BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING
AND TEACHING APPROACHES OF
PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS
IN THAILAND

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BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, researchers in the field of second language acquisition have shown great interest in learners’ individual characteristics that can affect the learners’ success in language learning. Beliefs about language learning have been one of the research focuses. Researchers have found that second language learners come to the language class with some preconceived ideas or beliefs about language and language learning and that these beliefs can indicate what expectations the learners have and what actions in their language learning they will take (Abraham and Vann, 1987; Holec, 1987; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1987). Therefore, researchers have been investigating the beliefs that second language learners possess and the factors that affect learners’ beliefs in order to find ways to help learners adjust their beliefs to facilitate their language learning.

A number of studies have been conducted in the past two decades to examine beliefs about language learning of various groups of second language learners including native English speakers studying foreign languages (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Mori, 1999), ESL learners (Cotterall, 1995; Horwitz, 1987; Wenden, 1986, 1987), and EFL learners (Peacock, 1999; Sakui and Gaiés, 1999; Truitt, 1995; Wen and Johnson, 1997; Yang, 1999). Furthermore, in some studies, the relationships between learners’ beliefs about language learning and factors that can affect language learning success such as motivation, autonomy, language learning strategies, and anxiety were investigated and found. Also, some beliefs about language learning have been found to correlate with
English proficiency. These findings suggest that second language teachers, with an understanding of learners’ beliefs about language learning, can help enhance learners’ success in language learning two ways: by promoting their students’ beliefs that are facilitative to language learning and by refining those that are debilitative.

As researchers hope to find ways to adjust and refine learners’ beliefs, studies about teachers’ beliefs have become another interest of researchers in the field and are the focus of several studies. These studies are based on the assumptions that learners develop their beliefs about language learning from their learning experiences (Horwitz, 1987; Mori, 1999) and that teacher beliefs influence their classroom practices which, in turn, can affect their students’ learning (Johnson, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

The studies of teachers’ beliefs about language learning generally aim to examine 1) relationships between teacher beliefs and student beliefs (Kern, 1995; Peacock, 1999; Samimy and Lee, 1997) and 2) effects of teacher beliefs on their classroom practices (Burns, 1996; Johnson, 1992, 1994; Smith, 1996). Insights gained from these studies contribute to an understanding of how learner beliefs are developed.

The studies of teacher beliefs about language learning include not only in-service teachers but also pre-service teachers. Take into consideration possible effects of teacher beliefs on their instructional practices which consequently affect learners’ learning experiences, researchers have been examining the development of teacher beliefs during teacher education programs. As found in Horwitz (1985), pre-service second language teachers enter teacher education programs with preexisting ideas about language and language learning, just like second language learners. Some ideas that the pre-service teachers possess may inhibit their learning of new approaches and techniques in the
teacher education programs (Dole & Sinatra, 1994; Horwitz, 1985) which can limit their choices of instructional practices. Therefore, it is hoped that pre-service teachers, while they are in teacher education programs, refine their beliefs about language learning to enhance their own learning and development.

Even though a substantial number of studies have been conducted to examine pre-service teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning during their teacher education programs, little attempt has been made in investigating beliefs of pre-service ESL/EFL teachers. Only a few studies (Almarza, 1996; Brown & McGannon, 1998; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Johnson, 1994; Peacock, 2001) focused on pre-service ESL/EFL teachers’ belief development during their teacher education programs and only Peacock conducted his study in an EFL context. He was interested in the development of pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning over the course of TESL methodology courses. There had not been a study that focused on development of beliefs about language learning during practice teaching—the first teaching experience of most pre-service teachers. In addition, effects of pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning on their instructional practices had not been explored.

**Purposes of the Study**

Therefore, in the present study, I attempted to investigate beliefs about language learning of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand in order to find out whether they possessed any beliefs that might be debilitative to their own learning or to that of their prospective students. Changes in their beliefs after experiencing classrooms and students during their practice teaching were also explored. Furthermore, relationships between the
pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning and their choices of teaching approaches were examined.

**Significance of the Study**

In Thailand, the current National Curriculum sets foreign languages as one of the eight basic education core subjects that schools have to offer and that Thai students have to pass before graduation from each level (Academic Affairs Department, 2002). English is a “main” foreign language that schools have to offer starting from Grade 1 to 12. The curriculum encourages schools to design their own English curriculum to respond to the needs to use English of the local community. The National Curriculum only sets four main goals of foreign language instruction for schools to adopt in their school curriculum. These goals are presented as follows:

1. Language for communication
2. Language and culture
3. Language and other content subjects
4. Language and local and world communities

These goals reflect concepts of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (Littlewood, 1981) in that they aim to promote learners’ ability to use the foreign language they learn as a means for communication.

The concepts of teaching English for communication can still be considered new to a number of EFL teachers in Thailand even though such concepts have appeared in the previous national curriculums for the past two decades. The Communicative Approach has also been introduced in EFL teacher education programs for a number of years. In practice, though, this approach has not yet been fully adopted. From my experience as an
EFL learner and teacher, a number of EFL classes in Thailand are still based on the traditional approach that focuses on grammar instruction and sentence structure drills rather than the communicative approach that emphasizes the practice of English for communication purposes.

Based on the findings of previous studies about the effects of teacher beliefs on their instructional practices and about belief development, I hypothesized that the EFL teachers in Thailand who still cling to the traditional approach of foreign language instruction might have developed their beliefs about language learning from the classrooms that focused on form and that these beliefs influenced the choice of teaching approaches they used in their own classrooms. Since the pre-service EFL teachers participating in the present study have been educated in the period of the communication based curriculums, insights about their beliefs about language learning and about the teaching approaches they employed in their classrooms will contribute to an understanding of how teacher education programs in Thailand can help prepare pre-service EFL teachers to be acceptable to the Communicative Approach and be willing to adopt the approach in their classrooms.

**Organization of the Chapters**

In this chapter, I have provided an overview of the significance of the studies of beliefs about language learning in general and of the present study. The next chapter presents a review of relevant literature in which I discuss concepts and definitions of beliefs about language learning, relationships between learner beliefs about language learning and other influencing factors to language learning, relationships between teacher and learner beliefs, relationships between teacher beliefs about language learning and
classroom practices, and development of pre-service teachers’ beliefs during teacher education programs. Chapter 3 describes the methodology of the present study. The research questions, participants, materials, methods of data collection and data analysis are explained. Chapter 4 presents the findings from the survey phase. I also discuss pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning that can be facilitative and debilitating to their language learning or to their prospective students’ learning and about beliefs that changed during their practice teaching. Chapter 5 presents the findings obtained from the qualitative study phase about four pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning and their teaching approaches during their practice teaching. The four pre-service teachers’ learning experiences and beliefs about language learning are discussed in relation to the teaching approaches they employed during their practice teaching. Also, background information about the practice program in which the four pre-service teachers were enrolled is presented. The last chapter, Chapter 6, presents a summary of the findings from the two phases of the study, a conclusion, and implications of the study.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter provides a theoretical background of studies on beliefs about language learning. I first discuss concepts of beliefs about language learning including their definitions, characteristics, and development. Secondly, studies that investigated relationships between beliefs about language learning and factors that are influential to language learning are reviewed. Thirdly, a summary of potential impacts of beliefs about language learning on language learning itself based on the findings and arguments from previous studies is presented. Fourthly, studies that investigated teacher beliefs about language learning are reviewed. Lastly, the development of pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning during teacher education programs is discussed.

Beliefs about Language Learning

Beliefs about language learning, as well as other cognitive and affective variables, have become an interest of researchers in the field of second language acquisition because of assumptions that “success depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom” (Stevick, 1980, p.4). According to Stevick, what goes on inside learners, which includes learners’ beliefs, seems to have a strong impact on learners’ learning process.

Researchers have long claimed that people possess some preconceived ideas about various issues and that these beliefs can influence their understanding of and
reactions towards new information. Puchta (1999), for instance, claimed that beliefs are “guiding principles” of people’s behaviors. He elaborated that beliefs “are generalizations about cause and effect, and [that] they influence our inner representation of the world around us. They help us to make sense of that world, and they determine how we think and how we act” (pp. 68-69). According to Puchta, people interpret new information and react to it on the basis of preexisting ideas about the particular subject.

Alike, second and foreign language learners do not come to class without ideas about the nature and process of the learning. They have some presumptions about what language learning is and how a second language should be learned (Horwitz, 1987). These preexisting beliefs are claimed to have influential impacts on learner’s approaches and behaviors in the learning process (Horwitz, 1987; White, 1999). Some researchers proposed that some beliefs are beneficial to learners while others argue that some beliefs can lead to negative effects on language learning. For instance, Mantle-Bromley (1995) suggested that learners who have positive attitudes and realistic language-related beliefs are more likely to behave in a more productive way in learning than those who have negative attitudes and mistaken beliefs. Similarly, Mori (1999) claimed that positive beliefs can compensate for learners’ limited abilities. In contrast, Horwitz (1987) was concerned that some misconceptions or erroneous beliefs may undermine learners’ success in language learning.

With these assumptions about how beliefs can affect learners’ behaviors and success, researchers in second language acquisition have been investigating learners’ beliefs about language learning for more than two decades with the hope that an understanding about the beliefs that second and foreign language learners bring to class
may help them design language classes and curricular that accommodate learners’ beliefs. In addition, beliefs that can potentially cause negative effects on learners’ success in language learning are hoped to be refined.

**Definitions of Beliefs about Language Learning**

Some researchers viewed beliefs about language learning as a part of metacognitive knowledge; however, Wenden (1998) claimed that in second and foreign language literature, these two terms are used interchangeably to refer to the same construct. The term, beliefs about language learning, were not clearly defined by researchers in previous studies. It seems either that the researchers assumed that the term can be understood intuitively or that the construct is too complex to be operationalized. In most studies, the term, beliefs about language learning, is used as a known construct without providing further explanation while some studies define the term beliefs alone.

Even Elaine Horwitz, one of the pioneer researchers of the studies on beliefs about language learning, did not give an operational definition of beliefs about language learning in her articles (Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988). She only refers to “beliefs” using the terms such as preconceptions (1985), preconceived ideas (1987), and preconceived notions (1988) without giving specific descriptions about the construct. In the important statement used to introduce her instrument, the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory, which has become one of the most widely used instruments in studies on beliefs about language learning, she used the word opinions to refer to beliefs, the construct that the inventory is aimed for. She stated, “The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was developed to assess student opinions [italic] on a variety of issues and controversies related to language learning” (p. 120, 1987).
In a number of studies, the definition of *beliefs* alone is provided. Nevertheless, researchers do not seem to have reached the same consensus about the meaning of beliefs. Because of its complexity, it may be difficult to generate a fixed set of meaning or to be defined precisely. Pajares (1992) stated that, “defining beliefs is at best a game of player’s choice” (p. 309). Further, he provided that an extensive list of words like the one below can be found in the literature as a reference of *beliefs*:

- attitude, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding, and social strategy (p. 309)

Pajares pointed out that a confusion researchers have in defining the term *beliefs* is the distinction between beliefs and knowledge; some argue that they are the same whereas others perceive that they are different. Pajares concluded that a distinction used commonly in most definitions is that “Belief is based on evaluation and judgment; knowledge is based on objective fact” (p. 313). Consistently, the definitions used in studies on beliefs about language learning seem to reflect this argument.

The followings are some definitions of beliefs used in previous studies.

Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000), drawing from Harvey (1986), defined beliefs as “a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action” (p. 388). Peacock’s (2001) operational definition of beliefs, adopted from Richardson (1996), is “psychologically held understandings, premises, or
propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (p. 178). Huang (1997) viewed beliefs about language learning as “preconceptions language learners have about the task of learning the target language” (p. 29). Kunt (1997) and Wang (1996) used the terms “opinions” and “ideas” or “views” to refer to “beliefs.” The definitions of beliefs used in these studies project some level of subjective, judgmental value, as suggested by Pajares (1992).

In the present study, I construe beliefs about language learning as personal knowledge about second or foreign language learning including issues such as who can learn a second or foreign language (who), the reasons why people should learn a second or foreign language (why), the best way to learn a second or foreign language (how), the learning tasks that should be included in the learning (what), and the best place or environment and time to learn the language (where and when). Furthermore, I assume that beliefs about language learning contain some personal judgment value about these issues, not sole knowledge about the issues. In other words, beliefs about language learning are ideas that learners hold and think that they are true about language learning, which may be different from the actual information the learners have received.

Characteristics of Beliefs about Language Learning

Beliefs about language learning have been described as complex related constructs that are relational and context specific. Wenden (1998) described metacognitive knowledge or beliefs about language learning as “a system of related ideas” that are “a part of a learner’s store of acquired knowledge” (p.517). Similarly, Mori (1999) proposed that beliefs about language learning consist of several independent constructs. She found that her six proposed belief dimensions: perception of the difficulty
(Kanji is difficult, Japanese is easy), the effectiveness of approaches to or strategies for language learning (risk taking, analytic approach, avoid ambiguity), and the source of linguistic knowledge (reliance on L1) were not correlated to each other or only correlated at the low level. In addition, she found that beliefs about language learning were independent of epistemological beliefs or beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning in general, suggesting that beliefs about language learning are independent constructs.

Evidence was shown in several studies that beliefs are relational and context specific. First of all, Horwitz (1999) reviewed several studies on beliefs about language learning and found that beliefs about language learning were relational, depending on learning circumstances and the nature of the target language. Variations were found in beliefs of learners who were studying different languages and of those who studied in different learning circumstances.

Particularly, she found that EFL learners and foreign language learners in the U.S. had different beliefs about their motivation for language learning. The EFL learners learned English because of instrumental motivation while foreign language learners learned the target language because of integrative motivation. Furthermore, she found variations in beliefs of learners of different target languages. Specifically, in her review, American students of Japanese had different beliefs from the students of the other foreign languages in the aspects of the difficulty of language learning, foreign language aptitude, the nature of language learning, and expectations about job opportunities. The learners of Japanese viewed their target language in a more difficult level and estimated that it would take more time to learn the language. They believed in the existence of foreign language
aptitude more strongly but did not think that they themselves had the aptitude. Their views about the importance of the learning of vocabulary and grammar were also different from the American students of other foreign languages. The Japanese learners believed it was important to learn vocabulary and grammar while the others did not. In regard to job opportunities, they were more optimistic than the others; they thought Japanese would create more job opportunities for them.

Consistently, Sakui and Gaies (1999) found that inconsistency in beliefs about language learning may result from the context that the respondents based their responses on. In their study of Japanese learners, they found that respondents may respond to the same questionnaire item differently at two different times if they think about the statement in two different situations. From an interview with one respondent, they learned that the respondent would have responded to the item “You need to learn English from native speakers of English” differently if she thought about a different native speaker teacher when she completed the survey.

Another factor that was found to affect beliefs about language learning is stage of learning or the amount of learning experience. Mori (1999) found differences in beliefs between beginners and advanced language learners of Japanese in two aspects of beliefs: beliefs about the simplicity of knowledge structure (Simple Knowledge), beliefs about the existence of absolute truth (Attainability of the Truth), and beliefs about the difficulty of one linguistic system of Japanese (Kanji). Advanced learners of Japanese in this study were found to believe that the knowledge structure was not simple and straightforward, that there was no absolute, discrete truth, and that Kanji was not easy. On the contrary,
novice learners tended to think the opposite. Mori concluded that these variations might have resulted from the different amounts of instruction the learners have received.

According to the findings reviewed above, beliefs about language learning are independent constructs that consist of multiple dimensions. These beliefs seem to be context specific and may vary depending on the amount of learning experience learners have received.

*Development of Learner Beliefs about Language Learning*

An understanding of how learners form and develop their beliefs is hoped to help researchers and educators adjust learners’ beliefs that are not supportive to language learning and promote the ones that enhance success in language learning. Several researchers have proposed that learners develop beliefs about language learning early in the learning process from their experiences as language learners (Holec, 1987; Horwitz, 1987; Pucta, 1999).

For instance, Horwitz (1987) claimed that a belief in the existence of foreign language aptitude may result from unsuccessful learning experience. She illustrated that learners who are not successful in language learning may develop a belief that there is such a thing as foreign language aptitude and that they themselves do not have this aptitude. Similarly, Holec (1987) proposed that learners’ concepts about autonomous learning may relate to learners’ experiences in regard to their roles in the classroom. He explained that learners who have been in traditional classrooms in which teachers manage all the activities in the class and the students’ only responsibilities are “being taught” may not develop the ideas of how to manage or “self direct” their own learning.
Further, Puchta (1999) discussed that foreign language learners formed their beliefs through the modeling of *significant others*, one of whom is the foreign language teacher, and from repeating experiences. Accordingly, Huang (1997) found, in her interviews with high school EFL students in Taiwan, that the *significant others* by which the students’ beliefs seemed to be influenced were teachers, perceived successful language learners, and mass media advertisements.

These arguments suggest that beliefs about language learning are formed gradually through learners’ experience in language learning and may be influenced by agents in their learning process such as teachers.

**Studies on Beliefs about Language Learning**

According to the assumptions about possible effects of beliefs, researchers have made various claims about how studies on beliefs about language learning may contribute to the second language acquisition field.

First of all, an understanding about learners’ beliefs may help adjust learners’ attitudes and behavior (Benson & Lor, 1999). More specifically, Horwitz (1987) and Holec (1987) suggested that insights about learners’ beliefs about language learning can help teachers prepare their learners to be receptive to new ideas and information by “deconditioning” learners’ prejudices or mistaken beliefs that may cause resistance to some instructional approaches or activities.

Horwitz claimed that learners may lose “confidence in the instructional approach and their ultimate achievement can be limited” (p. 119) when there is a mismatch between learners’ preconceived ideas about learning and teachers’ teaching approaches and/or instructional activities. Furthermore, learners may be less receptive to new
information if their preexisting beliefs conflict with the new information received from school and that this conflict can prevent learners from learning the new information (Cotterall, 1995; Dole & Sinatra, 1994). Therefore, by refining learners’ beliefs, it is hoped that teachers can promote learners’ confidence in their teaching approaches and activities and will ultimately enhance learners’ motivation and attempts in learning (Horwitz, 1987).

