ability to communicate their thoughts to a worldwide audience to bring about positive global change, which is considered a more realistic expectation. Consequently, they no longer focus only on passing or failing the class, and revealed that they have less fear of failing class.

4.5.4 In relation to WE principle 4: Communication strategies

(1) Ability to communicate in real world international communication with the aid of communication strategies

WE principle 4 was also found to increase the students' ability to communicate in an international context, which could possibly help reduce FLCA. The reasons can be explained in relation to the increase in their self-esteem.

To elaborate, communication strategies or accommodation skills include the ability to derive meaning from the context, engage in circumlocution, summarize, paraphrase, ask for clarification, display cultural sensitivity by avoiding culturally specific expressions, supportive listening, signal non-comprehension in a face-saving way, etc. (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Seidlholfer, 2004). According to Mukminatien (2012), and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), traditional EFL curriculum might not give enough importance to teaching communicative strategies in the classroom. As a result, it is not adequate for learners to succeed in EIL communication where people bring their own linguistic and cultural backgrounds to approach communication. Therefore, many scholars such as Kubota (2012), Mukminatien (2012), Renandya (2012), McKay (2012), Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), and Kirkpatrick (2007) give importance to practicing communication and employing repair strategies in the EIL classroom as well as engaging students in communication situations that prepare them for miscommunication so that they learn how to cope with communication breakdown in cross-cultural communication. Moreover, according to Kubota (2012), the shift to address WE/EIL notion in classroom practice which places an importance on learning about sociolinguistic and strategic competence, could encourage learners' to attempt to use language more, and gain more confidence in their ability to communicate in English when confronting interlocutors or English users from different mother tongues as they can select different strategies to repair any communication breakdown.

The results from the interviews were found to be consistent to the abovementioned theories, especially Kubota (2012), in finding that WE-based lessons that give importance to teaching communication strategies in the classroom can help students develop confidence in their ability to use English for communication and encourage them to use language more. In the interviews, most students revealed that they gained more confidence to use English to communicate in the real world outside the classroom, as they had never explicitly been taught accommodation skills. Also, learning about various communication strategies in class helped them make themselves understood by others and at the same time improved their understanding of what others

say in real world communication. They also reported less fear in regard to engaging in international communication even though they might not have a full range of vocabulary or perfect grammar; nevertheless, armed with knowledge of communication strategies, they thought they would be able to get by in their communication. The WE activity that assigned students to do i-VDO project or interact with NNS outside class and gave them an opportunity to use communication strategies learned in class was indicated by most students to help them see that learning communication strategies in the English classroom was as essential as learning grammar or vocabulary. It can be concluded that the results confirm that addressing WE/EIL notion in class by teaching communication strategies could help learners develop more confidence in their ability to use English to communicate in an international context as supported by Kubota (2012). And from the development of more confidence or self-esteem regarding the use of English, it is possible that FLCA was reduced accordingly.

(2) Broader goal to become effective EIL users with communication strategies

WE principle 4 was also found to help students develop a broader and more realistic learning goal of successfully communicating in the real world with the aid of communication strategies, which is a more important objective than imitating NS. As a result, this more realistic learning goal could lead to a reduction of FLCA.

According to Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) and Matsuda (2003), in order to enable learners to focus more on being effective EIL users rather than being nativelike, there is a need for a shift in ELT curriculum, which focuses equally on three aspects in classroom teaching: linguistic competence; strategic competence (communication strategies); and three types of cultural knowledge. Regarding this theory, teaching communication strategies is considered one crucial teaching aspect that can help learners focus more on the realistic goal of being effective EIL users.

The results from the interviews seem to be consistent with the theory above in finding that with the shift in curriculum to address communication strategies as another aspect in classroom teaching, most students have developed a broader and more

realistic goal from acquiring nativelike competence to being effective EIL users who could use English effectively to communicate in real world with the aid of communication strategies. This broader goal was indicated to be derived from the teaching of communication strategies in class and students' practice outside class, which made them realize that they could also be effective EIL users without being nativelike, and the more important objective is to communicate successfully in the real world. Communication strategies were indicated to be a crucial aid for their successful communication. Most students revealed that this recognition was developed from WE activity that assigned them to do i-VDO project and interact with NNS, where communication strategies became much more necessary than an NS accent.

In summary, addressing communication strategies in class as one crucial focus can help learners develop a broader and more realistic goal of being effective EIL users rather than imitating an NS accent. As a result, based on language learning and psychological theory, a realistic learning goal could bring about the expectation of students' success and the development of self-esteem, which are considered crucial factors for anxiety-buffering (Greensberg et al., 1992) as cited in (Ozwuebutzie et al., 1999).

Apart from WE principle 4 helping learners to develop more a *realistic goal* and *self-esteem*, the results also indicated that it could reduce *fear of failing class* or *fear of failure*, another specific anxiety under FLCA, which can be explained in relation to the development of a realistic learning goal. To clarify, a realistic learning goal beyond the NS notion can bring about a decrease of expectations of failure or failing class as the learners could develop the expectation of possible success (MacIntyre, 1995; Young's, 1999). Then, the reduction of the fear of failing class may lead to an overall reduction of FLCA.

The interview results seem to corroborate the theory above in that most students revealed that when they changed their learning focus from just getting a good grade, acquiring an NS accent, and passing the class to being successful users of

English who can successfully communicate in the real world, they had less fear of failing class than before.

In summary, the overall results from both quantitative inquiry (FLCA questionnaire as the main data) and qualitative inquiry (the interviews and head notes as supplementary data) revealed the effectiveness of the WE-based lessons in terms of reducing FLCA among Thai tertiary students, which can be explained in association with four WE principles used as the framework in this study. These four WE principles were also found to affect specific anxieties under FLCA differently. Among the five specific anxieties, an '*unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem*' were found to be reduced most significantly based on the FLCA questionnaire; this actually corresponds to the aim of this study, which proposed the development of a realistic learning goal and self-esteem based on the four WE principles in classroom practice as means to reduce anxiety. The results from the FLCA questionnaire were also supplemented by the interviews and head notes (vignettes) in much the same way, and corroborate Lee (2012) and D'Angelo (2012) who attempted to incorporate WE/EIL into classroom practice and found positive results in that learners developed awareness, better attitudes towards other English varieties, gained more confidence in using their own English, developed realistic goals beyond NS imitation, and were less anxious in the language classroom at the end of the course.

However, even though an *unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem* were reduced most significantly, the other four specific anxieties also showed significant differences in the posttest FLCA mean scores between the two groups. This may be explained based on the theory that it is because '*learners' learning goal*' and '*self-esteem*' seem to relate to the other four specific anxieties under FLCA.

To elaborate, in terms of '*communication apprehension (CA) and fear of negative evaluation*', according to Horwitz et al. (1986), Young (1999), and Leary (1983) as cited in Wang (2014), low self-esteem learners can easily have a high level of CA and fear of negative evaluation. This is because they do not want to be the focus of attention in front of others for fear of not performing well or being laughed at. Therefore, in this study

where the self-esteem of the students in the experimental group was reduced with a significant difference, it may have led to a significant reduction in CA and fear of negative evaluation, another specific anxiety under FLCA as well.

Moreover, students' learning goal and self-esteem are also closely related to the *fear of failing class*. This is because *fear of failing class* or *fear of failure* usually relates to an unrealistic goal or expectation that learners create during their learning, especially the belief that anything less than perfect based on NS norms would be counted as a failure (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1999). That is to say, the more unrealistic the goal, the lower a student's self-esteem would be, and the higher the fear of failing class. In other words, learners' expectation of the overall achievement would be better when their goal becomes more achievable, resulting in less fear of failure. Both *fear of failing class* and *expectations of overall achievement* in foreign language course are considered crucial predictors of FLCA as noted by MacIntyre (1995) and Young (1999), respectively. Therefore, in this study where the learning goal and self-esteem of the students in the experimental group increased with a significant difference, it may have led to a significant reduction in *fear of failing class* or *fear of failure*, another specific anxiety under FLCA.