Secondly, insights about learners’ beliefs may help promote the use of effective language learning strategies (Wenden, 1987; Rubin, 1987). Wen and Johnson (1997) claimed that learners’ beliefs may be more influential to learners’ use of language learning strategies than strategy training. In other words, learners who received strategy training may not employ appropriate language learning strategies when their beliefs do not accommodate the use of those strategies.

Lastly, an investigation of learners’ beliefs about language learning may help teachers design and prepare a course or program for particular purpose(s). For instance, Mantle-Bromley (1995) suggested using insights about beliefs to create “learner-centered” programs that take into consideration learners’ needs. In addition, an understanding about beliefs can help develop a language program that enhances learners’ autonomy (Cotterall, 1995). It was found that learners became more directed in their own learning after having some counseling sessions to refine their beliefs about language learning that were counterproductive to autonomy (Victori & Lockhart, 1995).

Based on these positions, a substantial number of studies on beliefs about language learning have been conducted involving various groups of foreign and second language learners and teachers: American students learning foreign languages (Horwitz,
In brief, these researchers concluded that an investigation of beliefs about language learning of foreign and second language learners is worthwhile and the insights gained from such study can help foreign and second language teachers enhance their students’ capability in language learning. Some researchers suggest teachers help refine students’ beliefs while the others merely recommend teachers raise students’ awareness about their beliefs.

Assessment of Beliefs about Language Learning

To examine beliefs about language learning, researchers have employed several elicitation techniques including surveys, interviews, observations, journals, and reflective protocols. One of the most popular instruments is an inventory developed by Horwitz called the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI).

The Development of the BALLI

Horwitz first developed the BALLI to investigate “teachers’ opinions on a variety of issues and controversies related to language learning” (1985, p. 334). She explained that the inventory was developed for research and teacher training purposes. For the research purposes, the BALLI is used to 1) find insights about the teachers’ decision making in choosing instruction methods and activities and 2) investigate any conflict
between student and teacher beliefs. For the training purpose, the BALLI is used in teacher training programs to understand what beliefs prospective teachers have.

The first BALLI version for foreign language teachers consisted of 27 Likert-scale items with scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The inventory assessed beliefs about language learning in four areas: foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, and language learning strategies.

Then, Horwitz modified the inventory to be used with other groups of participants. In total, the BALLI was developed in three different versions: a foreign language teacher version (Horwitz, 1985), an ESL version (Horwitz, 1987), and an English-speaking learners of a foreign language version (Horwitz, 1988). Horwitz did not develop the inventory to be used for EFL students in particular. Most studies that were conducted in an EFL context, then, used the ESL version of the inventory and modified it for their particular group of students. The inventory was usually translated into the first language of the students to accommodate the students’ language ability levels. In the present study, the ESL version of the BALLI was also used.

In the ESL version, the BALLI consists of 34 Likert-scale items which are used to assess beliefs about language learning in five categories: beliefs about foreign language aptitude, beliefs about the difficulty of language learning, beliefs about the nature of language learning, beliefs about learning and communication strategies, and beliefs about motivations and expectations (see Appendix A). To complete this inventory, the respondents are asked to respond to each statement using scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The BALLI does not yield a composite score. Responses of
each individual item are used “as discussion stimuli and as descriptions” (Horwitz, 1985, p. 334) of the participants’ views about language learning.

The BALLI has been used widely as a research instrument and as a training instrument in the field of second language acquisition, as the author intended.

*Relationships between Beliefs and Language Learning*

Empirical evidence has been found in support of the assumptions about the effects of beliefs about language learning on language learning success discussed earlier. Low proficient and high proficient second and foreign language learners were found to possess different beliefs about language learning in some aspects. To begin with, in her study of American college students studying Japanese, Mori (1999) found significant correlations between three beliefs and achievement (indicated by daily quizzes, achievement exams, proficiency test, and course achievement). The findings reveal that learners who performed well in the learning of Japanese are likely to 1) consider that Japanese is not a difficult language 2) tolerate multiple, ambiguous answers and 3) believe that learning ability is not innately fixed, but can be improved.

Similarly, Samimy and Lee (1997) found a relationship between some beliefs about language learning and Chinese proficiency in their study on beliefs about language learning and language performance (final grades) of American college students studying Chinese. In particular, they found that students who had higher grades in Chinese were more likely to agree with the following statements in the BALLI:

1) It is best to learn Chinese in a Chinese speaking country

2) I enjoy practicing Chinese with native Chinese speakers

3) I have a special ability in learning foreign languages
4) Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language

5) I would like to have Chinese friends

6) If I learn Chinese very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job

7) I want to learn to speak Chinese very well

8) It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language

Consistently with the two foreign language learners’ studies, Peacock (1999, 2001) found relationships between some beliefs and English proficiency in an EFL context. He investigated beliefs about language learning of university EFL students (1999) and pre-service EFL teachers in Hong Kong (2001) and found significant relationships between English proficiency and beliefs about the role of grammar and vocabulary. The data reveal that learners with high proficiency tended to disagree that English learning was a matter of learning vocabulary and grammar while low proficiency students tended to agree.

These four studies reveal empirical evidence of relationships between some beliefs about language learning and learners’ success in second or foreign language learning. Other studies have been conducted to investigate relationships between beliefs about language learning and factors that may enhance learners’ language learning achievement such as autonomy (Cotterall, 1995, Holec, 1987; Victori and Lockhart, 1995; White, 1999), the use of language learning strategies (Abraham and Vann, 1987; Wenden, 1987; Wen and Johnson, 1997; Yang, 1992, 1999) and a factor that may undermine learner’s success in language learning such as anxiety (Horwitz, 1989; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Truitt, 1995). The following section presents a review of these studies.
Beliefs and Autonomy

Autonomy has been discussed as a factor that can lead to success in language learning. As Rubin (1987) noted, learning is best achieved when students play an important role in the process. In this vein, Holec (1987) claimed that good learners are those who “know how to learn” (p. 147) and can manage their own learning. Given the power of beliefs on learners’ behaviors, assumptions have been made about the relationship between learners’ beliefs and autonomy. Researchers proposed that learners who are ready to take charge of their own learning process, so called autonomous learners, may possess certain beliefs that enhance their active role in the learning.

To begin with, Holec (1987) proposed that learners may become autonomous if their representations (beliefs) about the role of the learner, the teacher, and materials accommodate the notion that they themselves are the manager of the learning. In investigating how learners engage in the learning of French in a training program that promoted self-directed learning, Holec found that the learners in the program were not ready to be responsible for their own learning when they first started the program but became more engaged in the learning process when they changed their representations about learning as follows: first, they believed that they themselves were the producers who had full responsibilities for their own learning, not the consumers; second, they perceived teachers as resource persons who helped facilitate the learning process, not the authority or the only expert in the learning process; and third, they were aware that materials could and should be selected and adapted into learning aids that suit to the purpose(s) or approach(s) that the learners themselves specified and preferred, not be the objectives of the learning themselves.
Holec’s list of autonomous learners’ beliefs was expanded in Cotterall (1995, 1999). Cotterall developed a survey attempting to investigate prototypical beliefs associated with autonomous learners. She drew conclusions about the relationships between beliefs about language learning and autonomy based on a review of the literature. The participants in both studies were ESL students enrolled in English language courses in Wellington, New Zealand.

In the first study, the factor analysis revealed six clusters of beliefs: role of the teacher, role of feedback, learner independence, learner confidence in study ability, experience of language learning, and approach to studying. Based on the review of the literature, Cotterall claimed that autonomous learners are likely to view teachers as facilitators, not authority in the learning process, self-monitor and assess their own learning, not be dependent on external feedback such as from teachers, be independent in defining the learning goal(s) and willing to try new learning activities, be confident in their learning ability, and be aware of their learning experiences and use them to develop an understanding about language learning. For the last cluster, approach to studying, Cotterall concluded that there may not be a relationship between beliefs in this cluster and autonomy. This cluster was, then, taken out from the survey used in the second study.

In the second study (Cotterall, 1999), additional conclusions about the association between beliefs and autonomy were drawn. First, Cotterall claimed that some beliefs about the nature of language learning, such as the belief that learners’ errors is a part of the learning process and the belief that it takes time to learn a second language, are important beliefs that may influence the degree of learner autonomy. Second, she found that learners’ willingness to employ learning strategies did not guarantee that they have
the knowledge of how to use the strategies. Cotterall interpreted that this may indicate that learners are willing to learn how to use unfamiliar strategies.

The findings from these studies revealed that there may be an association between learner beliefs and their readiness to become autonomous learners. Nevertheless, little evidence has been shown to support the conclusions. The two studies by Cotterall reviewed here (Cotterall, 1995, 1999) drew conclusions about the relationship without any empirical evidence whereas Holec (1987) based his conclusion from interview data. To my knowledge, there has not been a study that investigates beliefs about language learning of learners who are considered autonomous learners and those who are not. Accordingly, a particular set of beliefs about language learning that autonomous learners may possess has not been proposed. However, learners’ perceptions about themselves in the learning process regarding their role and their ability seem to be keys to their autonomy.

**Beliefs and Learning Strategy Use**

The relationship between beliefs and the use of language learning strategies is a hot topic of studies on beliefs about language learning. Early findings about the different use of learning strategies of successful and unsuccessful ESL learners who reported different perceptions about language learning, as revealed in Abraham and Vann (1987), might have brought the attention of researchers in the field to studies on learners’ use of learning strategies. A number of studies have been conducted in the past two decades in both ESL and EFL contexts and yielded consistent findings that there are relationships between beliefs about language learning and learners’ use of language learning strategies.
Some researchers studied beliefs about language learning and the use of language learning strategies of different groups of learners. Abraham and Vann (1987) investigated beliefs and strategies of ESL learners with different ability levels. The interview data with two learners—successful and unsuccessful learners—were used to discuss the relationships between beliefs and language learning strategy use. Abraham and Vann asserted that the two learners studied possessed different beliefs about language learning in regard to focusing on form or functions and that their beliefs tended to associate with the flexibility and variety of the use of strategies. The successful learner, who believed that language learning required attention on both form and functions, was found to employ more flexible and varied strategies. On the contrary, the unsuccessful learner, who viewed language learning in a more limited way, used a more fixed set of strategies that were effective only in some situations.

Similarly, Wang (1996) was interested in the use of strategies of successful and unsuccessful language learners and she also found differences in beliefs and strategy use of the two groups. Wang used both survey and interview data collection in her study. The BALLI was used to elicit beliefs about language learning and interviews were used to elicit the use of language learning strategies. From the findings, Wang concluded that the majority of the unsuccessful language learners tended to possess negative beliefs about language learning such as: they did not believe that they had foreign language aptitude; they believed that English was a difficult language; they valued the importance of translation in English learning; and so on. On the contrary, fewer successful language learners held such beliefs. In regard to their use of language learning strategies, Wang found that the two groups varied in terms of the frequency of usage. The successful
language learners were found to use language learning strategies more often than the others in all strategy groups. When focusing on the use of strategies in specific language learning tasks, the successful language learner group was found to employ more appropriate learning strategies for the task at hand and in adequate amount.

Wenden (1987) also studied differences in beliefs and strategy use of different groups of learners. She examined beliefs and strategies of three groups of learners: function-based, rule-based, and affective-based learners using interviews. She found that the three groups of learners, who held different beliefs about language learning, reported using different learning strategies. The function-based group of students, who were identified as “Use the language,” employed communication strategies, focused on meaning not form, perceived that listening and speaking were important, preferred communicative activities and authentic materials. The rule-based group, who were labeled as “Learn about the language,” employed cognitive strategies, attended to form, were concerned about good or proper language, and valued the learning of grammar and vocabulary. The affective-based group, who were described as “Personal factors are important,” did not use different strategies from the other two groups or held a particular learning approach in regard to focusing on form or functions. They attended to affective variables when evaluating their learning.

These three studies reveal some evidence that different groups of learners may hold different beliefs about language learning and may employ different language learning strategies. Other studies merely examined the relationship between beliefs and strategy use by using the results from the BALLI and the SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) without comparison between groups. These studies were conducted
in EFL contexts: China (Wen & Johnson, 1997) and Taiwan (Huang, 1997; Yang, 1999). The findings from the three studies reveal that there is a connection between learner beliefs and their use of language learning strategies. Several beliefs were found to associate with the use of language learning strategies such as self efficacy, beliefs about the nature and value of language learning, a belief about the importance of guessing, and a belief about joy in speaking English.

The major finding revealed in Huang and Yang is that there is a relationship between self-efficacy and the use of a wide range of language learning strategies. Yang (1999) found significant correlations between self-efficacy with the use of strategies in all categories, especially with the use of functional practice strategies. She concluded that the students who had positive perceptions about their own learning ability reported actively engaging in English activities, for example reading for pleasure in English, watching TV or listening to radio programs in English, and initiating English conversations. Consistently, Huang (1997) found relationships between self efficacy and the use of several language learning strategies including an affective strategy “I encourage myself to speak…,” a metacognitive strategy “I pay attention when someone…,” and a cognitive strategy “I practice the sounds of English.”

Furthermore, Yang (1999) found that conflicting beliefs affected learners’ use of strategies. She illustrated that learners who believed that practicing speaking English was important but were also concerned about making errors and felt timid when speaking might not employ functional practice strategies. Rather, they were found to employ affective strategies such as “trying to relax” and “encouraging themselves to speak.”
Considering the relationships revealed in these studies, researchers suggested that teachers should take into account students’ beliefs about language learning when choosing teaching methods and designing class activities and materials (Wen & Johnson, 1997; Yang, 1999) that match with students’ beliefs in order to prevent conflicts between students’ beliefs and the teaching approaches. Also, teachers are encouraged to refine students’ beliefs that may not be supportive to the use of effective language learning strategies and promote the ones that may be beneficial to language learning (Yang, 1999). Last, but not least, given the close connection between self efficacy and the use of several strategies, it is suggested that teachers should embrace students’ self efficacy by adopting a systematic, objective assessment for a thorough evaluation of students’ progress as well as showing appreciation in students’ progress (Huang, 1997).

Beliefs and Anxiety

Researchers are aware that some beliefs that students bring to class may evoke discomfort in performing language learning tasks, namely foreign language anxiety. Previous studies reveal that highly anxious students possess some beliefs differently from less anxious students. Four subsets of beliefs appeared to have relationships with anxiety.

First, beliefs about the difficulty of language learning were found in two studies (Horwitz, 1989; Kunt, 1997) to associate with foreign language anxiety (the relationship found in Horwitz was only approaching significance $p = .067$). The two studies were conducted in different learning contexts. Horwitz targeted a group of American students learning Spanish while Kunt involved EFL students in North Cyprus. However, the two studies reveal consistent findings about the relationship between beliefs about the difficulty of language learning and anxiety. High anxiety learners were found to report
beliefs that the target language they were pursuing was difficult. In contrast, low anxiety learners tended to view the target language as being easy.

Another belief that was found to relate with anxiety is a belief about self-efficacy. Truitt (1995) and Kunt (1997) found that their EFL students who believed in their English ability tended to have lower foreign language anxiety, compared to those who were not confident in their ability. Consistently, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) found that highly anxious students of Spanish in their study reported having no confidence and being afraid to speak in foreign language class. They illustrated that these anxious students tended to endorse the statements such as “I start panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class;” “I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class;” and “I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language when I speak in foreign language class,” which the researchers interpreted as speech anxiety.

Third, Horwitz (1989) found that students with high and low anxiety tended to report different beliefs relating foreign language aptitude. To begin with, she found that there was a significant different in anxiety levels between learners who believed in their own foreign language aptitude and those who did not. In addition, the less anxious students were found to likely believe that everyone could learn a foreign language.

Last, beliefs relating to accuracy and error correction were found to relate to high anxiety. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) found that anxious students tended to report being afraid of making mistakes and being corrected in language classes.

The findings of these studies suggest that teachers should be aware of learners’ beliefs that possibly influence students’ affect such as foreign language anxiety. Beliefs
about self-efficacy and beliefs about the difficulty of language learning are the two subsets of beliefs that may need to be carefully considered since there is ample evidence of their relationships with anxiety. Beliefs about foreign language aptitude and beliefs relating to correctness, though they reveal significant relationships with anxiety in one study, did not appear to relate to anxiety in another study (Oh, 1996).

Beliefs that May Lead to Negative Effects on Language Learning

According to the previous studies reviewed above, some beliefs about language learning elicited from the BALLI are claimed or found to have positive effects on learners’ success in language learning; whereas others are believed to lead to negative effects on learners’ language learning. To help learners attain ultimate success in their learning, researchers have been interested to refine or adjust the beliefs that may undermine language learning success and promote those that are supportive to language learning.

This section presents a summary of effects of beliefs inventoried in the BALLI discussed in previous studies and highlights the beliefs that may be negatively influential. In general, all categories consist of some subset beliefs that are potentially debilitative except the beliefs in the category of motivations and expectations which have been discussed as being facilitative to foreign and second language learners.

Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude

The belief that some people have a special ability to learn foreign languages has been discussed in a few studies as possibly having negative effects on learners’ language learning. However, little empirical evidence has been revealed.
For instance, Horwitz constantly discussed the negative effects of beliefs about foreign language aptitude in her three studies (1985, 1987, 1988). She argued that learners who believe in the existence of foreign language aptitude but do not think that they themselves have it risk negative effects on their own language learning. She further explained that “Students who feel that they lack some capacity necessity to language learning—by virtue of personal make-up or group membership—probably doubt their own ability as language learners and expect to do poorly in language study” (p. 288).

Mori (1999) found another risk that learners take when they believe in the existence of language learning aptitude. She explained that learners who perceived language learning ability as “uncontrollable” or “fixed” may not want to invest themselves in the learning. In her study of learners of Japanese, she found that the learners who believed that a foreign language learning ability was an innate ability and could not be improved tended to achieve less in language learning than those who “perceive their own ability as a controllable, increasable entity” (p. 408).

The negative effects of beliefs about foreign language aptitude have also been discussed in studies on teacher beliefs. Some researchers suggested that teachers who possess beliefs about foreign language aptitude may risk negative effects not only on their own learning but also on that of their students. Horwitz (1985) claimed that teachers who believe that some people possess a special ability to learn a foreign language and that some do not are likely to have negative expectations about some students. Similarly, Puchta (1999) asserted that teachers’ expectations about students’ achievement may influence their interaction with the students. He explained that the students who are perceived to be highly proficient students are likely to get more interaction from the
teacher both verbally and non-verbally (e.g. smiles and eye contacts) than the students who are believed to be the “lows.” As a result, the students who are perceived to be less successful will likely do more poorly in their learning, as their teacher has expected (Puchta, 1999).

In support of these claims, Horwitz (1989) reported a finding that highly anxious students in her study were those who believed in the existence of foreign language aptitude but disagreed with the statements “I have foreign language aptitude” and “Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.”

However, Oh (1996) attempted to investigate this relationship but did not find it significant. In addition, no empirical evidence has been found to support that there is an association between teacher beliefs about foreign language aptitude and students’ language learning. Therefore, possible effects of beliefs about foreign language aptitude on teacher’s instructional practices and learners’ language learning may need further investigation.

**Beliefs about the Difficulty of Language Learning**

Beliefs about the relative difficulty of the target language have also been discussed and found to relate to language learning success.

First of all, beliefs about the difficulty of language learning were found to associate with language achievement. Mori (1999) found that learners who perceived the target language that they were learning as an easy language tended to do better than those who believed that they were dealing with a difficult task.

On the other hand, Horwitz (1989) and Truitt (1995) found that beliefs about language difficulty of the target language were associated with anxiety. Learners who
perceived that the target language was relatively difficult were found to have higher anxiety than those who believed they were learning an easy language.

According to these findings, learners’ beliefs about the difficulty of language learning may contribute to success in language learning. Learners who perceive that they are dealing with an easy task may not be confronted with discomfort caused by anxiety. They can make efforts in their learning up to their potential, and thus attain ultimate success in their learning. In contrast, learners who are confronted with anxiety, though they have the potential to be successful in language learning, may avoid performing language tasks and lose opportunity to improve their language skills. Consequently, these learners may not perform well in language classes.

In order to prevent negative effects of beliefs about the difficulty of language learning, researchers encourage realistic estimation. They do not think that the notion that the target language is easy is more beneficial than the notion that it is difficult. Horwitz (1985, 1987), for example, has said that an underestimation of the difficulty of the target language will not lead to any positive consequences. Horwitz (1987) argued that learners’ judgments about language difficulty affect “their expectations for and time commitment to language learning” (p. 123); therefore, learners who underestimate the difficulty of their target language and believe that they are learning an easy language but cannot make as much progress as they expected can be discouraged and may withdraw from their learning. Peacock (1999) found supportive findings. Learners in his study who underestimated the difficulty of language learning tended to have lower proficiency than those who had a more realistic estimate.
In addition, Horwitz (1985) discussed the negative effects of such beliefs on teachers’ classroom practices. She claimed that the teachers who underestimate the difficulty of the language they are teaching may have false expectations about students’ progress, which can lead to a negative reaction toward some students. She further elaborated that teachers who view the language they are teaching as an easy language may become frustrated with the students who cannot perform as well as they expected at a particular time.

Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning

Two beliefs in this category have been discussed in studies on beliefs about language learning about their negative effects on learners’ success in language learning. These beliefs are beliefs about vocabulary learning and beliefs about grammar instruction.

Horwitz (1987) claimed that learners who reported beliefs about the importance of vocabulary and grammar in language learning risk negative effects. She claimed that learners who possess these beliefs may spend a lot of time “memorizing vocabulary lists and grammar rules at the expense of other language learning practices” (p.124). Furthermore, Horwitz (1985) discussed the negative effects of these beliefs on foreign language pre-service teachers’ learning. She proposed that the pre-service teachers who believed that learning a foreign language is simply a matter of learning vocabulary and grammar risk being resistant to new concepts and ideas about foreign language teaching. However, no empirical evidence was provided in these two studies.

Peacock (1999) found supporting evidence for Horwitz’ claims about the effect of beliefs about grammar instruction and vocabulary learning. Learners who agreed that
learning a foreign language is a matter of learning grammar rules were found to be less proficient in English than those who believed otherwise. In another study (Peacock, 2001), he found significant negative relationships between not only beliefs about learning grammar rules but also beliefs about learning vocabulary and English proficiency. In this study, Peacock found that the pre-service EFL teachers who were less proficient EFL learners tended to endorse these two concepts, whereas the more proficient pre-service teachers disagreed.

Nevertheless, Wen and Johnson (1997) suggested contrasting ideas about the effect of vocabulary learning. In their study of EFL students in China, they found positive effects of vocabulary learning strategies on English scores. Learners who reported practicing vocabulary learning strategies (i.e. memorizing words when reading, consulting a dictionary, using specific techniques to memorize words) tended to have higher English scores than those who did not. Wen and Johnson suggested that vocabulary learning strategies might still be important for learners in an EFL context in which learners’ exposure to the use of the target language is limited. They explained that, in such a situation, learners did not have much chance to “acquire” the target language in real life communication; therefore, for EFL learners, the practice of vocabulary in classes and on their own is still necessary and may possibly enhance learners’ achievement, as found in their study.

The learning situations of EFL learners, as provided in Wen and Johnson (1997), seem to challenge the arguments and the findings about the negative relationships between beliefs about vocabulary and grammar and language proficiency. Considering that EFL classrooms are usually the main forum for EFL learners to learn and practice the
use of English, the provision of grammar and vocabulary instruction may be necessary. It is not likely that beliefs about grammar and vocabulary would yield negative effects on learners’ language learning, especially for EFL learners. Also, only two studies (Peacock, 2001) reveal that such relationships may exist. Further investigation on the effects of these two beliefs using observations may be necessary.

Beliefs about Learning and Communication Strategies

In this fourth category of the BALLI, several beliefs were found to be associated with the use of several learning and communication strategies (Huang, 1997; Yang, 1999). However, some beliefs have been discussed in terms of their negative influence on learner’s learning. These beliefs include beliefs about correct pronunciation and beliefs about one’s own self confidence in speaking English.

For beliefs about correct pronunciation, Horwitz (1987) claimed that learners who reported these beliefs may not be receptive to concepts of communicative approaches to language learning. However, no empirical study has been conducted to explore the effect of these beliefs. In another study (Horwitz, 1989) asserted that learners who are concerned about correctness in their performance in language learning but do not have an ability to meet their own expectation are likely to experience anxiety. Oh (1996) and Truitt (1995) did not find any significant relationship.

Beliefs about self confidence in speaking, on the contrary, have been found to have negative effects on learners’ language learning. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) found that anxious foreign language students were not confident enough to speak the target language. Similarly, Oh (1996) found a significant relationship between these beliefs and anxiety in her study of Japanese learners. Kunt (1997) and Truitt (1995) also
found similar relationships in their EFL students. In these studies, the learners who reported lacking confidence in speaking the target language tended to have high foreign language anxiety, suggesting that these learners may not want to engage in practice activities because of their high anxiety level and would not be able to develop their language skills fully.

In brief, some researchers attempted to claim that some beliefs about learning and communication strategies may undermine learners’ success in second or foreign language learning by misleading the learners’ expectations on their own language learning, inhibiting their attempts, raising their anxiety, limiting their perceptions about new approaches to language learning, and reducing their use of the target language. However, little empirical evidence has been provided to support the claims. Particularly, no studies have examined the relationships revealed from the survey results using other sources of data, observation for example.

**Studies of Teachers’ Beliefs about Language Learning**

Research interests in beliefs about language learning are not limited to those of language learners. Several studies have investigated beliefs about the language learning of both in-service and pre-service teachers. These studies were designed based on the hypothesis that teacher beliefs may influence student beliefs through instructional practices. As Johnson (1994) concluded:

Research on teachers’ beliefs share three basic assumptions. First, teachers’ beliefs influence both perception and judgment which, in turn, affects what teachers say and do in classrooms. Second, teachers’ beliefs play a critical role in how teachers learn to teach, that is, how they interpret new information about
learning and teaching and how that information is translated into classroom practices. And third, understanding teachers’ beliefs is essential to improving teaching practices and professional teacher preparation programs (p. 439).

The following sections present a review of the studies about teachers’ beliefs about language learning in the aspects of the relationship between teacher beliefs and student beliefs, the relationship between teacher beliefs and their classroom practices, and the development of teacher beliefs.

**Teacher Beliefs and Student Beliefs**

With the assumptions that learners develop their beliefs from their learning experiences in the classroom and that teacher beliefs may influence the learners’ experiences, a relationship between teacher beliefs and student beliefs has been an interest of some researchers. However, a few studies have been conducted to examine relationships between foreign or second language teacher beliefs and student beliefs and only one study was conducted in an EFL context (Peacock, 1999).

In general, relationships between student and teacher beliefs were found (Kern, 1995; Samimy and Lee, 1997; Peacock, 1999). However, the consistency did not show in all beliefs. Some differences in beliefs of the two groups were found as well. Considering the beliefs that differed, the students in the three studies tended to hold more traditional views of language learning—focusing on form rather than functions—than the teachers.

In Kern’s (1995) study, the teachers tended to disagree with these statements: excellent accent is important in speaking a foreign language, learning a foreign language is a matter of learning grammar rules, speaking is easier than listening, and learning another language is a matter of translating from English. In contrast, the students tended
to agree or vary their opinions of these issues. Similarly, Samimy and Lee (1997) found that the students tended to support the idea of accurate pronunciation, vocabulary learning, and using translation in Chinese learning, which was different from their teachers. The EFL students in Hong Kong (Peacock, 1999) also revealed more traditional approaches in language learning than the teachers (Peacock did not compare beliefs of students with those of their own instructors. He examined beliefs of his students in comparison to beliefs of all the teachers in the English department). The students tended to endorse the concepts of speaking with excellent pronunciation, the importance of grammar and vocabulary, the practice of English in language laboratory, and so on.

Kern (1995) further investigated the different beliefs between students and teachers and found that over the period of a 15-week program, the mismatches between student and teacher beliefs still persisted. He found stability of student beliefs at the global level (when analyzing beliefs of all the students and all the teachers as a single group). He explained that the persisting mismatches might be resulted from factors other than teacher beliefs such as teachers’ actual classroom practice, the nature of instructional activities, students’ assessment of their own progress, students’ expectations of achievement, students’ awareness of mistakes, textbooks, tests, and written exercises, teachers’ individual differences such as personalities, personal styles, and level of experience. He suggested that beliefs about language learning may not be easily influenced by teacher beliefs or that teacher beliefs did not influence their classroom practices.

However, when he compared beliefs of the students and teachers at the individual level (compared students’ beliefs with those of their own instructor), changes in student
beliefs were found and the direction of the changes were towards teacher beliefs, especially beliefs of beginning students (French I). Kern concluded that students’ beliefs may be able to change but beliefs of advanced learners (French II), who had more learning experience, may be more resistant.

These three studies show evidence that foreign or second language teachers and students share some common beliefs about language learning but they also differ in some beliefs. In fact, only a few beliefs showed differences between teachers’ and students’ beliefs in each study. However, no conclusions about the relationship between students’ and teachers’ beliefs may be drawn, considering that no studies yield ample evidence of such relationship. Kern’s attempt in examining changes in students’ beliefs over the course of the program only reveals that some student beliefs changed but no empirical evidence was found that the changes resulted from the influence of teacher beliefs.

Relationships between Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Practices

Rooted from the interests in the influence of teacher beliefs on student beliefs and language learning success, research on teacher beliefs focuses on how teacher beliefs influence their instructional practices. Given the effect of beliefs on people’s behaviors, researchers have long assumed that teacher beliefs influence the way they design and interact in their classes. Richards (1998) stated “A primary source of teachers’ classroom practices is belief systems—the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom” (p. 66). Richards and Lockhart (1996) further elaborated that teachers’ beliefs influence how they make decisions or act in a classroom. Research findings lend support to these claims.
Teachers’ classroom practices were found to reflect teacher beliefs. Johnson (1992) examined a relationship between ESL teachers’ theoretical beliefs and their classroom practices. She found that the majority held clearly defined theoretical beliefs: skill-based (emphasizing the practice of discrete skills, attending to the accuracy of language production, and promoting memorization), rule-based (focusing on the learning of grammar rules and the practice of structures in meaningful contexts), and function-based (promoting the use of authentic materials, communication-oriented activities, and the appropriate use of language in real situations) approaches, which reflect their preferred teaching approach. Most teachers favored the function-based approaches. The observation data, which focused only on three teachers who possessed clearly defined theoretical beliefs, revealed that the teachers designed their reading and writing activities in accordance with their beliefs. Johnson concluded that there was a relationship between teachers’ theoretical beliefs and their classroom practices.

Consistent findings were revealed in Smith (1996) and Johnson (1994). Smith examined the relationship between decision making and beliefs of nine ESL teachers. She found that teacher beliefs about second language teaching and learning influenced the curricula design as well as the selection of learning tasks and teaching approaches. The two groups of teachers, one focusing on grammar and accuracy and the other focusing on language for communication purposes, designed the curriculum and developed activities that were consistent with their beliefs. The teachers who were concerned about accuracy “adopted a structural core for their curriculum design and developed lesson tasks which emphasized language code” (p. 207). In contrast, those who focused on the use of
language for communication adopted a functional-based curricula and developed activities that promoted student interaction in meaningful communication.

Similarly, Johnson (1994) found associations between beliefs about second language teachers and second language teaching and the instructional practices of pre-service ESL teachers. In this study, she also investigated the origin of these influential beliefs. She found that the pre-service teachers’ instructional practices were influenced by beliefs that originated from the pre-service teachers’ formal learning experiences, rather than beliefs originating from informal learning experience, projected self image as teachers, and teacher preparation programs. In other words, the pre-service teachers tended to teach the way they were taught, not the way they thought they should. She discussed that the pre-service teachers imitated their teachers’ teaching approaches because they lacked knowledge about real classrooms and students as well as alternative models of teaching and teachers.

In conclusion, these studies suggest that second and foreign language teachers possess certain beliefs about second language learning and second language teaching which may influence their instructional practices. However, teachers’ beliefs system seems to be complicated and consists of several constructs. Some beliefs may conflict with others or may not be as influential as others, and thus may not show their effects on teachers’ instructional practices. The findings about the effect of beliefs originating from formal learning experience over beliefs originating from the other sources, found in Johnson (1994), is evidence of this argument.
Development of Pre-service Teachers’ Beliefs about Language Learning

According to the findings about the relationships between teacher beliefs and their instructional practices presented above, researchers have been interested in investigating how teachers’ beliefs are developed. As suggested by the assumptions about the development of beliefs, researchers assume that pre-service teachers enter teacher education programs with preconceived ideas about learning and teaching that are developed early and from several sources.

First of all, several researchers proposed that teacher beliefs stem from their learning experience as learners. Lortie’s (1975) apprenticeship of observation is a phenomenon that is well known among researchers in the field. He proposed that pre-service teachers started their apprenticeship from when they were in the classroom as students, and thus they start developing their beliefs about teaching and learning early from that experience. He found that there is a connection between teachers’ current classroom practices and those of their teachers. The findings from Jonhson (1994) lend support to this. She found that pre-service teachers’ instructional practices were influenced by their experiences from their formal learning.

Another important source of origin of teacher beliefs mentioned in the literature is experiences from teacher education programs. Researchers propose that pre-service teachers’ beliefs about learning and teaching may be influenced by the ideas they learned from their teaching methodology classes and by the experiences they gained during their practice teaching program (Johnson, 1994; Horwitz, 1985; Kern, 1995; Richards & Lockhart, 1996).
However, some researchers argue that beliefs of advanced language learners, like those of pre-service teachers, may not be influenced by the experiences from the teacher education program. Tato (1998) claimed that “Little empirical evidence exists on the influence of teacher education on teachers’ values and beliefs. Consensus exists that teacher education has little effect on altering teachers’ beliefs” (p. 66).

Considering the complex and idiosyncratic nature of beliefs, Wenden (1998) proposed that beliefs are relatively stable. Dole and Sinatra (1994) supported that it is not easy for beliefs to change, especially the central change in beliefs (a permanent change). They explained that “the central route to belief change requires deep thinking, critical reflection, and a weighing of the issues” (p. 257). Learners’ beliefs will not have a “central” change unless the learners “process information deeply and think critically about new data” and that “such change is difficult, and in many cases, unlikely” (p. 261).

Evidence of the inflexibility of beliefs about language learning was found in Peacock (2001). In an investigation of pre-service EFL teachers in Hong Kong over the course of three-year teacher education program, Peacock found consistency in the mismatch between beliefs of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers over the course of the program. He concluded that pre-service teacher beliefs “are slow or very slow to change” (p.181). Consistently, Kern (1995) found supportive findings that beliefs of advanced learners may be more resistant to change, compared with those of novice learners. He found that the beliefs of his French I students showed some changes over the course of the study program; whereas beliefs of the French II were more stable.

However, as suggested by Dole and Sinatra (1994), beliefs may change if learners have gone through a process of critical thinking about the particular subject. Evidence
was shown in Peacock (2001). After finding that the pre-service teachers’ beliefs did not change over the course of the regular teacher preparation program, Peacock designed and implemented an instruction package in one of the pre-service teachers’ elective courses. He said that he observed some changes in beliefs of the pre-service teachers after they finished his instruction package, which included five stages:

1. Trainees were told that some of their beliefs differed from experienced ESL teacher beliefs.
2. Trainees were shown their BALLI results compared with results from experienced ESL teachers.
3. Trainees were referred to five readings that discussed the benefits of more communicative approaches to teaching ESL.
4. Classes were divided into small groups and given to discussion topics—“What I learned through the communicative approach” and “What are the pros and cons of the communicative approach?”
5. Trainees were shown videotapes of two successful ESL lessons in local schools in which the teachers used more communicative approaches (p. 188).