Furthermore, it was also found that students with high CA tend to have an overall *negative attitude towards their school and English class* and perform worse in school than their low CA counterparts (McCroskey, Booth-Butterfield & Payne, 1989). Therefore, it is possible that in this study where CA of the students in the experimental group was reduced with a significant difference, it might have resulted in a significant reduction in the *negative attitude towards their school and English class*, another specific anxiety under FLCA.

Lastly, students' CA and *self-esteem* is also closely related to *comfortableness in speaking with native speakers*. To clarify, *comfortableness in speaking with native speakers* could be part of CA as it involves communication with others regardless of whether it is in a social setting or an anticipated situation. In particular, in terms of communication in oral English, which requires learners to master language,

communicative skills and background knowledge about the target language (Wang, 2014), learners tend to develop high CA and have low self-esteem in using a language that they have not yet mastered (Horwitz et al., 1986). Therefore, since *comfortableness* in speaking with native speakers is part of CA, it is possible that in this study where self-esteem of the students in the experimental group increased, it might affect the significant reduction in CA as well as *comfortableness in speaking with native speakers*, another specific anxiety under FLCA.

In summation, it is possible that since the five specific anxieties under FLCA are closely connected, once one specific anxiety is reduced, it could result in the reduction of other particular specific anxieties as well, which can be another support for why all five specific anxieties decreased with a significant difference in the experimental group.

At this point, it can be concluded that the incorporation of WE into EFL classroom practice in this study may be most effective in terms of helping students to set a *realistic learning goal* and *increasing their self-esteem* rather than reducing the other specific anxieties under FLCA, which resulted in the reduction of overall FLCA among Thai tertiary students. However, it is important to note that even though WE incorporation into classroom practice was effective in reducing FLCA among the Thai tertiary students, the results from the interviews showed that even though the students gained more confidence in using their own Thai English, deep down inside NS norms are still the model that some students wish to acquire most. This may be because NS ideology has informed the ELT curriculum in Thailand for a hundred years, and it is thus hard to completely change students' attitudes and learning goals, especially within one semester. However, this study can provide an alternative for teachers in the attempt to alleviate language anxiety problems based on the post-modern school of thought, which does not have a specific aim to implement the best prescribed classroom practice. In contrast, this study proposed an *alternative ELT* to serve globalized classrooms and to enrich the traditional ELT curriculum. This '*enrichment*' was found to help learners develop a more realistic goal of being effective EIL users rather than being like NS, and

help them develop higher self-esteem, which are considered the most crucial anxiety-buffering factors. In addition, this '*enriched curriculum*' could help most students become empowered with critical awareness about English language learning, which is a good step to make them be independent-thinking learners who can seek their own voice in English, take responsibility for their own learning, and contribute to society.

Part II: Discussion

Research question 2: *Does the reduction of anxiety from the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice help increase the students' English language achievement?*

4.6 Overall Discussion from English Achievement Test Results

According to the hypothesis of this study, WE-based lessons were used in the classroom as it was believed they would help reduce FLCA among the students, and the resulting FLCA reduction should then help increase students' English achievement. The results seem to support this hypothesis in finding that as a result of FLCA reduction, the students in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group in terms of their English achievement with a statistically significant difference. In addition, the overall English achievement posttest mean scores of the students in the experimental group showed a statistically significant increase from the pretest mean scores, which confirmed that the FLCA reduction resulting from the incorporation of the WE-based lessons could help increase the English achievement of the Thai tertiary students.

Theoretically, a negative relationship between anxiety and language achievement has received support from many studies. Language anxiety has been found to be one of the best predictors for foreign language achievement (Gardner, 1985 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al., 2001) and the primary predictor of second language acquisition (Wang, 2010; Horwitz et al., 1986). MacIntyre's (1995) recursive relations theory could help explain the negative relationship between *anxiety (affective)*, *cognition*, and *behavior*, in which one affects the others. To illustrate, the unique experience in a foreign

or second language class, which requires students to perform in a language that they have not yet mastered, may cause students to become anxious. Anxiety, then, leads to worry and rumination. As a result, their cognition is diminished because of the divided attention to such worry, which then causes learning performance or behavior to suffer. Once learning performance suffers or the students encounter frequent failures, this results in negative self-evaluations and more self-deprecating cognition, which further impairs performance, and so on as a recursive relationship. In fact, language anxiety does not affect only learners' performance, but also how they perceive their own performance. Also, having the expectation of failure could cause learners to maintain a high level of anxiety, and damage the performance even more. This theory is also supported by Krashen (1985), who found that a high affective filter may prevail among many foreign language learners who have low self-esteem, making them unreceptive to language input, and thereby impairing their learning process.

The theories above along with the previous studies confirm a negative relationship between language anxiety and various measures of foreign language achievement (Tanielian, 2014; Chiang, 2012; Lan, 2012; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Awan, 2010; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2010; Noormohamadi, 2009; Wu, 2005; Horwitz, 2001; Saito, 1996; Aida, 1994).

Therefore, the results of this study gained from the English achievement test seem to be consistent with previous studies above in finding that the students in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group in terms of their English achievement scores, which could be due to the significant reduction of their FLCA. And as found in this study, the reduction of FLCA of the students in the experimental group was due to the incorporation of WE-based lessons. In short, the reduction of anxiety from the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice in this study could help increase the students' English language achievement.

Moreover, the results of this better language achievement resonate with Boriboon (2011) who notes that Thai learners' low language achievement is possibly rooted in ineffective pedagogical instruction informed by the NS ideology. According to

Boriboon (2011), and Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011), the EFL paradigm, or placing too much of a priority on NS in the ELT curriculum in Thailand, is considered to be an influential albeit indirect cause for the low English proficiency of Thai students since such NS ideology can bring about serious and *permanent low self-esteem*, or a *deep-seated inferior self-image*, which can lead to fear of speaking English and less involvement in the language learning process.

Therefore, by addressing WE/EIL in the ELT curriculum in this study that goes beyond the notion of nativeness, the results correspond to the studies above in finding that the students could develop more positive self-esteem and a more realistic learning goal, which helped them gain more confidence and have less fear in speaking English. As a result of the higher self-esteem and less anxiety, students were more engaged in the learning process, which is indispensable for language acquisition or language achievement (MacIntyre, 1995; Swain, 1985). Moreover, the results correspond to MacIntyre (1995) in finding that when learners develop positive self-esteem, or have better expectations of their own success based on a realistic learning goal, this helps reduce their anxiety or worry, resulting in better language performance since they no longer give their attention to such worries or expectations of failure.

To recapitulate, since the students in the experimental group developed more positive self-esteem and a realistic learning goal beyond NS than the control group counterparts, they tended to perceive their own possible language achievement better than the control group counterparts as well as have less worry and anxiety. On the contrary, the students in the control group who were not exposed to WE-based lessons may still be subject to self-deprecating cognition and an unrealistic goal, which directly impairs their language learning. Therefore, the students in WE group outperformed those in the control group in terms of language achievement as their anxiety tended to be lower and their self-esteem tended to be higher.

Summary

This study revealed the following results. *First*, the overall anxiety of the posttest from FLCA questionnaire between the control and experimental groups showed a statistically significant difference, with the FLCA level of the experimental group being quite lower than the control group. In addition, the posttest FLCA mean scores of the experimental group also decreased from the pretest mean scores with a statistically significant difference, indicating the effectiveness of the WE-based lessons in reducing FLCA among the Thai tertiary students. *Second*, five specific anxieties under FLCA of the control group were not reduced with significant differences, whereas those of the experimental group were all reduced with significant differences. However, among the five specific anxieties related to FLCA, an *unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem* were reduced most significantly, while *negative attitude towards the English class* was reduced with the least significant difference. This indicated that WE-based lessons were most effective in helping students develop a more realistic learning goal and self-esteem compared to other specific anxieties. *Third*, the results from the focus group interviews and head notes (including vignettes) provided additional data and support the effectiveness of WE-based lessons in reducing FLCA based on all four WE principles, which were found to especially assist most students in setting a realistic goal and developing self-esteem in speaking their own English. *Fourth*, the students in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group in terms of their English achievement. Furthermore, there was also a statistically significant increase in the overall English achievement mean scores between the pretest and posttest of the experimental group. This could have been due to the reduction of anxiety resulting from the incorporation of WE into classroom practice, which helped increase the students' English language achievement.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the effects of the incorporation of World Englishes into EFL classroom practice in terms of reducing FLCA among Thai tertiary students. This chapter presents the conclusion in accordance with the two research questions of the study: 1. Does the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice help reduce FLCA of Thai tertiary students?; 2. Does the reduction of anxiety from the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice help increase English language achievement of Thai tertiary students? The conclusions were drawn from the major findings gained from the self-report of the FLCA questionnaire analyzed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), from the focus group interviews with ten voluntary participants in the experimental group and from the head notes, analyzed by the content analysis method. Finally, the pedagogical implications, limitations, and recommendations for future study are presented. The references and appendices are also presented to supplement the findings.

5.1 Summary

With respect to the first research question, the analysis of data gained from the FLCA questionnaire, partial transcriptions of the focus group interviews, and the head notes consistently indicated that the incorporation of World Englishes into classroom practice could help reduce the overall FLCA among Thai tertiary students. It was found from statistical analysis that the FLCA level of the students in the experimental group was lower to a statistically significant degree compared to that of the control group in the posttest. Also, the overall FLCA of the students in the experimental group decreased with a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores, confirming the effectiveness of WE-based lessons in reducing the students' FLCA. In more detail, *'unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem'* appeared to be the specific anxiety under FLCA that were reduced with the most significant difference compared to

the other four specific anxieties. The results were supplemented in a similar way by the interviews with ten volunteers who all claimed the effectiveness of WE-based lessons in helping them develop a more realistic learning goal, self-esteem, and lessen their anxiety. To clarify, the four WE principles, which were used as a framework to design instructional practice in this study, were all found to help set a realistic goal, build up self-esteem and confidence in speaking English among the students, considered as a crucial means of reducing FLCA from a psychological view.

To be more specific regarding WE principle 1, the results corroborate Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), and Jindapitak and Teo's study (2013) in that without awareness of the fact that varieties of English exist, students are likely to develop a harmful attitude by concluding that there is only one correct variety and that their English and other NNS varieties are unacceptable. Also, the lack of such awareness can affect students' confidence in speaking English as they never witness effective NNS models who can effectively use accented English (Matsuda, 2003). Therefore, with WE principle 1- *Exposure and awareness of varieties of English*, all participants developed better attitudes towards their own English and other NNS varieties, and also developed more a realistic goal by putting aside the NS model. Moreover, *communication apprehension (CA) and fear of negative evaluation* was also reported to be reduced due to better attitudes and increased self-esteem. This could be because attitude, self-esteem and fear of negative evaluation are closely connected (Wang, 2010), and according to Boriboon (2011), most Thai students fear negative evaluation or social discrimination because they have developed a deep-seated inferior self-image or low self-esteem. Therefore, the development of self-esteem and a better attitude could lead to less CA and fear of negative evaluation and a reduction of overall FLCA. Furthermore, *negative attitudes towards English class* were also reported to be reduced, which could be due to the significant reduction of CA and fear of negative evaluation. This could be because high CA students were found to have negative attitudes towards English class and perform worse at school than their low CA counterparts (Horwitz et al., 1986).

In relation to WE principle 2 - *Politics and ownership to the English language*, the results from the interviews are consistent with Matsuda (2003) and Boriboon (2011) in finding that without knowledge of the colonial past as well as the real current uses and users of English based on traditional EFL curriculum, learners may assume that it is Inner Circle native speakers who have ownership of English and that their future interlocutors are limited to those from the Inner Circle countries, resulting in the development of unrealistic goal of achieving only NS norms. Therefore, with the shift to address WE principle 2 in class, most students showed the development of a sense of ownership of the English language and a more realistic goal, which increased their confidence in speaking their own English. This resonates with Jenkins (2009) in terms of the psychological impacts on language learners related to the perception of language ownership and students' goals. Thus, a more realistic goal could minimize tension and language anxiety among the students.

In relation to WE principle 3 - *Three types of culture*, the results corroborate the earlier WE study of Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) in that broader cultural understanding based on WE principle 3 could help increase students' confidence in their ability to extend and transfer their cultural knowledge to facilitate international communication, and help students become more aware that gaining cultural understanding and know how pragmatic differences may cause misunderstanding in cross-cultural communication, as well as gaining the ability to articulate one's convictions to an international audience is a more important objective for language learning than imitating NS (Matsuda & Duran, 2012), which is considered a more realistic learning goal by many WE/EIL scholars. As a result of more confidence in language ability and a realistic goal beyond NS, students' language anxiety seemed to be reduced accordingly.

Lastly in relation to WE principle 4 - *Communicative strategies*, the results affirm the importance of teaching communication strategies in EIL classrooms as addressed by Kubota (2012) in that it could help learners develop more confidence in their ability to communicate in English when confronting interlocutors from different

linguistic backgrounds as they can select different strategies to repair the possible communication breakdowns and also encourage them to use language more. Therefore, from the development of confidence in their language ability, self-esteem among the Thai students was increased, while language anxiety could be decreased accordingly.

To sum up, WE principle 1 was effective in helping students develop positive attitudes towards their own and other NNS varieties; WE principle 2 in helping develop a sense of ownership of the English language; WE principle 3 in helping develop confidence in the ability to extend a broader sense of cultural knowledge to facilitate international communication; WE principle 4 in helping develop confidence in the ability to use various communicative strategies to overcome communication difficulties. Consequently, these *affective* and *cognitive developments* led the students to develop a more realistic learning goal and their self-esteem through valuing their own English and other NNS varieties, and thus have more confidence to speak their own English, which are all considered as crucial means to help reduce anxiety (Tanveer, 2007; Greensberg et al., 2002 as cited in Ozwuebuzie, 1999; Young, 1999).

Further supplementary results were drawn from the overall analysis of the head notes, which also supported the effectiveness of WE-based lessons in terms of reducing FLCA by showing a lower FLCA level for the students in the experimental group compared to those in the control group, based on three behavioral aspects as a guideline to help the researcher when taking head notes: *a) high extent of participation* (e.g., eager volunteering and answering questions, active involvement in tasks); *b) communication apprehension behaviors* (e.g., talking more in class to both the teacher and classmates on the topic being discussed, remembering grammar rules and vocabulary, not trembling when being asked questions); *c) non-verbal cues* (e.g., smiling, laughing, making eye contact, not leaning backward and preferring to sit in the front row). In addition, the head notes included *vignettes*, which also supported the effectiveness of WE-based lessons, especially from WE principle 1 - *Exposure and awareness of varieties of English* and WE principle 2 - *Politics and ownership to the English language* in building up most students' realistic goal and self-esteem.

In summary, the supplementary results from the focus group interviews and most of the head notes supported the main findings from the FLCA questionnaire in that *'unrealistic learning goal and low self-esteem'* were found to be the specific anxieties that were most instrumental in the FLCA reduction. In other words, WE-based course was particularly effective in enabling students to set a realistic goal of being efficient English users rather than requiring NS competence, which increased their self-esteem and confidence in speaking English and reduced their anxiety accordingly.

With regard to the second research question, the analysis of data gained from the English achievement test indicated that the English achievement scores of the students in the experimental group were higher to a statistically significant degree compared to the scores of the students in the control group. Also, the experimental group showed a statistically significant increase between their pretest and posttest English achievement mean scores. That is to say, the students in the experimental group outperformed the students in the control group in terms of their achievement scores, which may have been the result of the FLCA reduction from the incorporation of WE-based lessons. The results confirm earlier anxiety studies, in finding that language anxiety has a negative correlation to language learning achievement (Tanelien, 2014; Chiang, 2012; Wang, 2010; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Horwitz, 2001; Ozwuebuzie et al., 1999; 2001; Phillip, 1992) and that language anxiety has been found to be one of the best predictors for foreign language achievement (Horwitz, 2001; Gardner, 1985 as cited in Ozwuebuzie et al., 2001).

Overall, the results of this study confirmed the effectiveness of the proposed model of WE concept into classroom practice (figure 2.3 in chapter 2) in reducing anxiety and bring about better language achievement. It was confirmed that learners feel better about their language learning or help them lower their affective filter like anxiety. Through the incorporation of WE, learners started to absorb a new set of goals and developed critical thinking about their own language learning goals to being *'effective EIL users'* rather native-like. Then, they started to envision possible success and have

more confidence in themselves, which are considered the crucial factors for language anxiety reduction, one of the best predictors for language achievement.