Peacock’s instruction package seems to require the pre-service teachers to think deeply and analytically about topics of communicative approaches. This thinking process might lead to some adjustment of beliefs concerning this approach, as concluded by Peacock.

In brief, beliefs about language learning of pre-service teachers seem to have a long history of development, starting from when they were language learners themselves.
to when they are in teacher education programs. Given the complexity of beliefs and the accumulation of experiences pre-service teachers have, their beliefs may not change easily. However, evidence was shown that beliefs may change if they are confronted with the new information that was processed through critical thinking. Considering the amount and level of the thinking that pre-service teachers have to do in their practice teaching, their experience they gained from their practice teaching may be influential to the adjustment of their beliefs, compared to the learning experience in the regular classes in teacher education program. The direct experience in the classroom may counteract with or confirm pre-service teachers’ preexisting ideas, especially about what and how a second language should be learned given the current teaching and learning situations, effects of the practice teaching experience on pre-service teachers’ beliefs are worth investigating further.

**Conclusion**

The review of the literature reveals that pre-service EFL teachers, like other second and foreign language learners, enter teacher education programs with some preconceived ideas about how a second language should be learned, what language learning tasks should be included, what a second language teacher should do in the classroom, what kind of language learners they are, and so on. These beliefs are of concerns of several researchers and educators in the second language acquisition field that may influence the development of pre-service teachers, both as language learners and as prospective teachers. However, little empirical evidence has been revealed to support such claim.
These beliefs are considered as being relatively stable. Given the complex and idiosyncratic nature of beliefs, beliefs about language learning of advanced language learners, like those of pre-service teachers, are not believed to change easily. Also, the long accumulative development of beliefs seems to contribute to their inflexibility characteristic. Thus, some researchers did not think that the learning experience pre-service teachers received from the teacher education program would influence the prospective teachers’ beliefs much. Moreover, some studies have shown how influential early learning experience as language learner is to the development of beliefs, compared to other sources of belief origins. However, it was found that some beliefs can change. Some researchers have suggested that a learning process that requires critical thinking may help learners adjust their beliefs.

In the present study, I hypothesized that experiences pre-service teachers may gain from their practice teaching are powerful and may influence the development of beliefs about language learning of pre-service teachers. Considering that practice teaching experience may involve a great deal of thinking about the design of lesson plans and the selection of class materials and activities, pre-service teachers’ pre-existing beliefs about language learning may be confronted and some adjustment may occur. Therefore, I attempted to investigate the development of beliefs during this critical period of time.

Furthermore, due to the lack of empirical evidence of effects of beliefs on language learning and on instructional practices, three sources of data were used to explore the relationship between beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches of pre-service teachers.
Chapter 3 presents detailed information of how the present study was designed and conducted. The descriptions about the participants, the instruments, and the procedures of how the data were collected and analyzed are presented. Chapters 4 and 5 report and discuss the findings of the two study phases.
CHAPTER 3

METHOD

The purposes of this study were to investigate beliefs about language learning during practice teaching of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand and the relationship between beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches. Due to the complex and unobservable characteristics of beliefs about language learning, the present study was designed to use both quantitative and qualitative research methods to elicit data for the analysis. According to Patton (2002), each method has differing advantages and disadvantages. A quantitative research method can obtain broad, generalizable findings while a qualitative research method can yield in-depth, detailed information. Therefore, using a combination of both methods allows for triangulation of the data to achieve accurate and reliable findings (Ellis, 1994).

Three major complementary sources of data were used in the present study. Two distributions of a survey called the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) provided quantitative data. Observations and interviews were used to elicit the qualitative data.

The present study was divided into two phases: a survey phase and a qualitative study phase. The survey phase was aimed to obtain generalizable conclusions about beliefs about language learning of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand using the findings from the two survey distributions. The qualitative study phase was to investigate in-depth information about beliefs and teaching approaches of four Thai pre-service EFL
teachers by taking into account the findings from all three data sources—surveys, observations, and interviews.

**Research Questions**

Three main research questions were used as the framework of the collection and analysis of the data in the present study.

1. What beliefs about language learning do Thai pre-service EFL teachers report having before and after practice teaching?
2. Are there any significant differences between their reported beliefs before and after practice teaching?
3. Are there any relationships between reported beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches?

The data from the survey phase were used to respond to the first two research questions. The data from the qualitative study phase were used to answer the last question. By gaining insights into these questions, I hoped to understand the nature of beliefs about language learning that pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand possessed while in a teacher education program, how these beliefs influenced their teaching approaches, and how direct classroom experience affected and/or adjusted these beliefs.

The following sections describe the participants, materials, and procedures of the two study phases.

**Survey Phase**

*Participants*

The study was originally designed to survey all pre-service EFL teachers enrolled in practice teaching courses in public universities in Thailand in the first semester of the
2002 academic year (B.E. 2545). According to the Commission on Higher Education, Ministry of Education (n.d.), there were 24 public universities in Thailand under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of University Affairs. I browsed the universities’ websites to search for undergraduate programs in Education with a specialization in English. Six public universities were found to offer such a program (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

*Public universities under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of University Affairs in Thailand that offered a Bachelor’s degree in Education with a specialization in English*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Practice Teaching</th>
<th>No. of Students&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burapha University</td>
<td>Chonburi</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; semester</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiang Mai University</td>
<td>Chiang Mai</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; semester</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chulalongkorn University</td>
<td>Bangkok</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; semester</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prince of Songkla University</td>
<td>Pattani</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; semester</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ram Kamhaeng University</td>
<td>Bangkok</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; semester</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silpakorn University</td>
<td>Nakorn</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; semester</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pathom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>Note. </sup><sup>a</sup>The number of students enrolled in the practice teaching program in each university in the first semester of the 2002 academic year (B.E. 2545).
In the present study, four of the six universities were used: Chiang Mai University, Chulalongkorn University, Ram Kamhaeng University, and Silpakorn University. The other two universities were not included. One, Burapha University, did not have practice teaching in the semester in which the study was conducted, so it was excluded. The other, Prince of Songkla University, was dropped because of difficulty in coordinating with the practice teaching program despite repeated attempts by me and my assistant in Thailand.

The survey was then sent to the pre-service EFL teachers in the four universities. The first survey was completed and returned by all participants in all universities but the second survey was returned by the participants from only two universities, Chulalongkorn University and Chiang Mai University. Several attempts were made requesting the contact persons in the other two universities to collect the surveys from their students but there was no response.

For the purpose of investigating a difference in beliefs before and after practice teaching, the data from the participants who completed both surveys were required. Therefore, only the students from Chulalongkorn University and Chiang Mai University were the participants in the present study. The number of the students from these two universities accounted for 60.47% of the total number of the students who enrolled in practice teaching in the first semester of the 2002 academic year in Thailand.

In total, the participants in the survey phase were comprised of 42 pre-service EFL teachers. Twenty-seven pre-service teachers were from Chulalongkorn University. Fifteen were from Chiang Mai University. These pre-service teachers were undergraduate students pursuing a Bachelor’s degree in Education with a specialization in English and were enrolled in the practice teaching course in the first semester (June - October) of the
2002 academic year (B.E. 2545). Forty of them were female and two were male. Their ages ranged from 20 to 23 years old ($M = 21.36, S.D. = 0.79$).

The two universities have a similarity in regard to language contact with English speakers that may affect their students’ motivation in learning English. Each university is located in the biggest city in its region. Chulalongkorn University is in Bangkok, the capital city. Chiang Mai University is in Chiang Mai, the center of commerce and tourism in the north. Due to each city’s popularity as a tourist destination, people in Chiang Mai and Bangkok have greater opportunities to have contact with foreigners who speak English than people in most other provinces in the country. Consequently, I assumed that the students in the TEFL program in the two universities had similar motivations and goals in pursuing the degree.

Most participants started learning English in kindergarten or primary school. Only one participant started in the secondary level, Mathayomsuksa 4 (Grade 10). The percentages of the participants who started English class in kindergarten, Pratomsuksa 1 (Grade 1), Pratomsuksa 4 (Grade 4), and Pratomsuksa 5 (Grade 5) were 45.24 %, 7.14 %, 4.76 %, and 40.48 % respectively.

With respect to the students’ areas of specialization, the two universities use slightly different systems. Chulalongkorn University allows students to choose to specialize in a single or double major. The students who choose to major in one single area take a minimum of 60 credit hours of content courses in that area while students who choose double majors take a minimum of 32 credit hours of the content courses in each of the two areas (Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, n.d.). Differently, students from Chiang Mai University can major in only one area. The other area is
considered a minor. The students take a minimum of 33 credit hours of content courses in the major area and 15 credit hours in the minor area. (Education Services Division, Office of the President Chiang Mai University, 2002). According to the information provided in the second survey, ten participants had a single major, which was English. Thirty-two participants had double majors or one major and one minor. The other areas of specialization the participants were majoring or minoring in were Tourism (7), Psychology (6), French (5), Educational technology (4), German (2), Home and Community (2), Social studies (1), Computers (1), Educational Administration (1), Hotel management (1), Mass communication (1), and Chinese (1).

In regard to the participants’ teaching experience before the practice teaching, approximately eighty percent of the participants had had experience in teaching as an individual tutor (54.76%), as a tutor in a tutoring center (2.38%), or both (23.81%). The rest of them (21.43%) had never taught anywhere before. About their familiarity to the teaching profession, almost sixty percent of the participants did not have any relatives in the profession, while the other forty percent had either their parent(s) or a relative working as a teacher.

The number of credit hours the pre-service teachers in the two universities enrolled in for their practice teaching was different; so was the number of teaching hours required. The practice teaching at Chiang Mai University was worth 9 credit hours and their pre-service teachers taught twelve class periods a week. The course at Chulalongkorn University was a 6-credit hour course and their pre-service teachers taught eight class periods a week. Both universities required the pre-service teachers to attend an orientation before starting their practice teaching and a post practice teaching
seminar after the practice teaching. In addition, the pre-service teachers had to go to the universities to attend seminars and meet with their supervisors several times over the course of the practice teaching program.

All participants had their practice teaching in secondary schools. Almost all of them taught junior high school students (Grade 7-9). Only one participant taught 10th Grade students. Twenty percent of the participants taught in more than one grade. About the subject that they taught in those schools, only half of the participants answered this question specifically. The participants who answered this question revealed that they taught English foundation courses (English 011-016). These courses are two-credit hour courses that meet four class periods a week and emphasize all four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The courses are offered to students from Grade 7 to 9 starting from English 011 to English 016—one course in each semester.

Material and Procedures

In the survey phase, beliefs about language learning of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand were elicited using a modified version of a survey entitled, Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (ESL student version), which was published by Horwitz in 1987.

Survey Modification

Since the original survey was developed for ESL students, yet the target population of this study were Thai speakers who learned English as a foreign language, the BALLI was modified to develop a Thai version in order to avoid problems that participants might encounter in completing the survey in English. The original survey consisted of 34 Likert-scale items that were grouped under five different categories:
foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language learning, nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations and expectations (see Appendix A).

After being granted permission from Elaine Horwitz to use the BALLI for the present study, the items in the original questionnaire were translated into Thai and six items (see Table 3.3) were added to the questionnaire. One item was from Yang (1999), which was added by Horwitz (cited in Yang, 1999). The other five items were developed by me for three reasons: the current context of English learning in Thailand (items 33 and 37), the development of educational media and information technology (items 35 and 36), and the role of English as an international language (item 38).

The item that was added by Horwitz was item 34. The item was about the relationship between English learning and memorization. Thailand, like a lot of other Asian countries, has been known for their practices in learning by memorization. For students in these countries, learning usually involves a lot of recitation and memorization. Therefore, it was interesting to know whether Thai EFL learners view English as another memorizing class or not. This item was also used in Yang (1999) which was a study of the relationship between EFL learners’ beliefs and learning strategy use of university students in Taiwan.

The two items that were added in regard to the English learning context in Thailand were items 33 and 37. Item 33 was about the difficulty in learning English caused by the differences between the Thai and English alphabet systems. Thai has its own distinct alphabet system, and Thai letters do not resemble roman letters used in English. In such a situation, Thai EFL learners may find it more difficult to learn English
since they are not familiar with the letters in the English alphabet system. Item 33 was used to check whether the difference in alphabet system of the two languages affected Thai EFL learners’ perception about the difficulty of learning English or not.

Table 3.3

*English Translation of the added items in the modified version of the BALLI*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Belief Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33. It is difficult for Thai people to learn English because of the difference in alphabet system.</td>
<td>Difficulty of language learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Learning English involves a lot of memorization.</td>
<td>Nature of language learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. It is important to practice English by listening to TV or radio programs in English frequently.</td>
<td>Learning and communication strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I want to know English well because it can help me access information from around the world.</td>
<td>Motivations and expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. English is important for higher educational level, especially for graduate programs.</td>
<td>Motivations and expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. In order to communicate with people from other countries, you need to learn English because it is an international language.</td>
<td>Motivations and expectations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The other item that was added for the first reason was item 37. This item indicated the importance of English in higher education programs. As Thai is the only language used as a means of communication in Thailand, most basic education including primary
level (Grades 1 to 6), secondary level (Grades 7-12), and tertiary level (undergraduate programs) is conducted in Thai. English textbooks for other content subjects are not used in regular schools in either level. In the undergraduate level, some programs such as programs in science and technology may require the use of English textbooks but Thai is usually the medium of instruction in these programs just like in any others. It was anticipated that most English classes in the undergraduate level would also be conducted in Thai while using textbooks or materials in English. This was from my own experience: most of my English classes in college were not conducted in English.

However, English is becoming more important for students who pursue higher degrees in graduate school. Many students go abroad for their master’s or doctoral degrees; therefore the need to know English is higher for such a purpose. Also, the graduate programs in Thailand require more use of English than in the other levels. Most textbooks are in English and students need to be able to search the Internet and read articles in English. Therefore, item 37 was used to assess learners’ beliefs about this aspect of English usage for Thai learners.

The second group of items (35 and 36) was added to update the BALLI because of the development of educational media and information technology. Item 35 was about ways to practice English. In the original version, Horwitz had an item that indicates one way to practice English, “It is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.” However, the context of English learning nowadays has changed from fifteen years ago when the BALLI was first developed. Now learners can listen to English conversation not only from cassette tapes produced for educational practice purposes but also from regular TV or radio programs. In Thailand, there are several programs on TV and radio that are
broadcast in English. Cable TV also enhances the opportunity of learners to practice English listening. Therefore, this item was added to the questionnaire.

Similarly, item 36 was added because of the uses of English in the age of information technology. With the advanced development in information technology, people can access information more easily. Abundant information is available on the Internet for people from every part of the world twenty-four hours a day. Unfortunately for speakers of other languages, English has been accepted as a major means of communication in cyberspace. Therefore, this item was used to assess the awareness of Thai EFL learners of the importance of English in this regard.

The last added item, item 38, accounted for the role of English as “an international language.” English is accepted worldwide as a means of communication between people who speak different languages. Many learners pursue their English learning because of this instrumental motivation. Considering that English is not necessary for daily life communication in Thailand, item 38 was added to the BALLI to check Thai EFL learners’ beliefs about this importance of English learning.

In conclusion, the added items were developed in order to update the questionnaire to suit the current situation of English learning in the world and in Thailand, in particular. The new items were added under the categories of the difficulty of language learning (1 item), the nature of language learning (1 item), learning communication and strategies (1 item), and motivations and expectations (3 items) (see Table 3.3).

In total, the modified survey consisted of 40 items, 34 original items and 6 new items, and was divided into two sections (see Appendix B). In section I, there were 38 Likert-scale items. The scales ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).
In section 2, there were two multiple-choice items. The items were reordered and placed under the categories that they belonged to (Horwitz, 1987). They were not scrambled in the same way as the items in the original BALLI.

*Validity test.*

After developing the BALLI in a Thai version, the questionnaire was tried out with a group of six Thai students at Oklahoma State University in order to check the validity and comprehensibility of the translation. Each participant was interviewed for approximately 45 to 60 minutes. First, they were asked to complete the modified survey and make notes on the items that they had difficulty filling out with their responses. After completing the survey, they were asked about the survey items in regard to the clarity and interpretability of the statements as written in Thai. Each participant was asked to give an example or a situation that supported their response to each statement to check their interpretation of the statement. Last, the participants were asked whether there were any learning experiences or beliefs about language learning that were not covered in the survey. The interviews were tape recorded and the data were used for the first revision of the survey in the aspects of translation, interpretability, and clarity.

Overall, the responses from the participants showed that the items in the modified BALLI functioned well. The participants could interpret the statements in a way that was consistent with the intention of the survey. For the added items, the responses showed that the beliefs in these items were the ones that most participants had and the items were understood clearly. However, four items (item 12, 13, 14 in section 1, and item 2 in section 2) needed major revision because they were misinterpreted by some participants. In the other items, minor changes were made including rearranging words for better
sounding structure in Thai, deleting awkward words, and omitting repetitive words. The major changes in the four items were described as follows. The revised word(s) or phrase(s) in each statement are in italics.

Items 12 and 13 contained an ambiguous word, “understand.” The word was translated into Thai as a direct interpretation of the English word but it was not clear to the participants. Most participants asked for clarification of this word while completing the survey. Therefore, instead of using the word, “understand,” more contextual clues were added to the statement in item 12 and the word “listening” used in item 13.

12. การพูดภาษาอังกฤษง่ายกว่าการฟังภาษาอังกฤษ

It is easier to speak than to understand English.