5.2 Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted over only one semester (four months). However, language learning is a long process. Therefore, conducting the study over a longer period or with learners at a younger age may have yielded more comprehensive findings. Moreover, the participants in this study were all first-year students at the lower-intermediate level based on the O-NET scores at one government university in Bangkok. The results thus may not represent the majority of Thai EFL students with different proficiency levels and from different university contexts. Moreover, as different genders have been found to yield different FLCA results among EFL learners, a study that includes a greater number of male students compared to female students, and vice versa, may provide different findings. In addition, this study employed a one-off interview, so it is possible that the participants might not yet be able to reveal their ambiguous, undecided, or contradictory feelings about issue in hand as well as the atmosphere of mutual trust could be still much challenged. Conducting a series of multiple focus group interviews could be another alternative worth considering. Lastly, although FLCA was recognized as one of the best predictors for learners' language learning achievement, the correlations between these two variables were not included in the analysis.

5.3 Recommendations for Further Studies

Since language learning is a complex issue and a long process, conducting the study with longitudinal case studies with learners at early schooling age is recommended to yield more comprehensive findings. The participants in this study were all first-year, lower-intermediate students from both the arts and science fields at a government university. Collecting data from participants of different schooling ages, proficiency levels, particular fields and gender may yield different and interesting findings. Moreover, since language anxiety is considered a complex issue and this study

employed a questionnaire, the head notes, and focus group interview method to investigate the effectiveness of WE lessons on reducing anxiety, it is recommended that future studies use other approaches (e.g., students' logs, unit reflections) to triangulate and yield more comprehensive and relevant findings regarding a complex issue like language anxiety. Also, a series of interviews (a serial focus group interviews) could be conducted instead of a one-off focus group interview to establish more rapport or trust between the interviewer and interviewees and to yield more in-depth of understanding to this issue. However, it is important that the researcher should find out the participants' willingness to take part in the series of interviews through explanation of why this study requires a series of meeting, for how long it would be, and what each meeting may involve. Moreover, an analytical study of each WE principle and each WE activity on reducing the five different specific anxieties might be further explored to yield more detailed results about which principle of WE and WE-based activity helps reduce FLCA at different levels.

5.4 Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

Since language anxiety is considered one of the best predictors accounting for individual differences in language learning success (Horwitz, 2001; Gardner, 1985 as cited in Ozwuebutie et al., 2001), it is the teacher's responsibility to take steps to explore their students' language anxiety sources and keep classroom anxiety at a minimal level in order to motivate students to perform better in language classrooms. Although it is impossible to completely eliminate all anxiety-provoking situations, it is essential for teachers to be aware of FLCA and carefully address anxiety-provoking situations and their sources through designing appropriate instructional pedagogy or teaching activities that can help students minimize their anxiety. This includes teachers' use of more relevant and realistic input related to students' communicative needs so that a low-stress and supportive language-learning environment can therefore be developed. However, since teaching and learning is context bound, an appropriate pedagogical practice should be considered and designed for particular teaching and learning contexts.

In Thailand, the way that Thai students tend to prioritize NS as the only way to become competent English users and devalue themselves for their local non-nativeness can be a major problem that causes learners to form language anxiety, which then hinders their language learning acquisition and achievement. The traditional assumptions of ELT in Thailand informed by NS ideology has been found not only to impair Thai students' self-esteem for being local NNS and increase their fear of speaking English (Boriboon, 2011), but it has also been determined to be at odds with the current English profile, especially with Thailand's membership in ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations), which necessitates that students be prepared to deal with diverse Englishes (Choomthong, 2014). The current profile implies the changing communicative needs of learners that occur among NNS-NNS rather than NS-NNS (McKay, 2012; Jenkins, 2009) and that English should be discussed under pluricentricity in approaches to the linguistics of English worldwide, rather than the monolingual view in which NS linguistic superiority is set (Kachru, 1996).

Therefore, this study challenges the NS guided practice that has long informed traditional ELT policy in Thailand and maintains the need for a paradigm shift and ELT curriculum enrichment to be more addressing WE/EIL notions in classroom implementation, which can minimize students' language anxiety and also better serve the current English profile. The enrichment in pedagogical tasks in this study was found to help learners develop a more realistic goal of being an *effective English user* that does not require NS competence (Matsuda, 2003), help develop better attitudes towards their own and other NNS varieties, as well as build up self-esteem and confidence in speaking English by allowing the students to express their national identity, leading to less anxiety and better language learning achievement. This study also maintains the need for English learners to be exposed to varieties of English, discussions on politics and the ownership of the English language, three types of cultural awareness, and communicative strategies in order to re-conceptualize the notion of *effective users* beyond nativeness, which resonates with Cook (1999) as cited in Jindapitak and Teo (2012, p.194) in that "*in order to make educational practices more realistic, up-to-date, and supportive of globalization,*

there is an urgent need to engage learners in a pedagogy that goes beyond the idea of nativeness”. The pedagogical tasks in this study also corroborate with Young (1999) who noted the importance of minimizing language anxiety among learners, encouraging teachers to:

...give priority to the language learners, in class practices and instructional materials should also emphasize what learners can accomplish, as opposed to what they cannot accomplish, in a context that promotes realistic language use. In addition giving priority to language learners would mean informing learners about why do what we do in class, dispelling misconceptions about language learning, offering them a sense of empowerment (p.245).

This study also resonates with McKay (2003) who mentioned that the new paradigm of EIL should be guided by the following ELT assumptions: (i) language learners have no need to internalize the inner circle norms; (ii) the English language belongs to whoever uses it; (iii) the language learning goal is to enable learners to communicate their voices and project their identity to others. These assumptions should guide pedagogical instruction in the language classroom in Thailand and ESL/EFL contexts elsewhere.

This study also suggests early WE in-class implementation and introducing it at different schooling ages (Boriboon, 2011) since attitudes and *linguistic prejudices* require time to be adjusted. Even though most students in this study recognized the importance of WE/EIL notions in studying English in this globalization era, few desired to acquire NS norms. Furthermore, the shift in classroom practice can hardly occur unless policymakers and teachers shift their traditional assumptions of ELT informed by NS ideology. This can be supported by professional development, teacher education and teacher pre-service to raise awareness of the current landscape of the English language to all teachers and policymakers whose scope might be limited to only the inner circle model.

Moreover, with the incorporation of WE/EIL, English class will be more than a language class where teachers teach only linguistic competence; instead, the learners will also be trained to critically reflect on their current roles as EIL users and be able to seek their own voice in English through the ‘facts’ about current EIL status rather than the ‘linguistic myth’ that advances NS as the only best model. However, this is not to say that NS models should be excluded from classroom practice altogether; *enriching* the global ELT curriculum will require expanding the current repertoire and sociolinguistic reality of English in ELT practice (Matsuda, 2003) and the introduction of English varieties, which represent a more realistic context of English where people bring diverse Englishes to approach their international communication.

Lastly, language teachers should keep in mind that they always have a choice regarding instructional models and whether they will be guided by the ‘*political constructs of the language*’ or ‘*linguistic reality*’. Teachers should not subscribe to the inner circle model only because it is taken for granted that there is nothing else to choose from and without questioning its appropriateness. This study hopes to provide an alternative for teachers and practitioners who are aware of the power of EIL. However, any pedagogical choice should be made based on critical considerations as no single prescribed method works in all situations. At best, this study sheds light on the implications of WE/EIL in the classroom, enabling teachers to incorporate such concepts into classroom practice in order to minimize students’ language anxiety and bring about better language achievement, while at the same time serving the current English profile that has reached its international status.

However, as noted by Matsuda (2003), being able to succeed in incorporating WE in classroom practice, we may need changes at multiple levels, not only classroom lessons, activities or teaching materials like textbooks, but also the long-held attitudes, assessment and society as a whole. WE/EIL not only requires practitioners to look beyond the practices and materials, but also shift the way that we look at English language as a whole and to gain real insights into what ‘international language’ should

look like. This is because the way we perceive how EIL should be taught and learned reflects and guides the ELT curriculum as a whole.