→ การพูดภาษาอังกฤษง่ายกว่าการฟังภาษาอังกฤษ

It is easier to speak than to understand what people say in English.

13. ในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ การอ่านและการเขียนง่ายกว่าการฟังและการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ

In learning a foreign language, reading and writing is easier than speaking and understanding.

→ ในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ การอ่านและการเขียนง่ายกว่าการพูดและการฟัง

In learning a foreign language, reading and writing is easier than speaking and listening.

The other item in section 1 that needed a change was item 14. The word “culture” and the phrase “speak English well” were troublesome for some participants. In the revision, a phrase that identifies samples of the “culture” that the survey was intended to convey was used to replace the word “culture.” The second problematic part was
Rewritten to indicate the meaning of “speak well” to cover the quality of speech in regard to contexts.

14. การที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ เราควรจะต้องรู้วัฒนธรรมของคนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ เช่น คนอังกฤษ คนอเมริกัน หรือ คนออสเตรเลีย

In order to speak English well, it is necessary to know the cultures of English-speaking people such as the British, Americans, or Australians.

→ การที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้้อย่างถูกต้องและเหมาะสม เราควรจะต้องเรียนรู้ วัฒนธรรม วัฒนธรรม และวัฒนธรรมเป็นอย่างๆของคนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ เช่น คนอังกฤษ คนอเมริกัน หรือ คนออสเตรเลีย

It is necessary to know the customs and the ways of life and thoughts of English-speaking people (such as the British, Americans, or Australians) in order to speak English correctly and appropriately in a particular context.

In section 2, item 2 was troublesome for some participants. They asked for clarification of the frequency of the learning. The translated statement did not clearly indicate the frequency of the learning as in the English statement. In the revision, the word “everyday” was added into the context to emphasize the frequency.

2. ถ้าใครจะเรียนภาษาอังกฤษโดยใช้เวลาในการเรียนวันละ ๑ ชั่วโมง เขาจะต้องใช้เวลานานเท่าไรจึงจะสามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี

If someone spent one hour a day learning English, how long would it take him or her to speak English well?

→ ถ้าใครจะเรียนภาษาอังกฤษโดยใช้เวลาในการเรียน ทุกวัน วันละ ๑ ชั่วโมง เขาจะต้องใช้เวลานาน
If someone spent one hour learning English everyday, how long would it take him or her to speak English well?

After all the revisions were made, the first revised survey was sent to Thailand for another validation. The second validation was done by three university professors in Thailand who were familiar with developing surveys in the social science field and the concept of beliefs about language learning. The professors reviewed the survey items in the revised version in both Thai and English. The reviews focused on two aspects. The first aspect was to check whether the beliefs included in the survey were the kind of beliefs possessed by Thai learners or not. The second aspect was to check the consistency of the meaning of the statements in the survey between the Thai and English versions.

Overall, the reviewers were satisfied with the content validity of the survey. There were no comments that any of the beliefs presented in the survey were invalid for Thai EFL learners. The main suggestions were addressed to the translation of the survey. The reviewers suggested some changes in some statements in the survey to make them sound better in Thai. The changes included the change of words or phrases and the rearrangement of words or phrases. Apart from the translation matter, the reviewers made the following remarks:

1. Change the scales from “Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disbelieve to Strongly Believe”

2. Rewrite the statements in the survey to be general statements

Examples

I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.
Everybody can learn to speak English very well.

I enjoy practicing English with the foreigners I meet.

It is best to learn English by speaking with foreigners.

I feel timid speaking English with other people.

Some people feel timid speaking English with other people.

Note. The reviewers’ suggestions are in italics

3. Divide the survey into two parts: beliefs about one’s own learning and beliefs about learning in general

4. Divide the statement in item 13 into two items.

Most of the reviewers’ suggestions were accepted and a revision was made accordingly. However, their remarks about the scales, the subject of the statements, and the division of the survey did not comply with the purpose of the survey, so they were not used in the revision. In regard to the scales, I did not want to make it too obvious that the survey was assessing beliefs, so the terms “strongly agree” and “strongly disagree” were not changed. About making some statements more generic, the statements (see Examples) were intended to assess a respondent’s beliefs about ‘his or her own language learning’, so “I” was the most suitable subject and was retained in the revised version. The third suggestion about the division of the survey was also rejected since the survey did not aim to assess beliefs about one’s own learning and beliefs about learning in general separately.

In conclusion, the two validity tests showed that the modified version of the BALLI in Thai functioned well and the beliefs presented in the survey were consistent with beliefs about language learning of Thai EFL learners. Even though there were some ambiguous, unclear, or inappropriate translated statements in the first modified version,
changes were made according to the responses received from the Thai students and Thai educators in the two validations. The second revised version was comprised of 39 Likert-scale items and 2 multiple-choice items.

Reliability test.

The second revised version of the BALLI was tested for reliability with a group of participants that had similar characteristics with the target participants of the study. The participants in the try out were 26 fourth-year students in the B. Ed. Program who majored in English at Chulalongkorn University, Thailand. The survey was tried out in the second semester of the 2001 academic year (B.E. 2544). The survey was given and collected during class time of a seminar course for students after practice teaching. The survey was given to the same group of students two times, one week apart, to check for the consistency in their responses. The data from the two surveys were analyzed using the Spearman’s Rho Correlation Analysis to check the reliability of the questionnaire. The results showed a significant correlation between the results of the two surveys ($\rho = .69, p < .01$), which indicated that the questionnaire had moderately high reliability. Therefore, no revision was made to the modified BALLI after the try out.

The final version of the modified BALLI.

The final version of the modified BALLI (see Appendix C and D) contained all 34 items from the original BALLI (with one item split into two) and 6 new items. There were two types of items in the questionnaire. In the first section, there were 39 Likert-scale items with scales ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Section two consisted of two multiple-choice items. All items were in Thai and were grouped together under the categories that they belonged to, except the two items in section 2.
On the last page of the questionnaire, some demographic information including name, university attended, classification, another major or minor area, years started learning English, teaching experience, and familiarity to the teaching profession, was requested. In the present study, the participants were asked to identify their names because it was necessary to match the results from the two surveys of each participant for the analysis.

The questions about the participant’s demographic information in the survey after practice teaching were slightly different from the ones in the first survey. In the second survey, the participants were asked about the experience they gained from the practice teaching. The requested information included:

1. the name of the school at which the participants had their practice teaching,
2. the level of the students that the participants taught,
3. the title of the subject that the participants taught, and
4. the three most important experiences that the participants had from the practice teaching.

Survey Distribution

The BALLI was distributed two times during the course of the practice teaching. The first survey was conducted before practice teaching and the second was conducted after practice teaching. The surveys were distributed to four public universities in Thailand: Chiang Mai University, Chulalongkorn University, Silpakorn University, and Ramkamhaeng University, for reasons previously mentioned.

To prepare for the survey distribution, my assistant in Thailand helped contact the
professors who were in charge of the practice teaching program for students in the English major in the four universities. The purposes of the study and the procedures were conveyed to the professors over the phone and appointments for survey distribution were made.

The first survey was scheduled to be distributed to the pre-service teachers in each university during the orientation program which was usually held in March or in May—before the practice teaching started. The orientation program was a one-day program held at the university to prepare the pre-service teachers before they started their practice teaching. The questionnaires were brought to three universities in person (by either my assistant or me) and to one university by mail. Two universities, Chiang Mai University and Chulalongkorn University, gave the surveys to their students as scheduled but the other two received the surveys too late to comply with their schedules.

Silpakorn University and Ramkamhaeng University had to conduct the survey two weeks after the practice teaching started. The participants in the two universities completed the questionnaires during the first seminar program instead of in the orientation program. The delay was due to some communication problems. The first received information was that the two universities did not have practice teaching in the semester in which the study was conducted; therefore, the surveys were not sent to the universities at time of the orientation program. Nevertheless, the participants from the two universities in the study were included in the study regardless of the late distribution of the survey because normally pre-service teachers do not start teaching right away. Supervisors at schools usually prepare the pre-service teachers by letting them observe classes for at least one or two weeks before the pre-service teachers start teaching.
Therefore, it was assumed that the experience the pre-service teachers received from being in schools for two weeks was not different from the experience of those who had not started practice teaching.

Before completing the questionnaire, the participants were informed that the participation in the study was voluntary and the survey was not a part of the practice teaching program. Then, they were asked to sign a consent form of intent (see Appendix E) attached to the questionnaire to indicate that they were willing to participate in the study. The questionnaires were completed and returned to the contact person in each university during the time of the orientation or the seminar program as mentioned earlier. In other words, the participants completed the questionnaire in the presence of their professors within the time of the program they were attending; they did not take the questionnaire with them and complete it elsewhere.

The questionnaires were collected from three universities in person. The questionnaires from Silpakorn University were sent back by mail. All students enrolled in the practice teaching course in the four universities in the first semester of the 2002 academic year (B.E. 2545) completed the first survey. A total of 88 completed questionnaires were collected in the survey before practice teaching.

In distributing the questionnaires for the post practice teaching survey, the questionnaires were brought to two universities by me and sent to the other two by mail. Along with the questionnaires, a self-address envelope with correct paid postage was sent to the contact person for the returning of the questionnaires. Only the questionnaires from two universities, Chiang Mai University and Chulalongkorn University, were received back.
At Chiang Mai University and Chulalongkorn University, the second survey was given to the pre-service teachers during the post practice teaching seminar at the end of the practice teaching program. However, not all the participants in the first survey completed the second survey. Out of 52 participants in the first survey, forty-two participants completed the second survey.

**Statistical Analysis**

Only the data from the participants who completed both surveys were used in the data analysis. Totally, 42 completed questionnaires in each survey were analyzed. Since the BALLI was not designed to yield a composite score of all the items in the questionnaire together (Horwitz, 1987), frequency in terms of percentages of the results of each individual item of the BALLI were computed.

The percentages of the responses were used to describe the pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning. The individual scores of the responses in the two surveys were paired for t-test analysis (paired sample correlations) to check whether there were any significant differences between beliefs about language learning before and after practice teaching.

In the analysis, the five rating scales were consolidated into three groups and were interpreted as follows. Responses “1” and “2” were combined and analyzed under the category of “Disagreement” which indicated that the respondent disagreed with the statement. Responses “4” and “5” were analyzed together under the category of “Agreement” which indicated that the respondent agreed with the statement. Response “3” was analyzed in the category of “Neutral” which meant that the respondent did not either agree or disagree with the statement.
Qualitative Study Phase

Participants

The participants in the qualitative study phase were selected from the surveyed participants from Chulalongkorn University only because of the convenience in the data collection. All schools at which the pre-service teachers from this university had practice teaching were at a reasonable distance for me to commute to. Moreover, to keep the variable, school context, consistent across all cases, pre-service teachers who taught at the same school were selected for the observations.

The criteria in choosing the participants for this phase were students’ major and teaching experience. Since the university allows students to have either single or double majors, both types of students—single-major students (English) and double-major students (English and another subject area)—were included in the study. The two groups were required to take a different number of required credit hours in English content courses, so it was interesting to see if their beliefs about language learning and classroom practice were different from each other or not. For the second criterion, teaching experience before practice teaching, the participants consisted of the same number of students with and without experience.

Finally, four pre-service teachers from one public secondary school (Grade 7-12) in Bangkok were chosen by using the information obtained from the first survey (see Table 3.2). All four participants were female. They were fourth-year university students pursuing a Bachelor’s degree in Education with a major in English.

The participants’ names were changed for the protection of their identities. The names used throughout the study are Pam, Preeya, Sar, and Sinee. Pam and Preeya had a
single major, English. Sar and Sinee had double major, English and Psychology. Pam and Preeya had taken more content courses in English than the other two because they were majoring in English only. According to the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University (n.d.), Pam and Preeya had to take a minimum of 60 credit hours in English before graduation while double major students like Sar and Sinee needed only 32.

Table 3.2

Demographic information of the participants in the qualitative study phase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Major(s)</th>
<th>Teaching Experience before Practice Teaching</th>
<th>Grade Taught</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pam</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>8 and 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preeya</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Individual tutor</td>
<td>8 and 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sar</td>
<td>English - Psychology</td>
<td>Individual tutor</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinee</td>
<td>English - Psychology</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All participants except Sar started learning English in their kindergarten years. Sar started later in the fifth grade. Pam and Sinee had no experience in teaching before the practice teaching, whereas Preeya and Sar had taught as individual tutors before. About their familiarity with the teaching profession, all participants had someone in the family in the profession. One of Preeya’s parents was a teacher. The other three girls had a relative who was a teacher.

The four participants taught English core courses, which were two-credit hour courses. The classes met four times a week for fifty minutes each but the participants
only taught three times a week. Once a week, each class was taught by a native speaker of English with the pre-service teacher observing.

Pam and Preeya taught more English classes than Sar and Sinee. They taught two English classes for students in Mathayomsuksa 2 and 3 (Grade 8 and 9) because of their single major. Sar and Sinee each taught one English class for Mathayomsuksa 1 (Grade 7) students and one Psychology class.

Materials and Procedures

In the qualitative study phase, three research methods were used to obtain the data of the four selected pre-service teachers. Their beliefs about language learning were elicited by using surveys, interviews, and observations. Their teaching approaches were elicited by using observations and interviews.

The survey data of the four participants were obtained in the survey phase. The data collection and analysis procedure of the interviews and observations was modified from Borg (1998). The data were collected and analyzed throughout the period of fieldwork as a “cyclical” (p. 13) process. The data analysis in each stage provided a framework for the data collection in the next successive stage. In sum, the pre-service teachers were first interviewed and the data were used to frame the focus points for the observations. The observation field notes were used to prepare the post-observation interview. Finally, the data from the observations and interviews were analyzed to build an understanding of the participants’ beliefs about language learning and their teaching approaches. Detailed information about this process is presented in the following sections.
Pre-observation Interview

A first interview with each pre-service teacher was conducted before the observations started. Each lasted approximately 60 minutes. This interview was aimed at building acquaintanceship between the researcher and the pre-service teachers as well as to gain insights about the participants’ general background, their English learning experience, their opportunity in using English, and their beliefs about English learning (see Table 3.4).

The list of questions was prepared beforehand using the BALLI framework. In other words, I attempted to elicit their beliefs about language learning in the five issues addressed in the BALLI. The interview was a semi-structured conversation. As explained by Borg (1998), this kind of interview was guided by the topics that the interviewer prepared, yet the order and wording of the questions were adjusted according to how the conversation was developed. Moreover, impromptu topics that emerged from the conversation were pursued, particularly the topics that related to specific information about the participant.

All the interviews were conducted in Thai, the first language of both interlocutors. They were tape recorded and transcribed afterwards. The information from the first interview provided a profile of each participant’s background in English learning and their general beliefs about language learning, which helped build a general understanding about the participants before the observations.

Observations

After the first interview with each pre-service teacher, observation times were scheduled. The pre-service teachers were originally scheduled to be observed once a
### English translation of the questions used in the first interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Background information</td>
<td>1. Why did you choose to teach in this school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Why did you choose to study in the English teaching major?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience in English</td>
<td>1. When did you start learning English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Are your English teachers native or non-native speakers of English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Can you describe what your English class is typically like?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. What kind of activities did you usually do in your English class?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. What is your experience in learning English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Do you think English is one of the difficult subjects in school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. What skill(s) do you think you master the best?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. How comfortable are you in using English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity in using</td>
<td>1. Do you have any opportunity to use English in everyday life?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English using English</td>
<td>2. Do you work for any job that requires the use of English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Have you ever been in a foreign country in which you have a chance to communicate in English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. How often do you travel abroad?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. What is your Internet habit?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. How often do you search information from websites?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Do you use Thai or English in writing e-mails?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Do you have any pen pal to whom you write a letter in English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Do you have any contact with foreigners with whom you speak English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Do you read for pleasure in English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Do you have to read any textbooks or class assignments in English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. How often do you see movies or TV programs in English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. How often do you listen to radio programs in English?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.4 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beliefs about English learning</td>
<td>1. What is an ideal English learner?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. What age should the learner start learning English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Are there any differences in learning English between men and women?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. What characteristics should the learner have in learning English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Are there any difficulties for Thais to learn English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. What kind of strategies should the learner employ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. What is an ideal English classroom?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. What environment should English class take place?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. How many students should there be in one class?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. What kind of activities should be implemented in English classrooms?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. What is an ideal English teacher for Thai students? Considering age, gender, Native/ Non-native speaker, personal characteristic(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. What skill(s) do you think is the most important to be learned in English class?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. What skill(s) do you think is the most difficult to learn?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. What skill should learn the first?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. How important is the learning of English in Thailand? And for you?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

week over the period of eight weeks (from mid June to early August 2002) but, in total, two participants were observed five times and the other two were observed six times because some classes were not conducted regularly due to national holidays or the school calendar. For Pam and Preeya who taught two English classes, only one of their classes was chosen to be observed.
My role in class was a non-participant observer. I usually sat at a desk in the very back of the class, most of the time in the row that had no students. I did not participate in any class activities nor did I have a discussion with the pre-service teachers before the observations about the activities or materials to be used in the classroom. I also did not interact either verbally or non-verbally with the students or the pre-service teachers during the observations.

The students in the class that I observed were aware of my presence in class but their interaction and behaviors did not show that they were influenced by my observation. Having an observer in the class was not unusual for the students since the pre-service teachers were regularly observed by a supervisor either from the school or from the university. Therefore, my presence did not appear to have any effect on the students.

Similarly, there was no harmful effect of the observations on the pre-service teachers’ performances. Some pre-service teachers felt nervous being observed the first time since it was during the beginning of their practice teaching and they had not been observed by their supervisors much. They overcame their anxiety after getting more acquainted with me and being more familiar with having an observer in class. Moreover, being clear that the purpose of my observations was not related to their practice teaching program, the pre-service teachers were confident to be themselves in my presence. Also, the observations were arranged to coincide with their schedules and avoided any disruptions to the class activity. None of the participants showed or reported that they had difficulties being observed.