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The background of the page features a large, faint, circular watermark of the Thammasat University seal. The seal is circular with a double-lined border. Between the lines, the text "THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY" is written in English at the bottom and in Thai script at the top. The center of the seal contains a complex emblem, including a crown-like structure at the top, a central torch or flame-like element, and a base with lotus petals.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

แบบสำรวจความวิตกกังวลในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ

คำชี้แจงและวัตถุประสงค์

แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษางานวิจัยในหัวข้อเรื่อง ผลกระทบจากการสอดแทรกเนื้อหาด้าน World Englishes ต่อระดับความวิตกกังวลในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศและผลสัมฤทธิ์ในการเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนไทยระดับอุดมศึกษา ซึ่งใช้วัดระดับความวิตกกังวลในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนไทยระดับอุดมศึกษาขอความกรุณาตอบคำถามด้วยความเป็นจริงเกี่ยวกับตัวท่านและประสบการณ์การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียนนี้ คำตอบของท่านจะเป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งต่อการศึกษาในครั้งนี้ โดยผู้วิจัยจะเก็บรักษาข้อมูลส่วนตัวของท่านเป็นความลับ และจะไม่มีผลกระทบใดๆต่อเกรดในวิชานี้ ขอขอบคุณเป็นอย่างยิ่งในความร่วมมือของท่าน

คำแนะนำ

ข้อความแต่ละข้อต่อไปนี้ เป็นเรื่องเกี่ยวกับ ความวิตกกังวลในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียน ขอให้ผู้เรียนอ่านข้อความแต่ละข้อและพิจารณาว่าผู้เรียนมีความคิดเห็นตามข้อความที่อ่านนั้นในระดับใด โดยใส่เครื่องหมาย / ลงในช่อง (1,2,3,4,5) หลังข้อความนั้น คำตอบที่ท่านให้ไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิด

- 1 หมายถึง ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างมาก
- 2 หมายถึง ไม่เห็นด้วย
- 3 หมายถึง เฉยๆ
- 4 หมายถึง เห็นด้วย
- 5 หมายถึง เห็นด้วยอย่างมาก

	ข้อคำถาม	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
		1	2	3	4	5
ด้านที่ 1 - ความกังวลในการสื่อสารและความกลัวการถูกประเมินในทางลบ ข้อ 1-16						
1	ฉันรู้สึกกลัวจนตัวสั่นเมื่อรู้ว่าจะถูกเรียกให้ทำสิ่งใดสิ่งหนึ่งในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
2	ฉันรู้สึกไม่มั่นใจเมื่ออาสาตอบคำถามในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
3	ฉันรู้สึกใจเต้นแรงเมื่อรู้ว่าจะถูกเรียกให้ทำสิ่งใดสิ่งหนึ่งในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
4	ฉันรู้สึกกังวลมากเมื่อต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษต่อหน้านักเรียนคนอื่น ๆ					
5	ฉันรู้สึกกลัวว่านักเรียนคนอื่นจะหัวเราะเยาะเมื่อฉันพูดภาษาอังกฤษ					
6	ฉันคิดเสมอว่านักเรียนส่วนใหญ่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีกว่าฉัน					
7	ฉันมักจะประหม่าในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษมาก จนทำให้ลืมสิ่งต่างๆที่เคยเรียนมาแล้ว					
8	ฉันรู้สึกอยู่เสมอว่านักเรียนส่วนใหญ่พูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีกว่าฉัน					
9	ฉันรู้สึกมั่นใจเวลาพูดภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียน					
10	ฉันรู้สึกประหม่าเมื่อครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษถามคำถามที่ฉันไม่ได้เตรียมตัวมาก่อน					
11	แม้ว่าฉันได้เตรียมตัวมาอย่างดี แต่ฉันก็ยังรู้สึกวิตกกังวลในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
12	ยิ่งฉันศึกษาค้นคว้าเพื่อการสอบภาษาอังกฤษมากเท่าใด ก็ยิ่งมีความสับสนมากขึ้นด้วย					
13	ฉันรู้สึกตกใจกลัวเมื่อไม่เข้าใจว่าอาจารย์กำลังพูดอะไรในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
14	โดยปกติแล้ว ฉันไม่รู้สึกกังวลในขณะที่สอบภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียน					
15	ฉันไม่รู้สึกกังวลเมื่อแสดงความผิดพลาดในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
16	ฉันรู้สึกกลัวว่าครูที่สอนภาษาอังกฤษจะแก้ไขข้อผิดพลาดทุกอย่างที่ฉันทำ					
ด้านที่ 2 - ความกลัวการล้มเหลวในการเรียน (ข้อ 17-20)						
17	ฉันรู้สึกเป็นห่วงว่าตนเองจะประสบความล้มเหลวในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
18	การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียนดำเนินไปเร็วมากจนทำให้ฉันกลัวว่าจะเรียนตามไม่ทัน					
19	ฉันรู้สึกกังวลในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษมากกว่าชั้นเรียนวิชาอื่นๆ					
20	ฉันไม่รู้สึกกดดันที่ต้องเตรียมตัวเป็นอย่างดีก่อนเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
ด้านที่ 3 - ความสนใจในการสื่อสารกับเจ้าของภาษา (ข้อ 21-23)						
21	ฉันรู้สึกสบายใจเมื่ออยู่ท่ามกลางเจ้าของภาษา					
22	ฉันไม่เข้าใจว่าทำไมบางคนจึงรู้สึกว่าการอยู่อยู่ในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
23	ฉันไม่รู้สึกกลัวเมื่อจะต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับเจ้าของภาษา					
ด้านที่ 4 - ทัศนคติในทางลบต่อการเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ (ข้อ 24-26)						
24	ฉันรู้สึกลำบากใจที่ต้องลงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเพิ่มมากขึ้น					
25	ฉันรู้สึกไม่อยากจะไปเข้าเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ					
26	ฉันรู้สึกมั่นใจและผ่อนคลายมากเมื่อจะไปเข้าเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ					