The observations focused on the classroom events and the spoken discourse of the pre-service teachers. The accounts of the observations were collected through jottings.
(descriptive notes of what the pre-service teacher did or said with some direct speech included when possible), audio recordings, copies of the pre-service teachers’ lesson plans, and copies of the materials given to students in class.

After each observation, the jottings were analyzed for key episodes—classroom event(s) or spoken discourse that brought up questions about the patterns of the pre-service teacher’s classroom practice and her underlying beliefs about language learning. Examples of the key episodes included the use of a particular kind of instructional material or activity, the explanation of grammar or vocabulary, the use of L1, the response and reaction to students’ questions or errors, the topics of conversation that emerged in the classroom, and the interaction pattern between speakers in the classroom. An analytic memo was produced for each observation. This initial analysis helped frame a focus for the post-observation interviews.

Post-observation Interview

The second interview with each pre-service teacher was scheduled after the last observation. All the interviews were conducted in Thai and were tape recorded and transcribed for the purpose of the final analysis. Each interview took approximately 60-90 minutes and was tape recorded. The interviews were more casual than the pre-observation interview, yet remained semi-structured. Each participant was asked some general questions and some specific questions about her own classroom practice. The list of general questions used with all participants was shown in Table 3.5. The specific questions were developed from the key episodes generated from the observation data.
Table 3.5

*English translation of the general questions used in the second interview*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the procedure when you write a lesson plan?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the difficulties you find in preparing for class?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you select examples or class materials?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who are the best learners in your class?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you describe one class that you think was the most successful?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the motivation of your students in learning English?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List three impressive experiences in teaching this class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you plan to pursue a teaching career in the future?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questions about teaching approaches and underlying beliefs about language learning which were prompted by the classroom events or spoken discourse during the observations were used to develop specific questions for each participant. The questions addressed the topics about the activities the participants did or the materials they used in class. Some examples of the specific questions are as follows:

**Example 1**

*What do you think about teaching general knowledge or cultural knowledge in an English class?*

In this case, in the observations, the participant always integrated some general knowledge in her English lesson, so the question was used to check whether she was aware of the importance of teaching this knowledge or whether she was told to do so.
Example 2

*What do you think about students making errors during an activity? What do you do with them?*

This participant always corrected students right away when they made mistakes, especially in pronunciation. So, this question was used to confirm her approach to error correction.

*Data Coding*

After collecting the data in the field, the jottings and the analytic memo of each lesson were reviewed, the tapes were listened to, and field notes of each observation were produced. The field notes consisted of descriptive statements of what happened in class during the time of the observations and transcriptions of the excerpts that showed or signaled the participant’s underlying beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches.

A focused coding, which was defined by Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (1995) as a thorough analysis of qualitative data that has a certain focus, was conducted using the interview transcriptions and the observation field notes. The purpose of the analysis was to study the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches, the underlying beliefs about language learning, and the relationships between their beliefs and teaching approaches.

To find the underlying beliefs about language learning, the analysis framework was based on the concepts of beliefs about language learning by Horwitz (1987). The observation field notes and the interview transcriptions were reviewed and evidence of the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning was searched for. Five categories of beliefs were the focus of the analysis:
1. beliefs about foreign language aptitude
2. beliefs about the difficulty of language learning
3. beliefs about the nature of language learning
4. beliefs about learning and communication strategies
5. beliefs about motivations and expectations

In the first category, I looked for the excerpts that showed whether the pre-service teachers believed that English learning required certain abilities and that some learners could learn English better than others. In the second category, I was interested to find the excerpts that showed what the pre-service teachers believed about the relative difficulty of English learning, the expectations of success in English learning in relation to length of study, and the difficulty of each language skill—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In the third category, I was interested in the pre-service teachers’ conceptions about language immersion and the importance of the learning of cultural knowledge, vocabulary, grammar, and translation. In the fourth category, I tried to find the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the role of learning and communication strategies in English learning. The excerpts that indicated how the pre-service teachers responded to students’ errors, how they valued the importance of practice, and how they encouraged students to use English were representatives of the beliefs in this category. Lastly, in the fifth category, I attempted to find the pre-service teachers’ motivations in learning English. The pre-service teachers’ awareness of the importance of English and their attempts to enhance students’ motivations to learn English were counted in this last category.
**Data Analysis**

In the final analysis of the qualitative study phase, all three sources of data of the four pre-service teachers were used. The survey and interview data were used to discuss their reported beliefs about language learning. The emerging themes from the observation data were used to discuss their teaching approaches and underlying beliefs about language learning. The reported beliefs in the surveys and interviews and the underlying beliefs that emerged from the observation data were compared in order to check the consistency of the data from the three sources. Then, relationships between beliefs and teaching approaches were analyzed.

The results and discussion of the findings are presented in two chapters. Chapter 4 presents the results and discussion of the findings from the survey phase. Chapter 5 presents the results and discussion of the findings from the qualitative study phase.
CHAPTER 4
BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING OF
PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS IN THAILAND

The present study investigated beliefs about language learning of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand before and after practice teaching. Furthermore, the relationship between their beliefs and teaching approaches was explored. The study consisted of two phases: a survey phase and a qualitative study phase. The findings from the two study phases are presented in two chapters. In this chapter, the results from the survey phase about Thai pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning before and after their practice teaching are presented to respond to the first two research questions outlined in Chapter 3. Chapter 5 presents the findings from the qualitative study phase.

Beliefs before Practice Teaching

The data from the modified version of the BALLI before the participants started their practice teaching revealed that the majority of the pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand reported some beliefs about language learning that were discussed in previous studies as facilitative beliefs, such as a belief in one’s own ability in learning a foreign language, a belief in average ability for learning a foreign language, and a belief in the use of learning and communication strategies such as practicing and guessing. However, the participants’ responses to the BALLI items also showed that the majority of the participants reported having some beliefs that Horwitz (1985, 1987), especially, discussed as being possibly detrimental for their own language learning and for their
prospective students’ learning. These beliefs included a belief in the existence of foreign language aptitude, a belief in the role of vocabulary and grammar in learning English, and a belief in the importance of correct pronunciation and immediate correction.

The following section presents detailed results of the BALLI items in each category. The results from both surveys—before and after the practice teaching—are presented in Tables 4.1 - 4.6. However, only the results from the first survey are the focus of this section. The results from the second survey are used in the next section “Beliefs after Practice Teaching and Their Changes.” The results presented in the tables represent frequency of responses to each BALLI item in term of percentages.

Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude

BALLI items 1 to 9 cover beliefs about foreign language aptitude. Items 2, 3, 4, 6, and 9 address the concept of special abilities for language learning. Items 1, 5, and 7 address the characteristics of potentially successful language learners. Table 4.1 shows the participants’ responses to the BALLI items in this category.

In general, the participants endorsed the concept that there is such a thing as foreign language aptitude. The vast majority of the participants (83.3%) agreed with the statement “Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.” Less than ten percent did not support this concept. With the belief about the special ability for language learning, almost sixty percent agreed that people who already knew one foreign language could learn another one without much difficulty, whereas a small number of participants (7.1%) did not endorse this statement.

Even though most participants reported believing that foreign language aptitude existed, the majority of the participants (83.3%) agreed that everyone could learn a
foreign language. In other words, the participants may believe that the special ability for language learning is a gift but not a universal requirement for language learning. Also, the participants did not associate second language learning ability with intelligence. The responses to the statement “people who speak more than one language are intelligent” varied. Approximately twenty-nine percent responded to this statement in the “disagree” scale, 38.1% in the “agree” scale, and 33.3% in the “neutral” scale.

About their own potential in learning a second language, the participants were relatively optimistic about themselves. Less than five percent of the participants did not report believing that they had a special ability for learning foreign languages. Nevertheless, a mere fifty percent of the participants agreed to this statement and only seven percent responded to the statement in the “5” scale, which indicates the strongest agreement level.

In regard to the potential in language learning of Thai people, the group that the participants belong to, approximately forty percent of the participants agreed with the statement “Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.” The majority (47.6%) were neutral and the other fourteen percent disagreed with this statement.

The other items in the category of beliefs about foreign language aptitude concern some individual characteristics such as age, gender, and subject interest that some people believe can affect success in language learning. The responses to the items in this group were divided. The majority of the participants reported believing in the effect of age, but not of subject interest, and there was no consensus in beliefs about the effect of gender. Approximately eighty percent of the participants endorsed the statement “It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language;” whereas more than half of the
participants did not agree that people who were good at mathematics or science were not good at foreign language learning. About the effect of gender on language learning, the responses to the statement “Women are better than men at learning foreign languages” were varied. About one-third of the participants disagreed, another one-third agreed, and the rest were neutral.

Table 4.1

Percentages of pre-service teachers’ beliefs about foreign language aptitude before and after practice teaching (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages such as English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>88.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>71.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table continues)
Table 4.1 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>70.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. People who speak more than one language are intelligent.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>90.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In brief, most pre-service teachers in the present study reported believing in the existence of a special ability for language learning and some participants reported believing that they themselves possessed such ability. However, the participants thought that average ability was adequate for language learning. Finally, the one characteristic
that most participants believed can affect language learning was age; they agreed that young learners can learn a second language more easily than adult learners.

Beliefs about the Difficulty of Language Learning

The second group of BALLI items concern beliefs about the difficulty of language learning. Table 4.2 and 4.3 present the results of the BALLI items in this category. Items 10, 15, and 2.1 address the relative difficulty of languages. Item 2.2 concerns time requirement for mastering English. Item 11 concerns self-efficacy in learning English. Item 12, 13, and 14 concern the relative difficulty of language skills.

Half of the participants (50%) reported believing that languages had different relative difficulty, while about seventeen percent disagreed with this concept. When asked about the difficulty of English, the target language, 71.4% rated it as “a language of medium difficulty.” Nineteen percent of the participants believed that English was “a difficult language” and the other ten percent “an easy language.” None of the participants rated English as “a very easy language” or “a very difficult language.”

In regard to the difficulty in learning English that may result from the difference in the alphabet system between Thai and English, more than half of the participants (54.8%) did not agree that it would be difficult for Thai people to learn English, but twenty percent of them endorsed this concept.

In response to the question about time commitment for English learning, the participants had different ideas. The majority of the participants, about one-third, reported believing that it would take a person one to two years of studying English one hour a day to be able to speak English well. Sixteen point seven percent of the participants believed that it would take “less than a year”; 21.4% “3-5 years”; and 7.1% “5-10 years.” The rest,
Table 4.2

*Percentages of pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the difficulty of language learning before and after practice teaching (Likert-scale items) (N=42)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10. Some languages are easier to learn than others.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I believe that I will learn to speak English well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. In learning English, it is easier to speak than to understand what people say.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. In learning English, reading is easier than speaking and listening.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. In learning English, writing is easier than speaking and listening.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. It is difficult for Thai people to learn English because of the difference in the alphabet system.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
almost one-fourth of the participants, believed that no one can learn to speak English well if he or she only spent one hour a day learning it.

About their potential in learning English, the participants were optimistic about themselves. The participants overwhelmingly (83.3%) agreed that they would be able to speak English well. The rest were neutral about this statement; none of the participants disagreed with the statement.

Table 4.3

Percentages of pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the difficulty of language Learning before and after practice teaching (Multiple-choice items) (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 I think English is:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) a very easy language</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) an easy language</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) a language of medium difficulty</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) a difficult language</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) a very difficult language</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 If someone spent one hour a day learning English, how long would it take him or her to speak English well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) less than a year</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) 1-2 years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) 3-5 years</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) 5-10 years</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) You can’t learn a language in 1 hour a day</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For the items addressing the relative difficulty of language skills, the responses were varied. About half of the participants agreed that it was easier to speak than to understand English (45.2%), and that reading was easier than speaking and listening (50%), but they rejected that writing was easier than speaking and listening (52.4%). However, the percentages of the disagreement about the relative difficulty of speaking and reading were relatively high, 30.9% and 28.5% respectively.

Briefly, the results from the BALLI items in the category of the difficulty of language learning revealed that a majority of the pre-service teachers in the present study reported believing that different languages had different relative difficulty levels and they viewed their target language, English, as a language of medium difficulty, one they could master. About the relative difficulty of language skills, a majority of the participants reported perceiving that some language skills were easier than others.

Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning

In the third category, the statements in the BALLI address the issues related to the nature of language learning. The responses of the BALLI items in this category are presented in Table 4.4. Items 18, 19, 20, and 22 concern the roles of vocabulary learning, grammar instruction, translation, and memorization in learning English. Items 16 and 17 concern the importance of cultural knowledge and language immersion. Item 21 concerns the perception of English learning process in relation to that of other subject areas.

The results showed that the majority of the participants reported believing that vocabulary (76.2%) and grammar (61.9%) were important in learning English. Less than ten percent of the participants disagreed with these two concepts. In contrast, most participants (61.9%) did not agree that translation was an important part of learning
Table 4.4

Percentages of pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the nature of language learning before and after practice teaching (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16. It is necessary to know the customs, the cultures, and the ways of life of English-speaking people (such as the British, Americans, or Australians) in order to speak English correctly and appropriately in a particular context.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country such as England, the United States, or Australia.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Learning vocabulary words is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>76.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Learning the grammar is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Learning how to translate from Thai is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table continues)
Table 4.4 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21. Learning English is different from learning other academic subjects.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Learning English involves a lot of memorization.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English. One-fourth of the participants were neutral about this statement. Nevertheless, about twelve percent believed that learning how to translate from Thai was important; five percent “strongly agreed.”

The role of memorization in English learning was not clearly supported by the participants. Though more than a third (42.8%) agreed with the statement “learning English involves a lot of memorization,” more than half of the participants were either neutral (31%) or disagreed (26.2%) with the statement.

In regard to the role of the target language culture, most participants (78.5%) reported believing that learning about the cultures of English-speaking people was necessary in learning English. A very small percentage (2.4%) disagreed with this statement. Differently, the concept about language immersion was not endorsed as fully. Even though 73.8% of the participants agreed that the best way to learn English was to be in the country in which English was used in daily life, almost fifteen percent of the participants disagreed.
The last item in the category of the nature of language learning concerns the perception of English in relation to other academic subjects. The participants had different ideas about this statement. Thirty-eight percent of the participants reported believing that learning English was different from learning other subjects, twenty-six percent disagreed with this concept, and thirty-six percent were neutral.

In short, most Thai pre-service EFL teachers reported believing that learning vocabulary, grammar, and cultural knowledge were important for English learners, but they did not believe that translation and memorization played an important role in English learning. They also believed that the best place to learn English was to be in an English-speaking country. Lastly, the participants did not have a consensus about the nature of English learning in comparison to other academic subjects.

Beliefs about Learning and Communication Strategies

The fourth category of BALLI items addresses issues about learning and communication strategies. Nine items belong to this category; four of them (25, 27, 30, and 31) concern learning strategies and the others (23, 24, 26, 28, and 29) concern communication strategies. The responses to the items in this category are reported in Table 4.5.

For learning strategies, the participants unanimously endorsed the concept of practice. All participants agreed that it was important for English learners to practice a lot. In response to a particular kind of practicing, most participants reported believing that learners should practice English with cassettes or tapes (80.9%) or by listening to TV or radio programs (97.5%). None of the participants disagreed with the importance of
Table 4.5

Percentages of pre-service teachers’ beliefs about learning and communication strategies before and after practice teaching (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Belief</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23. It is important to speak English with a correct pronunciation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>88.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. We shouldn’t say anything in English until we can say it correctly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I enjoy practicing English with the foreigners I meet.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>52.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. It’s OK to guess if we don’t know a word in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. In learning English, it is important to practice a lot.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I feel timid speaking English with other people.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table continues)
Table 4.5 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>29.</strong> If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Before</strong></td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>After</strong></td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **30.** In learning English, it is important to practice with cassettes or tapes. |          |         |       |
| **Before**     | 11.9     | 7.1     | 80.9  |
| **After**      | 9.5      | 19      | 71.5  |

| **31.** In learning English, it is important to practice by listening to TV or radio programs in English frequently. |          |         |       |
| **Before**     | 0        | 2.4     | 97.5  |
| **After**      | 0        | 2.4     | 97.6  |

listening to TV or radio programs, but twelve percent of the participants did not think that it was important to practice with cassettes or tapes.

Regardless of the overwhelming agreement about the importance of practice, only half of the participants endorsed the statement “I enjoy practicing English with the foreigners I meet.” Approximately ten percent confessed that they did not like practicing English with an English speaker. Almost forty percent of the participants responded with a “3”; they neither supported nor disapproved of the concept.

The responses to the items concerning communication strategies showed contrasting opinions. Even though the participants agreed with some basic concepts of the communicative approach, they were still concerned about accuracy and lacked
confidence in using English. The majority of the participants endorsed the use of
guessing as a communication strategy (85.7%) and disapproved of the statement “We
shouldn’t say anything in English until we can say it correctly” (92.8% “disagree”);
whereas a large number of participants endorsed the concept of “accuracy” and
“immediate correction.” The participants unanimously agreed that it was important to
speak English with a correct pronunciation, and almost half of the participants agreed that
learners’ errors should not be ignored in order to prevent fossilization. In regard to their
confidence in using English, more than half of the participants did not think that they
were timid speaking English, but almost one-fourth of the participants did.

In summary, the results of the BALLI items concerning learning and
communication strategies showed that the pre-service EFL teachers in the present study
reported having some beliefs that facilitate the concept of “English learning for
communication” such as practicing, learning about cultures, and using communication
strategies. Yet, some participants were concerned about accuracy, which may inhibit
them from using English.

Beliefs about Motivations and Expectations

The last category of beliefs about language learning in the BALLI concern
learners’ motivations and expectations in learning English. Table 4.6 presents the results
of the BALLI items in this category. Item 35 concerns individual expectations about
learning English. Item 32 concerns the importance of English learning for Thai people.
Items 33, 34, 36, 37, 38, and 39 concern individual motivation in learning English.