		ข้อคำถาม		ระดับความคิดเห็น							
							1	2	3	4	5
ด้านที่ 5 - เป้าหมายในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษและความมั่นใจในตัวเอง (ข้อ 27-39)											
27	ฉันรู้สึกกังวลที่จะต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษให้ถูกต้องสมบูรณ์ตามหลักไวยากรณ์ทุกครั้งเมื่อพูดภาษาอังกฤษ										
28	ฉันคิดเสมอว่าฉันไม่มีทางที่จะสามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษแบบเจ้าของภาษาได้ไม่ว่าฉันจะพยายามมากขนาดไหนก็ตาม										
29	ฉันรู้สึกกังวลเมื่อต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษให้ได้เหมือนกับเจ้าของภาษา										
30	ฉันรู้สึกอายในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษด้วยสำเนียงไทยของฉัน										
31	การได้เรียนรู้ว่าสำเนียงการพูด คำศัพท์ สำนวน ไวยากรณ์ของภาษาอังกฤษมีหลากหลายมาตรฐานในโลก <u>จากการเรียนวิชา</u> นี้ช่วยลดความวิตกกังวลในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของฉันมากขึ้น										
32	การได้เรียนรู้ <u>จากวิชา</u> นี้ถึงประวัติศาสตร์ ผู้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษที่แท้จริงในปัจจุบันและความเป็นเจ้าของภาษาที่ไม่ได้เป็นของชาติอังกฤษหรืออเมริกาเท่านั้นอีกต่อไป ช่วยลดความวิตกกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของฉันได้ เมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับตอนก่อนเรียนวิชา										
33	การได้เรียนรู้ถึงการสื่อสารระหว่างวัฒนธรรมและความรู้เกี่ยวกับวัฒนธรรมที่กว้างขึ้น <u>จากวิชา</u> นี้ช่วยให้ฉันมีความมั่นใจในการสื่อสารด้วยภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้นกว่าเดิมก่อนเรียน										
34	ความรู้เกี่ยวกับกลยุทธ์ในการสื่อสาร <u>จากวิชา</u> นี้ช่วยให้ฉันมีความมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษมากขึ้น										
35	การได้เรียนรู้ <u>จากวิชา</u> นี้เกี่ยวกับการพัฒนาความสามารถในการสื่อสารระหว่างวัฒนธรรม ทำให้ฉันมีเป้าหมายในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษที่เป็นจริงมากขึ้น และทำให้เข้าใจว่าการเป็นผู้ที่จะสื่อสารด้วยภาษาอังกฤษได้ประสบความสำเร็จอย่างแท้จริงกับผู้อื่น <u>ไม่ใช่</u> การพูดได้เหมือนเจ้าของภาษา										
36	<u>หลังจากได้เรียนวิชา</u> นี้และได้เห็นตัวอย่างของการสื่อสารที่ล้มเหลวระหว่างคนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ อีกทั้งได้เห็นตัวอย่างการใช้กลวิธีเพื่อช่วยจัดการกับความไม่เข้าใจที่เกิดขึ้นระหว่างการสื่อสาร ช่วยให้ฉันมีความมั่นใจในการพูดและสื่อสารด้วยภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างสำเร็จมากขึ้น										
37	ฉันรู้สึกกังวลในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษมาโดยตลอด ส่วนหนึ่งเพราะฉันไม่เคยทราบว่าภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้ในส่วนต่างๆในโลกมีหลากหลายมาตรฐานนอกเหนือไปจากมาตรฐานแบบอเมริกันหรืออังกฤษ										
38	ฉันเชื่อว่าการเรียนและใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ต้องใช้ให้ถูกต้องตามต้นฉบับหรือมาตรฐานแบบอเมริกันหรืออังกฤษเท่านั้น ซึ่งมันทำให้ฉันรู้สึกเครียดและกังวลในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเสมอ										
39	ฉันเชื่อว่าปัจจุบันผู้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ใดใช้ภาษาอังกฤษส่วนใหญ่เพื่อติดต่อสื่อสารกับเจ้าของภาษา หรือคนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่มากกว่าใช้สื่อสารกับชาติอื่นๆ ฉันจึงรู้สึกกังวลในการที่จะต้องทำทุกอย่างเพื่อให้สามารถพูดหรือสื่อสารได้อย่างมาตรฐานแบบอังกฤษและอเมริกัน										

ข้อคิดเห็น/เสนอแนะเพิ่มเติม (หากมี*)

.....

ข้อมูลผู้ทำแบบสอบถาม

ชื่อ นามสกุล..... ชั้นปี คณะ

รหัสประจำตัว.....เบอร์ติดต่อ Email:



ขอขอบคุณเป็นอย่างยิ่งในความร่วมมือของท่าน



ผู้วิจัย: อ.จรรดา รัชนิ ฌ อุษธา / Contact: i_baitong@hotmail.com

อาจารย์ประจำภาควิชาภาษาต่างประเทศ สาขาภาษาอังกฤษ คณะมนุษยศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์

APPENDIX B

Sample of WE-based Lesson Plan#1 (week 3rd)

Course name: Foundation English II **Pre-requisite:** Foundation English I

Tasksheet#1:

- 1) Grammar: Past Simple Tense
- 2) Reading: Reading for the main idea and specific information
- 3) Expressions: Asking for and expressing opinions

Class Duration: 90 Minutes

Proficiency level: Lower-intermediate

Number of students: about 35 students

General course objectives: Students will

- Be able to apply significant English structures in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
- Be familiarized with real language communication.
- Be provided with essential knowledge of English for higher study
- Develop autonomous learning and be independent-thinking learner

WE objectives

- Develop awareness, familiarity, and positive attitudes towards the existence of varieties of English as well as variations of cultures existing among English speaking countries.
- Be provided with students' own and other cultures in a broader sense as a crucial basis to be able to recognize how pragmatic differences might affect their cross-cultural miscommunication.
- Develop awareness of EIL roles and EIL users' responsibility and their implications on language learning.

Focused structures (Past simple tense):

- S + V2

Focused skills:

- Integrated skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing)

WE incorporation focus: Variations in English used by people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds are unavoidable. This lesson focuses on different English varieties, people's uphold attitudes towards the variations and the implication for international communication.

Materials:

- Power Point
- Handouts (worksheet#1-2)
- Task sheet#1 (from Foundation English Course II)
- YouTube clips from the Internet
- Visualizer
- White board

Interactions:

T → C = teacher → whole class

T → GG = teacher → each group

GG = students work within their group

GG → C = Each group shares/ presents ideas to class

Note. This was 3rd week and the first class that WE concepts were incorporated into classroom teaching (into tasksheet#1). The last class was introductory lessons and students were assigned to study grammar point (Past simple tense) in advance from the Speexx online program. So today's class started with reviewing the vocabularies and Past Simple in tasksheet# 1 before moving on to WE-based lesson 1, which focused on three WE principles - *Exposure & Awareness to Varieties of English*, *Politics, Ownership & Responsibilities of EIL users*, and *Three types of cultures*.

The Sample of WE-based Lesson # 1: ‘Introduction & Exposure to Varieties of English from the Three Circles’

World Englishes Principles	Activity	Procedures	Aims	Materials	Interaction Patterns	Time (mins)
	Warm-up	<p>1. Students were put into a group of five students.</p> <p>2. Teacher initiated small talk about last night TV program by briefly running the story in Past Tenses. Then, the teacher asked the questions: "<i>What did you watch last night?</i>" and "<i>What did you find interesting about it?</i>".</p> <p>Teacher also asked students to notice the form of Past Simple tense and its use to prepare students for Activity #1.</p>	-To activate students' knowledge on Past Simple.	-Power Point	<p>GG</p> <p>T → C</p>	<p>1</p> <p>3</p>
1. Exposure & Awareness of English varieties	Activity 1: <i>Introduction: Awareness-raising to varieties of English (Singlish)</i>	<p>1. Students were asked to listen to the monologue spoken by Singapore English accent and help each other in group fill in the blanks with verbs of Past Simple. The audio was played twice.</p> <p>2. Teacher asked each group to give out the answers.</p>	<p>- Apply linguistic structure focusing on the past simple tense in listening, reading, speaking, and writing.</p> <p>- Be provided with essential knowledge of English for higher study</p> <p>-Develop awareness of the existence of varieties of English and variations of cultures existing among English speaking countries.</p>	<p>- Work sheet#1: Part A (Practice Past Simple)</p> <p>-Power Point</p> <p>-Audio clip (Singapore English monologue)</p>	<p>GG</p> <p>T → GG</p>	<p>5</p> <p>5</p>

World Englishes Principles	Activity	Procedures	Aims	Materials	Interaction Patterns	Time (mins)
1. Exposure & Awareness of English varieties 2. Three types of cultures	Activity 2: <i>Notice English language and culture variations</i>	1. Students were asked to read the complete passage again and answer the questions based on the passage with their group e.g., - Where did the speaker go at lunchtime? - When he found a seat, what did he use to reserve the seat? - Which word from this passage means “feel good”?	- Apply linguistic structure focusing on Past Simple tense in reading and writing. - Be familiarized with real language communication. - Be provided with essential knowledge of English for higher study. - Develop awareness of the existence of varieties of English and variations of cultures existing among English speaking countries. - Be provided with students' own and other cultures in a broader sense to be able to recognize how pragmatic differences might affect their cross-cultural miscommunication.	-Work sheet#1: Part B (Reading for specific information) -Power Point -Work sheet#1: Part B (Reading for specific information) -Power Point	GG	5
		2. Teacher discusses the answers with class.			T → C	5
		3. Teacher asked the post-questions from worksheet #1. Each group shared their ideas based on the following prompts. -What is nationality of the speaker? How did you know? -What did you find to be like Thai culture? Or unlike? -What are some unfamiliar words you never saw in English?			T → C GG → C	10
		4. Teacher encouraged students to notice English language variations they might not be familiar with (e.g., the words 'song lah', 'pei seh', 'wah') and explained the meaning and concept that differences do not mean wrong or inferior. Rather, variations in English are natural and they occur because people of different cultures experience the same thing differently. People who speak one variety may feel in different way about other varieties of English, and that is natural. -Teacher also explained that other varieties other than US and UK are also considered legitimate English, and that students should be aware of their own attitude in international communication. -Teacher also encouraged students to notice and reflect on cultural differences between Singapore and Thailand in order to reflect on their own cultures.			T → C	8