Unsurprisingly, a large number of the participants agreed to all BALLI statements
in this category, which indicated that the participants reported believing that learning
Table 4.6

*Percentages of pre-service teachers’ beliefs about motivations and expectations before and after practice teaching (N=42)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32. Thai people feel that it is very important to learn English.</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know people who speak English (such as the British, Americans, or Australians) better.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>90.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>88.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. If I can use English well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>95.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. I want to be able to speak English well.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>95.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I would like to have friends from other countries.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>95.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table continues)
Table 4.6 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37. I want to learn English well because it can help me access information from around the world.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. English is important for higher education level, especially graduate programs.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Learning English will help me communicate with people from other countries because English is an international language.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English was important and they wanted to do well in English for both integrative and instrumental reasons. Specifically, all participants agreed with the statement, “I want to be able to speak English well” and the majority of the participants (69%) agreed that learning English was important for Thais. In regard to the reasons why they wanted to learn English, the majority of the participants responded that it was because of integrative motivation: they wanted to have friends from other countries (95.2%) and learn about English speakers (90.5%); as well as instrumental motivation: English was important for communication (100%), higher education (100%), information access (97.6%), and job opportunity (95.2%).
Beliefs after Practice Teaching and Their Changes

As explained above, the results of the BALLI items in the survey after the practice teaching are also shown in Tables 4.1 to 4.6. An examination of these results in comparison to those for the survey given before the practice teaching indicates that, in general, the participants’ beliefs about language learning did not change much after the practice teaching. In order to determine which beliefs showed significant changes, the differences in reported beliefs about language learning before and after the practice teaching were analyzed using t-test analysis (paired sample correlations). For these items which showed a significant difference, the mean scores of the responses to the BALLI rating-scale items before and after the practice teaching are reported in Table 4.7.

The results showed that only three beliefs differed significantly at the 0.05 level after the participants had classroom experiences in their practice teaching. These beliefs are in the following categories: foreign language aptitude, learning and communication strategies, and motivations and expectations (see Table 4.7). In this section, I will discuss the beliefs that showed significant differences between the two surveys.

The first belief that showed a significant difference between the two surveys is in the category of beliefs about foreign language aptitude. In the survey after the practice teaching, the statement “I have a special ability for learning foreign languages” received more agreement. In the first survey, only half of the participants believed that they had a special ability for language learning. The percentage increased from 50% to 70.7% in the second survey. Also, only 2.4 percent of the participants disagreed with the statement after the practice teaching, reduced from 4.8 percent.
Table 4.7

*BALLI items that showed significant differences between the results of the survey before and after practice teaching at the 0.05 level (N=42)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages. (t = 2.870, p = 0.007)</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. It is important to speak English with a correct pronunciation. (t = -2.016, p = 0.050)</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>76.2</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. English is important for higher education level, especially graduate programs. (t = -2.993, p = 0.005)</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>88.1</td>
<td>4.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was no significant change found in beliefs about the difficulty of language learning or beliefs about the nature of language learning in the second survey. Nonetheless, one item in the latter category showed a difference approaching significance. The results of the item concerning the role of grammar approached significance at the 0.05 level (t = 1.757, p = 0.086). The percentage of the participants who agreed that grammar was important remained constant in the second survey, but the
percentage of the participants who disagreed dropped from 9.5% to 2.4%, and the neutral responses rose from 28.6% to 35.7%.

In the fourth category, beliefs about learning and communication strategies, a significant difference was found in the results of item 23, “It is important to speak English with a correct pronunciation.” The unanimous agreement in the first survey did not remain in the second survey; the percentage of the participants who agreed with the statement dropped to 88.1 %. Two point four percent of the participants did not agree with this concept of accuracy after their practice teaching. In addition, these participants responded to the statement in the “1” scale which meant that they “strongly disagreed” with the statement; at the same time almost ten percent of the participants doubted the concept and responded to the statement in the “3” scale “neither agree nor disagree.”

Another item in this category (item 28) showed a notable change in the responses to the two surveys. The difference in the responses to the statement “I feel timid speaking English with other people” approached significance ($t = -1.817, p = 0.077$). The percentage of the participants who agreed with the statement decreased from 23.8% in the first survey to 9.5% in the second survey. On the other hand, the disagreement remained the same.

In the last category, beliefs about motivations and expectations, one item (item 38) which concerned the importance of English for educational purposes was found to yield significant differences in the responses from the two surveys. In the first survey, all participants agreed that English was important for higher education but approximately sixteen percent of the participants changed their beliefs after the practice teaching.
Specifically, 4.8% of the participants disagreed with the statement and 9.5% were neutral to the statement after the practice teaching.

Another item in this category (item 35) showed a difference approaching significance ($t = -2.016, p = 0.051$). The percentage of the participants who agreed with the statement “I want to be able to speak English well” dropped from 100% to 95.2%. In addition, the 4.8% of the participants in the second survey responded to the statement in the “3” scale; they “neither agree nor disagree” with the statement.

In summary, the comparison of the results in the two surveys, before and after practice teaching, reveals that some reported beliefs about language learning changed after the pre-service teachers had some experiences teaching English in classrooms. The beliefs that showed significant changes included beliefs about one’s own ability for language learning, correct pronunciation, and the importance of English for educational purposes.

**Discussion**

The responses of the BALLI items in the survey before the practice teaching showed some trends in beliefs about language learning of the pre-service EFL teachers in the present study. Out of the forty-one BALLI items, merely seven items did not show strong consensus of beliefs one way or the other—the responses to these items were divided (see Table 4.8). The other items showed a trend of beliefs; they received responses at the same level of agreement: “agree”, “neutral”, or “disagree,” from at least half of the participants. The results presented in the table represent frequency of responses to each item in term of percentages.
Table 4.8

*BALLI items that the responses were varied*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. People who speak more than one language are intelligent.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. In learning English, it is easier to speak than to understand what people say.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Learning English is different from learning other academic subjects.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Learning English involves a lot of memorization.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table continues)
Table 4.8 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the following sections, the beliefs that received fifty percent or more on the level of “agree” or “disagree” are used to represent beliefs about language learning of the Thai pre-service EFL teachers in the present study. Furthermore, the pre-service teachers’ beliefs that, according to prior research, may be facilitative or debilitative to their own language learning or to their future students’ learning are discussed.

**Thai Pre-service EFL Teachers’ Beliefs about Language Learning**

In general, the Thai pre-service EFL teachers in this study reported having many positive beliefs about language learning. They reported high motivation to learn English and wanted to be able to speak English well. Their motivations were both instrumentally and integratively oriented. Also, the pre-service teachers were optimistic about learners’ potential in learning English, including their own. Most of them reported believing in the existence of foreign language aptitude and some agreed that they themselves possessed it. However, they might not think that a special ability was necessary for language learning, as discussed in Horwitz (1988), because they believed that everyone had the potential to learn a foreign language.
Furthermore, the pre-service teachers were optimistic about the difficulty of English learning and their own ability. They reported viewing English, the target language, as a language of medium difficulty, one they could master. More importantly, they valued the use of learning and communication strategies. They reported beliefs that practice was important and a lot of them reported enjoying practicing English with foreigners; however, some participants reported a lack of confidence in speaking English with other people and a focus on “correct pronunciation.”

In regard to factors that lead to success in learning English, the pre-service teachers reported believing that one should start learning early in their childhood. They believed that young learners did better than adult learners in second language learning. In addition, they reported beliefs that it was necessary for English learners to learn about the cultures of English-speaking countries and to be immersed in an English-speaking environment. Finally, in regard to the nature of language learning, a large number of the pre-service teachers reported beliefs that grammar and vocabulary were important elements in English learning.

*Common Beliefs among EFL learners*

These findings show a trend of reported beliefs within the group of Thai pre-service EFL teachers. In the section that follows, I explore commonalities and differences between these results and those concerning beliefs about language learning across other groups of EFL learners. I do not consider other second language learners in the comparison because Horwitz (1999) has suggested that differences in ESL and EFL language learning circumstances may be one cause of variation in learners’ beliefs. Therefore, I only focused on the groups of learners in similar English learning contexts—
EFL learners and teachers. I reviewed the BALLI results from this study and those from related published studies: third-year teacher trainees (Peacock, 2001), in-service EFL teachers and EFL university students in Hong Kong (Peacock, 1999), and EFL university students in Taiwan (Yang, 1999). Though there are more studies of EFL learners, these three studies show detailed results of the BALLI items in percentages.

The comparison did not employ any statistical analysis. I was only interested to find out whether the pre-service teachers in the present study showed similar beliefs to those of other language learners in a similar language learning context, EFL in particular. Another reason that it is not possible to conduct any statistical analysis of the results from different studies is because 1) not all BALLI items were shown in all studies and 2) some of the items were modified to suit the research purpose(s) of each study. Consequently, only the BALLI items that appear in all five studies are discussed.

The comparison of the results of BALLI found in the present study and other EFL studies reveal some common beliefs about language learning and some differences between learners and teachers of English as a foreign language. The agreement and disagreement responses to each BALLI item from five groups of participants are presented in Tables 4.9 - 4.13. The results presented in the tables represent frequency of responses to each item in term of percentages. The item numbers used in the tables comply with the ordering of the BALLI items in the present study.

**Beliefs about foreign language aptitude.**

Both Thai pre-service teachers and other EFL students and teachers report believing that some people have a special ability for language learning, yet they all think that everyone can learn a foreign language (see detailed results in Table 4.9). In all
studies, they report that the ideal successful language learners are young learners rather than adults. The majority in all studies do not believe that an ability to learn science or mathematics has negative effects on language learning.

Table 4.9

*Percentages of agreement and disagreement with BALLI items in the category of beliefs about foreign language aptitude*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pre-service</td>
<td>in-service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Some people have foreign language aptitude</td>
<td>83^a/7^d</td>
<td>87/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Own ability</td>
<td>50/5</td>
<td>27/25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Everyone’s potential</td>
<td>83/10</td>
<td>86/7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Countrymen’s English</td>
<td>38/14</td>
<td>15/22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Transferable ability</td>
<td>60/7</td>
<td>30/7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Children vs. adults</td>
<td>79/2</td>
<td>85/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Male vs. female</td>
<td>36/33</td>
<td>22/37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Math/Science aptitude</td>
<td>17/57</td>
<td>5/62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Intelligence</td>
<td>38/29</td>
<td>56/17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The percentages presented were rounded to the nearest whole number. Neutral responses are not shown. ^a Agreement responses, ^d Disagreement responses

One of the differences found in this category is the reported belief about the respondents’ own language learning ability. The Thai pre-service teachers are more optimistic about themselves than the other groups. Half of the Thais believe that they
possess a special ability for language learning and only five percent do not think that they have it. In contrast, while believing in the existence of foreign language aptitude, 25 percent of the third-year teacher trainees in Hong Kong (Peacock, 2001), 39 percent of the Chinese Hong Kong students (Peacock, 1999), and 26 percent of the Taiwanese students do not believe that they have such a special ability for language learning.

Table 4.10

Percentages of agreement and disagreement with BALLI items in the category of beliefs about the difficulty of language learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-service</td>
<td>pre-service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Relative difficulty</td>
<td>50\textsuperscript{a}/17\textsuperscript{d}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Difficulty of English</td>
<td>71\textsuperscript{m}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Time: Less than 2 yrs.</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5 yrs.</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5 yrs.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not possible</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Self efficacy</td>
<td>83/0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The percentages presented were rounded to the nearest whole number. Neutral responses are not shown. \textsuperscript{a} Agreement responses, \textsuperscript{d} Disagreement responses, \textsuperscript{m} Medium difficulty

Beliefs about the difficulty of language learning.

In regard to language difficulty (see Table 4.10), the participants in the five studies reported beliefs that languages are varied in relative difficulty and the majority in
each study view English, their target language, a language of medium difficulty. Their self efficacy in being successful in English learning is similar. The majority reported believing that they will be able to speak English well. However, their estimates about time requirements for English learning are varied. The Thai pre-service teachers and Chinese Hong Kong students have the lowest estimation. They think that people can speak English well in less than two years if they learn English one hour a day. The in-service teachers in Hong Kong believe it would take a person three to five years to master English, while the pre-service teachers in Hong Kong as well as the Taiwanese students think it would be more than five years.

Table 4.11

Percentages of agreement and disagreement with BALLI items in the category of beliefs about the nature of language learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th></th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pre-service</td>
<td>pre-service</td>
<td>in-service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Grammar</td>
<td>62/10d</td>
<td>42/27</td>
<td>7/63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Vocabulary</td>
<td>76/7</td>
<td>46/25</td>
<td>18/60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Culture</td>
<td>79/2</td>
<td>52/8</td>
<td>42/29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Language immersion</td>
<td>74/14</td>
<td>97/1</td>
<td>71/11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The percentages presented were rounded to the nearest whole number. Neutral responses are not shown. a Agreement responses, d Disagreement responses
Beliefs about the nature of language learning.

The participants in all studies reported similar beliefs about the nature of language learning, except on the issue of grammar and vocabulary learning (see detailed results in Table 4.11). They all believe that translation is not an important element in learning a language. Learning about the cultures of English-speaking countries is valued and the majority reported believing that it is best to learn English in an English-speaking country. About the role of learning tasks, the pre-service teachers in Thailand and Hong Kong show their preference for grammar instruction and vocabulary learning, whereas the in-service teachers in Hong Kong reject this concept.

Beliefs about learning and communication strategies.

Participants in all studies reported beliefs that support the use of learning and communication strategies (see detailed results in Table 4.12). The majority believe in the importance of practice and guessing. The use of cassettes or tapes is viewed “useful” for practicing English among the groups of Thais and Taiwanese (the other groups do not have this item). All groups show a tendency to lack self-confidence in speaking English. A moderate number of participants in each study confess that they are timid speaking English with other people. Though the majority of Thai pre-service teachers and Taiwanese students enjoy practicing English with English speakers, the percentages are relatively moderate—52% Thais and 66% Taiwanese. The pre-service teachers in Hong Kong have the least positive opinion about this. Only twenty-four percent believe they enjoy practicing English this way and thirty-four percent do not enjoy it.

The majority of the participants in all studies show disagreement with the statement “We shouldn’t say anything in English until we can say it correctly.”
Nevertheless, their views about correct pronunciation and learners’ errors are different. The pre-service and in-service teachers in Hong Kong care less about pronunciation and are less concerned about immediate correction of students’ errors, compared with the other groups.

Table 4.12

Percentages of agreement and disagreement with BALLI items in the category of beliefs about learning and communication strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thailand pre-service</td>
<td>Hong Kong pre-service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Practice</td>
<td>100°/0°d</td>
<td>88/0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Talk with foreigners</td>
<td>52/10</td>
<td>24/34 n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Timid to speak</td>
<td>24/55</td>
<td>46/22 n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Guessing</td>
<td>86/5</td>
<td>90/0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Correct pronunciation</td>
<td>100/0</td>
<td>29/35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Tolerance to errors</td>
<td>45/31</td>
<td>14/52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The percentages presented were rounded to the nearest whole number. Neutral responses are not shown. ° Agreement responses, d Disagreement responses

Beliefs about motivations and expectations.

The majority in all studies reported high motivation for learning English (see detailed results in Table 4.13). They believe that English is important for people in their countries and they want to learn English for instrumental and integrative reasons such as good job opportunities, English-speaking friends, knowing about English speakers. The
Taiwanese students’ responses were inconsistent with the other groups in the topic of the importance of English learning to know about English speakers. The majority of them reported their disagreement with this concept.

Table 4.13

*Percentages of agreement and disagreement with BALLI items in the category of beliefs about motivations and expectations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thailand pre-service</td>
<td>Hong Kong pre-service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Importance of English</td>
<td>69(^a)/2(^d)</td>
<td>81/7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Job opportunity</td>
<td>95/0</td>
<td>90/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Making friends</td>
<td>95/0</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Knowing TL speakers</td>
<td>91/0</td>
<td>64/7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The percentages presented were rounded to the nearest whole number. Neutral responses are not shown. \(^a\) Agreement responses, \(^d\) Disagreement responses

**Conclusion.**

The results in Tables 4.9 – 4.13 show that there are some common beliefs across groups of EFL respondents and among learners from different cultural backgrounds as well as between learners and teachers. The shared beliefs are beliefs about language learning in general concerning foreign language aptitude, language relative difficulty, potentially successful learners, the role of cultural knowledge in language learning, the role of practice, and motivation in learning English. The common beliefs found among the groups of EFL learners and teachers can be explained using Horwitz’ (1999) hypothesis about the effect of “language learning circumstances” on learner beliefs. She
argued that language learners who study a second language in similar learning circumstances tend to have similar beliefs about language learning that may be different from those who study a second language in a different context (i.e. ESL students vs. foreign language students in the U.S.).

In this comparison, only learners of English are in focus. The five groups of participants—pre-service teachers from Thailand and Hong Kong, in-service teachers from Hong Kong, and students from Hong Kong and Taiwan—share a common background. They all learn English in a similar context, “English as a foreign language.” People in these countries learn English because of education or job related reasons and English is not necessary for survival or communication in their daily life. This similar learning context might have influenced the learners’ perceptions about general issues related to language learning, such as the ones shared by these groups.

Nonetheless, some reported beliefs are found to show variation across groups of language learners—between pre-service and in-service teachers—as in Peacock (2001). The two groups differ in specific beliefs concerning the role of vocabulary and grammar in English learning. The differences in these beliefs between the in-service and pre-service teachers may be attributed to the difference in their proficiency levels (Peacock, 1999) and in the amount of English learning experience they have (Mori, 1999). Peacock found differences in beliefs between low proficient English learners and high proficient ones. Similarly, Mori found that learners who have more experience in English learning have different beliefs from those with less learning experience.