World Englishes Principles	Activity	Procedures	Aims	Materials	Interaction Patterns	Time (mins)
1. Exposure & Awareness of English varieties	Activity 3: Part A- <i>Listening to the main idea from speakers from the inner circle, outer circle, and expanding circle countries</i>	1. In group, students were asked to listen to five YouTube clips and note down the main idea of each clip. Each clip took about 1.30 minutes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Apply linguistic structure in listening, reading, speaking and writing. - Be familiarized with real language communication. - Develop awareness of the existence of varieties of English and variations of cultures existing among English speaking countries. 	- Work sheet#2 Part A: (Uncover attitudes) - Power Point - YouTube clips - Transcript	GG	7
		2. Students were given the script to compare their answers and then teacher discussed the answers with the whole class.			GG	7
		3. Post-question from Activity3: Part A. Teacher asked each group to think about the following questions and share with class (<i>Which clip did you understand and get the main idea most correctly; Which clip are you most likely to be listening in classroom?</i>).			T → GG	2
1. Exposure & Awareness of English varieties	Activity 3: Part B- <i>Uncovering Attitude towards English accent variations</i>	1. Students were asked to listen to 5 YouTube clips again and provide their reactions to the accents in the audio clips. The students discussed their ideas with their group based on the following questions and then shared to class. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>What is the nationality of the speakers in each clip?</i> - <i>What are the reasons for your responses?</i> - <i>Which one is the most difficult-to-understand to easiest-to-understand accent?</i> - <i>Which one is the most to the least familiar accent?</i> - <i>Which one is the accent you like the most to the least?</i> - <i>A person who sounds the most intelligent to the least.</i> - <i>Which accent do you think English should be spoken? Why?</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Apply significant English structures in speaking (asking for and giving opinions). - Develop familiarity, awareness, and positive attitudes towards the existence of varieties of English. - Develop awareness of the role of EIL and roles EIL users and their implications on language learning. 	-Work sheet#2: Part B (Uncover attitudes) - Power Point - YouTube clips	GG GG → C	10
		2. Teacher asked each group to share their ideas to each question and tallied on the PowerPoint. Teacher also asked each group to elaborate on the reasons for their answers to uncover their attitudes and make them aware of their own attitudes.			T → GG	5

World Englishes Principles	Activity	Procedures	Aims	Materials	Interaction Patterns	Time (mins)
		3. Teacher asked students whether their attitudes was true and summarized their answers and tally scores from each question, derived from their uphold beliefs and prejudices which are in fact a natural process of human beings. However, students need to be aware of that these stereotypes are more something created rather than a definite truth.			T → C	3
		4. Teacher further asked students to list down in their group what could be language barriers to the understanding of different accents (e.g. level of familiarity with accent, prejudice), and also provide ways to overcome these barriers (e.g. increase exposure, familiarity of topic, being more tolerant of different accents).			GG	3
		5. Each group shared their ideas to class.			GG → C	2
1. Exposure & Awareness of English varieties 2. Politics, Ownership of English, Role of EIL and EIL users	Activity 3: Part C- <i>Attitudinal Adjustment</i>	1. Students watched 2 YouTube clips of Thai speakers and discussed the questions with their group and shared with class e.g., - <i>What are the nationalities of these speakers?</i> - <i>Do you think they are proficient users of English? Why?</i> - <i>Do you think being successful or proficient speakers of English require being or speaking like native speaker (American/British)? Why?</i> - <i>Do you think it is right or wrong to judge people's ability from their accent and ethnic? Why?</i>	- Apply significant English structures in speaking (asking for and giving opinions). - Develop familiarity, awareness, and positive attitudes towards the existence of varieties of English. - Develop awareness of the role of EIL and roles EIL users and their implications on language learning. - Develop autonomous learning.	- Work sheet#2 : Part C (Attitude adjustment) - Power Point - YouTube clips	GG GG → C	5

World Englishes Principles	Activity	Procedures	Aims	Materials	Interaction Patterns	Time (mins)
1. Exposure & Awareness of English varieties 2. Politics, Ownership of English, Role of EIL and EIL users 3. Three types of cultures	Wrap up	1. Teacher concluded today's main points and objectives: to review the grammar rules of past simple tense; to give students opportunity to become aware of and recognize the varieties of English existence, and cultural variations existing in English speaking countries, and the role of EIL.	- Develop awareness, familiarity, and positive attitudes towards the existence of varieties of English as well as variations of cultures existing among English speaking countries. - Be provided with students' own and other cultures in a broader sense to be able to recognize how pragmatic differences might affect their cross-cultural miscommunication. - Develop awareness of EIL roles and EIL users' responsibility & implications on language learning.	- Power Point	T → C	3
1. Exposure & Awareness of Varieties of English 2. Politics, Ownership of English, Role of EIL and EIL users	Class assignment/ Homework	1. Teacher provided some key words for students to check out other varieties of English, in particular in Asian context such as Malaysian English, Philippines English, or Indian English, and find 1-2 English vocabularies and the meanings of non-native varieties of English that were unfamiliar to them and interested them to share in next class. 2. Write reflections in portfolio on the following topics: - <i>What did the students learn in class? (Grammar or else)</i> - <i>Other reflections: overall feelings, learning difficulties, how did the students solve these problems; etc.</i>	- Apply linguistic structure in listening, reading, speaking, writing. - Be provided with essential knowledge of English for higher study. - Develop autonomous learning and be independent thinking learner. - Develop awareness, familiarity, and positive	- YouTube, Websites, Movies, News, magazine, books - Portfolio sheet (provided by teacher)	T → C T → C	1 1

World Englishes Principles	Activity	Procedures	Aims	Materials	Interaction Patterns	Time (mins)
			<p>attitudes towards the existence of varieties of English as well as variations of cultures existing among English speaking countries.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be provided with students' own and other cultures in a broader sense to be able to recognize how pragmatic differences might affect their cross-cultural miscommunication. - Develop awareness of EIL roles and EIL users' responsibility and their implications on language learning. - Be familiarized with real language communication. 			

APPENDIX C

Interview Guideline Questions

คำถามสำหรับสอบถามกลุ่มตัวอย่างในการวิจัย

Thai Tertiary EFL Students' Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Descriptions

This focus group interview is part of a study title “The Incorporation of World Englishes into EFL classroom Practice: Effects on Anxiety and Language Achievement of Thai Tertiary Students” to measure whether the reduction of anxiety is really caused by the incorporation of World Englishes-based lessons. Please provide true information about your foreign language learning experience in class. Your responses are valuable and considered highly confidential.

คำชี้แจง

คำถามในการสัมภาษณ์กลุ่มตัวอย่างในการวิจัยฉบับนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษางานวิจัยในหัวข้อ The Incorporation of World Englishes into EFL classroom: Effects on Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and Language Achievement of Thai Tertiary Students (ผลกระทบจากการสอดแทรกเนื้อหาด้าน World Englishes ต่อความวิตกกังวลในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ และความสัมฤทธิ์ผลในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนไทยระดับอุดมศึกษาที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ) ซึ่งใช้วัดว่าการลดลงของความวิตกกังวลของนักเรียนไทยระดับอุดมศึกษา เกิดจากการเรียนรู้เนื้อหาและหลักการของ World Englishes จริง ซึ่งมีหลักการอยู่ 4 ข้อ อันได้แก่ การตระหนักรู้และเคารพในมาตรฐานภาษาอังกฤษอื่นๆ นอกจากอเมริกันและอังกฤษ, การเรียนรู้ประวัติศาสตร์ ผู้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษที่แท้จริงในปัจจุบันตลอดจนความเป็นเจ้าของภาษา, การได้เรียนรู้ถึงการสื่อสารระหว่างวัฒนธรรม และความรู้เกี่ยวกับกลยุทธ์ในการสื่อสาร ขอความกรุณาตอบคำถามด้วยความจริงเกี่ยวกับตัวท่านและประสบการณ์การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียน คำตอบของท่านจะเป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งต่อการศึกษาในครั้งนี้ และผู้วิจัยจะเก็บรักษาข้อมูลส่วนตัวของท่านเป็นความลับ

No.	Interview Guideline Questions	Note
1	Describe your feelings about learning English language during the course (e.g.enjoyed, relaxed, stress, terrified, anxious)	
	อธิบายความรู้สึกของคุณระหว่างการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในคอร์สนี้ เช่น มีความสุข ผ่อนคลาย เครียด กลัว กังวล	
2	To what extent do you think you experience anxiety in English class? And what are the possible factors?	
	ลองเปรียบเทียบก่อนและหลังเรียน คุณคิดว่าคุณมีความวิตกกังวลในการเรียน	
	ภาษาอังกฤษในคอร์สนี้แตกต่างไปหรือไม่ มากน้อยแค่ไหน เพราะเหตุใด	
3	What do you like or don't like learning in this course? Any differences you found in learning this course compared to the previous?	
	คุณชอบหรือไม่ชอบอะไรในการเรียนในคอร์สนี้ และรู้สึว่าการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในคอร์สนี้ต่างจากคอร์สอื่นๆที่เคยเรียนมาหรือไม่ อย่างไร คิดว่าอะไรเป็นส่วนช่วย	
4	What concept did you learn in this course and find to help you reduce anxiety, or increase your self-esteem in learning English?	
	จากการเรียนในคอร์สนี้ มีแนวคิดหรือความรู้ใดที่คุณได้เรียนรู้	
	และคิดว่ามีส่วนช่วยให้คุณลดความวิตกกังวลในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ หรือ	
	เพิ่มความมั่นใจในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษให้กับคุณได้	
5	Do you think the awareness of English varieties/ knowledge about English language history, current users and ownership of English/ intercultural communication knowledge/ communication strategies help reduce your anxiety in learning and speaking English? How?	
	<p>คุณคิดว่าปัจจัยต่อไปนี้มีส่วนช่วยลดความวิตกกังวลในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของคุณได้หรือไม่ อย่างไร</p> <p>5.1 การได้สัมผัสและทราบถึงถึงความหลากหลายในมาตรฐานและลักษณะของภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้จริงในส่วนต่างๆของโลก</p> <p>5.2 การได้รับความรู้เรื่องประวัติของภาษาอังกฤษ และความเป็นเจ้าของภาษา</p> <p>5.3 การได้ความรู้ด้านวัฒนธรรมที่หลากหลายและการสื่อสารระหว่างวัฒนธรรม</p> <p>5.4 การได้รับความรู้ด้านกลยุทธ์ในการสื่อสาร</p>	

No.	Interview Guideline Questions	Note
6	Describe your feelings or attitude when you hear your friends or anyone speak English with Thai accent or any accent differing from the native speakers?	
	คุณรู้สึกอย่างไรเมื่อได้ยินเพื่อนร่วมชั้นพูดภาษาอังกฤษด้วยสำเนียงไทยหรือสำเนียงที่ต่างไปจากสำเนียงอังกฤษหรืออเมริกัน	
7	How do you feel about yourself if you have Thai accent when speaking English?	
	คุณรู้สึกอย่างไรกับตนเองหากคุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษด้วยสำเนียงไทยหรือสำเนียงที่ต่างไปจากสำเนียงอังกฤษหรืออเมริกัน	
8	Do you think an English language learning goal is necessarily to be able to speak like native speakers from America or Britain?	
	คุณคิดว่าส่วนหนึ่งของเป้าหมายในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของคุณคือการพูดได้เหมือนเจ้าของภาษา เช่นคนอังกฤษหรืออเมริกันหรือไม่ เพราะเหตุใด อธิบายขยายความ	
9	Do you think these following four principles help you gain more confidence and change your learning goal: Awareness of English varieties; Knowing history and ownership of English language; having intercultural communicative competence; having communication strategies? If yes, how?	
	การเรียนรู้ 4 ประเด็นนี้ ทำให้คุณรู้สึกมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษและมีเป้าหมายในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษที่เปลี่ยนไปหรือไม่ อย่างไร	

Further notes by the researcher:

- 1) ความสัมพันธ์ของระดับความวิตกกังวลที่ลดลงกับการเรียนรู้ในหลักการของ World Englishes
- 2) ด้านการพัฒนาเป้าหมายทางการเรียนที่เป็นจริงและความมั่นใจในตนเองจากการเรียนรู้ในหลักการของ World Englishes

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APPENDIX D

Head notes form

<p><u>Headnotes</u></p> <p>Date/Time: Week#..... Group:</p> <p>Lesson Plan (#) & Topic: Resources used:</p> <p>WE Principles:</p> <p>Objectives:</p> <p>Classroom context:</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>	
<p>Descriptions of specific events/ activities/ actions taking place (+ supportive actual language/ vignettes)</p>	<p>Researcher's comments/ reflections</p>

Adapted from Lankshear and Knobel (2004).

APPENDIX D

CHECKLIST (in researcher's mind)

Observed Behaviors: Students' behaviors as signs of foreign language anxiety

Direction: Check if the students display the following behaviors

Focus of the head notes based on Gregersen and Horwitz (2002), Horwitz et al. (1986), Liu and Jackson (2008), Chan and Wu (2004), Beltran (2013), McCroskey and Sheahan (1978) as cited in Matthew and Scott (2006), Gregersen (2005), which may include:

1) Extent of participation: (Liu & Jackson, 2008)

	Yes	No
• eagerness to volunteer and answer questions	_____	_____
• active involvement in tasks	_____	_____
• willingness to ask the teacher when uncertain instead of asking classmates	_____	_____

When: How often:
looking at **when** and **how often** the participants respond to the teacher

2) CA Behaviors: (McCroskey & Sheahan, 1978 as cited in Matthew & Scott, 2006)

	Yes	No
• talking more in class to both the teacher and classmates on the topic being discussed	_____	_____
• being active rather than silent	_____	_____
• forgetting vocabularies & grammar rules (Beltran, 2013)	_____	_____
• tremble when being called (Horwitz, 1986)	_____	_____

2) Non-verbal behaviors: as articulate expression of foreign language anxiety.

	Yes	No
• an impassive facial expression coupled with a jiggling foot	_____	_____
• less smiling	_____	_____
• backward lean	_____	_____
• closed body position	_____	_____
• less making eye contact with teacher	_____	_____

Other related notes:

e.g., *teacher's different activities based on WE principles* in relation to the students' FLCA - participation or engagement behaviors.

BIOGRAPHY

Name	Ms. Jaruda Rajani Na Ayuthaya
Date of Birth	May 31, 1983
Educational Attainment	2001-2005: Bachelor of Arts, English Thammasat University 2005-2007: Master of Education (TESOL- International) Monash University, Melbourne, Australia
Work Position	Full-time English Instructor The Foreign Language Department, Faculty of Humanities, Kasetsart University
Publications	Rajani Na Ayuthaya, J. & Sitthitikul, P. (2016). World Englishes-based lessons: Their effects on anxiety and language achievement of Thai tertiary students. <i>Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)</i> , 7(2), 201-233.
Work Experiences	May 2015-present: Assistant Secretary to Thailand TESOL Executive Committees Thailand TESOL Organization April 2011-present: Full-time English Instructor The Foreign Language Department, Faculty of Humanities, Kasetsart University Sept 2008-2010: Marketing Communication PTT Chemical Public Company Limited Mar-Sept 2008: Division Manager Watch Department, Central Retail Corporation Limited

Oct 2007-present: Special English Instructor
To Be Number 1 Project under Her Royal
Highness Princess Ubolratana Rajakanya
Sirivadhana Barnavadi

Nov-Dec 2005: Special English Lecturer
Faculty of Hospitality Industry and Tourism,
Rangsit University

May 2004: Liaison Personnel

The 2nd Assembly of the International
Parliamentarians' Association for Information and
Technology (IPAII), hosted by The Parliament
of Thailand

May 2003: Intern Assistant

The United Nations Development Programme
(UNPD)