Presumably, the in-service teachers would have more learning experience in English and would be more proficient in English than the pre-service teachers. Therefore,
it is possible that their beliefs about language learning may differ. The in-service teachers with more experiences in English learning and higher English proficiency may realize that learning English is not only a matter of learning vocabulary or grammar, while the less experienced, lower proficient pre-service teachers may still cling to a traditional way of teaching and learning that emphasizes vocabulary and grammar. In fact, Peacock (1999) found that these beliefs were reported more by low proficient English learners.

The effects of the amount of learning experience and English proficiency are also shown in beliefs of the EFL learners and those of the EFL teachers. The two groups of EFL students differ distinctively from the in-service teachers in beliefs about the role of vocabulary, correct pronunciation, and tolerance for errors. Once again, the teachers, compared to the students, can be assumed to be more proficient and more experienced in English, and therefore would possibly report having different beliefs from those of the students. These teachers may realize that learning English is not a matter of learning vocabulary, that correct pronunciation is not always necessary, and that making mistakes is a part of the learning process. In contrast, the less proficient and less experienced learners may still focus on form, want to know all vocabulary, and be afraid of making mistakes.

Furthermore, that the beliefs that show variations between the in-service teachers and the other groups discussed above seem to relate to instructional practices suggests that teaching experience and knowledge may be another factor, other than English proficiency and English learning experience, that accounts for the differences in beliefs among these groups, as noted in Kern (1995). Considering that the in-service teachers are likely to have different amount of teaching experience and knowledge from the other
groups, their beliefs concerning issues relating to instructional practices may be influenced by the theories they have learnt about how to teach English and the teaching experiences they have gained in classes.

The relationship between beliefs and teaching experience and knowledge suggested above is more evident in the data of the Thai pre-service teachers than in those of the pre-service teachers in Hong Kong. Among the beliefs relating to instructional practices that show variations across groups—beliefs about the role of grammar, vocabulary, correct pronunciation, and error correction (items 18, 19, 23, 29)—the Thai pre-service teachers’ beliefs do not show the same tendency with those of the in-service teachers in any of these items. Instead, they share similar beliefs with either one or two groups of the EFL students in all these items. For the pre-service teachers in Hong Kong, only their beliefs about grammar and vocabulary show the same tendency with those of the students. Their beliefs about correct pronunciation and error correction are similar to those of the in-service teachers.

This finding is very interesting since one might have expected that pre-service teachers who are preparing to be English teachers would have similar beliefs about language learning to those of in-service teachers. On the contrary, this comparison shows that the pre-service teachers, Thais in particular, tend to report different beliefs about language learning, especially on the issues relating to instructional practices such as the role of grammar, vocabulary, correct pronunciation, and error correction, to those of the in-service teachers who presumably have different English learning experience, English proficiency, and teaching experience and knowledge.
Beliefs and Language Learning

Researchers have observed that beliefs about language learning are formed gradually over time in both formal and informal learning contexts (Horwitz, 1987; Kern, 1995; Puchta, 1999; Richards and Lockhart, 1996). This suggests that pre-service teachers generally come to the teacher training program armed with preconceived ideas about the nature and the difficulty of language learning, about what works best for them in learning the language, about potentially successful language learners, and so on.

Horwitz (1985) argued that these ideas sometimes do not match with new ideas learned in the teacher education program and may be detrimental to the pre-service teachers’ development in the program and will consequently affect how they teach their future students. On the other hand, some pre-service teachers may come to the teacher education program with positive beliefs that facilitate their learning in the program.

As suggested in previous studies, some beliefs may be facilitative and some may be detrimental to language learning (Abraham and Vann, 1987; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Mori, 1999; Park, 1995; Peacock, 2001; Truitt; 1995; Yang, 1999). The following section will discuss possible effects of the Thai pre-service EFL teachers’ reported beliefs on their own learning as well as on that of their students.

Facilitative Beliefs

Beliefs such as beliefs about one’s own motivation and values of English learning, beliefs about one’s own ability, and beliefs about learning and communication strategies have been seen as facilitative beliefs in previous studies. In the present study, the findings reveal that the Thai pre-service teachers reported possessing such beliefs that may facilitate their own learning and that of their future students.
I want to learn English because it is important.

The Thai pre-service teachers show a strong tendency of agreement in their beliefs about motivations and expectations. All items in this category received over ninety percent response agreement, except the item concerning the importance of English for Thai people (69%). The results suggest that the Thai pre-service teachers have high motivation in learning English, which is a good sign for their success in language learning and the future of English teaching in Thailand.

Motivation has been discussed and well accepted in the second language field as a key variable in learners’ success. As Dörnyei (2001) remarked, “…in the vast majority of cases learners with sufficient motivation can achieve a working knowledge of an L2, regardless of their language aptitude or other cognitive characteristics. Without sufficient motivation, however, even the brightest learners are unlikely to persist long enough to attain any really useful language” (p. 5). Learners with high motivation are likely to do better in language learning than those with low motivation.

Furthermore, three BALLI items in this category were found to correlate with high grades in Chinese (Samimy & Lee, 1997). Samimy and Lee found that second language learners of Chinese who received high grades in Chinese tended to possess these beliefs: (1) I would like to have friends who speak the target language; (2) If I learn the target language well, I will have better job opportunities; and (3) I want to learn to speak the target language well. The Thai pre-service teachers in this study showed high support for all three of these statements, 95.2%, 95.2%, and 100% respectively. According to Dörnyei and Samimy and Lee, the results of the present study are
encouraging. The Thai pre-service teachers in this study, with their high motivation, have a tendency to do well in their own language learning.

Considering that teachers’ motivation may influence how their students view language learning, the pre-service teachers’ motivation will not only benefit the pre-service teachers themselves, but will also contribute to their future students’ success. Since the pre-service teachers have positive perceptions about the values of English learning, their enthusiasm in learning English may be shared with their students in class, and in turn enhance their students’ motivation. According to Dörnyei (1994), teachers can help enhance students’ motivation in second language learning by showing the students that they themselves see the importance of the second language learning as “a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and enriches [their] life” (p. 282). The Thai pre-service teachers, with their awareness of the value of English learning, are likely to ultimately help enhance their students’ success in language learning.

*English is not so difficult.*

Like other second language pre-service and in-service teachers in several studies (Horwitz, 1985; Kern, 1995; Peacock, 1999, 2001), the majority of the Thai pre-service teachers believe that languages have different relative difficulty levels and they perceive that English, their target language, is a language of medium difficulty. The responses to the relative difficulty of English are encouraging. No one views English as a “very difficult” language. Also, no one underestimates the difficulty of English learning.

Since the Thai pre-service teachers view English as a subject under their control, i.e., “of medium difficulty,” they may be encouraged to do well in learning the language. As found in Mori (1999), Horwitz (1989), and Truitt (1995), beliefs about the difficulty
of the target language can undermine learners’ success in language learning. However, it is not likely that the pre-service teachers in this study will be affected negatively by this belief. Their perception of the difficulty of English shows consistency with beliefs of other EFL learners (Peacock, 1999, 2001; Yang, 1999), suggesting that their beliefs are relatively realistic. Also, the Thai pre-service teachers tend to be confident in their language learning ability, as shown in the results of item 11 “I believe that I will learn to speak English well.” Their self efficacy in learning English and their realistic ideas about the difficulty of English may help the pre-service teachers develop realistic expectations for their own and their future students’ progress in language learning and prevent them from anxiety caused by difficult tasks.

*I have a potential to be a successful language learner.*

In regard to characteristics of potentially successful language learners, the Thai pre-service teachers are optimistic about themselves. They endorsed the statements that show that learners possessing similar characteristics to their own are successful language learners. This evidently implies that they believe that they are potentially successful language learners. Considering the agreement to: item 3 “Thai people are good…” , item 15 “It is difficult for Thai people…”, item 1 “It is easier for children than adults…”, and item 7 “Women are better than men…”, the Thai pre-service teachers tend to believe that: (1) the group that they identify with, Thai people, are not likely to have difficulty learning a second language and (2) their individual characteristics do not undermine their language learning ability.

About “group membership,” the responses to two items concerning the language learning potential of Thai people (items 3 and 15) reveal that the pre-service teachers do
not think that members of the group they belong to have a tendency to do poorly in
language learning. Horwitz (1988) suggested that “group membership” could affect
learners’ beliefs about their own ability and their expectations about their success in
language learning. In this study, the pre-service teachers have positive thinking about
their own group, therefore they are not likely to “feel that they personally lack some
capacity necessary to language learning” (p. 288).

Besides, these pre-service teachers identify themselves with ideal successful
language learners. The individual characteristic that they believe can affect language
learning is learners’ age, not gender. It seems that the pre-service teachers do not include
a nature-given characteristic like gender in their theoretical language learning model. On
the other hand, the best time to start learning a second language is an issue for them.
Similar to other second language learners in previous studies (Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988;
Kern, 1995; Peacock, 1999, 2001), the Thai pre-service teachers strongly endorsed that
children can learn a second language more easily than adult learners. Considering what
they believe about the effect of age in language learning, since most of them started
learning English early in their childhood (45.2% from kindergarten, 40.48% from
primary school), and since they believe in their ability to learn English well, these pre-
service teachers may perceive that they themselves conform to their model of successful
language learning. As a consequence, these pre-service teachers are likely to have a
positive expectation about their language ability and may study hard to meet their own
expectations. Yang (1999) has found that learners who have a positive assessment of their
own ability tend to engage themselves in practicing the use of English.
Lastly, their beliefs about successful language learners can also influence their expectations on their future students. By disregarding the effect of gender on language learning success, the pre-service teachers may not prejudge their students’ capability based on an external variable that the students do not have control over and pay attention to what the learners can actually do in their learning.

*I know what to do when learning English.*

The Thai pre-service teachers tend to understand basic concepts about the use of learning and communication strategies. All of them endorse the importance of practice. Consistently, most of them agree that practicing with cassettes or tapes, or listening to TV or radio programs in English is useful for English learners. According to these findings, it is likely that the Thai pre-service teachers will themselves engage in activities in which they can exercise the use of English when possible. Yang (1999) has found that beliefs about the value of practice correlated to motivation in using some learning strategies.

More importantly, two beliefs that the pre-service teachers reported possessing were found to have relationships with low anxiety and high grades. The majority of the pre-service teachers stressed that they were not timid speaking English and that they enjoyed speaking English with foreigners. Beliefs in self efficacy in speaking the target language have been found to have a negative relationship with anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Truitt, 1995). It was found that learners who were afraid to speak English had higher anxiety than those who were not. The second set of beliefs concerns the joy in speaking English with English speakers. Samimy and Lee (1997) found that the joy in speaking Chinese, the target language of the participants in their study, correlated with high grades in Chinese.
The findings in this study suggest that the majority of the Thai pre-service EFL teachers may not suffer anxiety when it is time to speak English because they are not afraid of speaking English with other people. Also, with a positive attitude towards practicing English with English speakers, these pre-service teachers may do well in their language learning, as the students learning Chinese in Samimy and Lee (1997). However, there are a significant number of pre-service teachers in this study that risk facing negative effects from being shy about speaking English. About one-fourth stated in the first survey that they felt timid speaking English with other people. This group risks dealing with anxiety in their practice teaching. Generally, pre-service teachers are encouraged to use English as the medium of instruction. If they cannot build confidence in using English, they will likely be anxious every time they are in front of the class, which will surely affect their teaching performance.

Nevertheless, changes were found in the survey after the practice teaching. Fewer people reported feeling timid when speaking English (reduced from 23.8% to 9.5%). The experience in using English in class during the practice teaching might have helped build more confidence in speaking English for some pre-service teachers.

*Detrimental Beliefs*

Within the BALLI framework, researchers have argued that several beliefs that can be detrimental to learners’ language learning, such as beliefs about foreign language aptitude, beliefs about the role of vocabulary and grammar, self efficacy in speaking English, and concerns about “correctness.” The following section discusses possible effects of this set of beliefs that were reported by the Thai pre-service EFL teachers in the present study.
*Foreign language aptitude exists.*

Concerning the existence of foreign language aptitude, the Thai pre-service EFL teachers in the present study believe that there is such a thing as foreign language aptitude. This belief is common among second and foreign language learners (Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988; Peacock, 1999, 2001; Kern, 1995; Yang, 1999). The perception of the existence of such ability has been discussed in previous studies (Horwitz, 1987; Mori, 1999; Puchta, 1999) as possibly causing negative effects on pre-service teachers’ language learning as well as on their future students’.

In the present study, with a strong endorsement (83%) of the existence of the special ability, half of the pre-service teachers did not state that they own this special ability. Five percent of them even emphasized their lack of the aptitude. According to Horwitz (1987), these pre-service teachers may question their potential in language learning and may not want to put effort into the learning since they may foresee themselves as poor language learners.

However, the pre-service teachers in this study do not think that aptitude is necessary for language learning. In spite of the perception that some people have a special ability for language learning, the pre-service teachers still have positive beliefs about people’s potential in language leaning. They reported believing that everyone could learn a foreign language. Horwitz (1988) has suggested that learners who believe in foreign language aptitude and yet are confident that everyone can succeed in language learning may perceive that “an average ability is adequate” (p. 287) for language learning. Therefore, the effect from the belief about the existence of foreign language aptitude discussed earlier may lessen in this group of pre-service teachers.
Furthermore, unlike the pre-service EFL teachers in Peacock (2001), half of the Thai pre-service teachers (50%) endorse that they have a special ability for foreign language learning and the other half do not stress that they have a special ability (45% “neutral”, 5% “disagree”). This finding supports what Horwitz (1985) discussed, “…students who have learned English as a second or foreign language often discounted their own language learning abilities” (p. 336). She elaborated that these students saw motivation, persistence, and hard work as reasons for their learning success rather than because of any special innate ability. If Horwitz’ hypothesis is true with the pre-service teachers in the present study, the Thai pre-service teachers’ language learning as well as their prospective students’ should be safe from the negative effects of the beliefs about foreign language aptitude noted earlier by Horwitz (1987) and Mori (1999).

*It doesn’t take much time to be fluent in English.*

The responses to the item concerning time commitment for learning English did not show a strong trend of the Thai pre-service teachers’ beliefs in this regard but a large number of participants (69.1%) believed that it would take about five years or less for people to be fluent in English by studying one hour a day. This estimation seems rather unrealistic, both for themselves as language learners and for other Thai students.

Considering that Thai students generally learn English for much more than five years in school, the “less than five year” time frame does not seem to match with reality. The majority of the pre-service teachers in this study had had at least eight years of English in school. About forty-five percent of them started learning English from kindergarten and forty-one percent started from Grade 5. In the national curriculum used while these participants were in schools, English was usually offered in public schools.
from Grade 5 forward, from which it can be inferred that Thai educators at the time believed that it took about eight years for Thai students to learn English. However, the eight years of English instruction does not seem to be sufficient any longer since the current national curriculum extends English class time to twelve years. Schools in Thailand are recommended to offer English classes earlier than in the past, starting from Grade 1 (Academic Affairs Department, 2002). Taking into account the actual practice of English instruction in Thailand and the amount of time the pre-service teachers had studied English, their time estimation does not seem to be practical for either Thai EFL learners or for themselves.

Unrealistic estimation of time commitment has been discussed in previous studies in that it can possibly cause negative effects on pre-service teachers’ and their prospective students’ learning. Kern (1995) noted that learners who perceive that language learning is “a quick process” can “experience some degree of frustration and discouragement during their foreign language study” (p. 75-76). Consistently, Horwitz (1987) made a remark that “student judgments about the difficulty of language learning are critical to the development for students’ expectations for and commitment to language learning” (p. 123). She explained that learners’ underestimation of the task difficulty can lead to frustration when they “do not make progress as quickly as they expect.”

Since the majority of the Thai pre-service teachers reported beliefs that learners should be fluent in English within five years of learning, the expectation about their future students’ success, as well as their own, will be based on such an assumption. If they themselves cannot make adequate progress, they can become frustrated and doubt their own ability as discussed by Horwitz and Kern. Similarly, if their students cannot
make as quick a progress in their learning, these future teachers may perceive that their learners are not “average learners” and may develop negative expectations about the students’ success in language learning.

However, the validity of the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about time commitment is questionable. These pre-service teachers were in the last year of their teacher education program and were getting ready to be teachers of English. They are certainly not novice learners who know nothing about English learning. According to Mori (1999), these advanced learners should have relatively realistic ideas about language learning processes. The pre-service teachers who had learned English for eight years or more should have a better idea about how much and how long it takes for a person to be fluent in English. Therefore, it is more likely that their reported beliefs about time required for English learning may not represent their actual beliefs.

Since the statement used to elicit this belief does not provide a great deal of context (see Appendix D), it is possible that the pre-service teachers might have responded to the statement based on different interpretation. Considering that the phrases “spent one hour learning English everyday” and “speak English well,” without a specific context, can be interpreted in various ways, it is possible that the responses to this item might have been swayed. For instance, the pre-service teachers who estimated that learners only needed a few years to be able to speak English well might have based their responses on the context of learning English one-on-one with a native speaker in an intensive course, rather than on the context of regular, big size English classes as in Thailand. Therefore, it is not clear whether the pre-service teachers would risk the
negative effects of the belief about time commitment as discussed in previous studies or not.

*Learning English is learning vocabulary and grammar.*

Learners’ beliefs about the importance of vocabulary and grammar in language learning has been an issue for discussion in previous studies (Horwitz, 1985, 1987; Peacock, 1999, 2001). Researchers are concerned that learners who perceive that grammar and vocabulary learning are important tasks in language learning may not engage in other kinds of language activities and tend to attain low success in language learning.

Horwitz (1987) commented that students who believe that language learning is a matter of learning vocabulary and grammar will likely “invest the majority of their time memorizing vocabulary lists and grammar rules at the expense of other language learning practices” (p. 124). In addition, beliefs about vocabulary and grammar were found to have a negative relationship with achievement in language learning. Peacock (2001) found that learners who reported beliefs that English learning was mostly a matter of learning grammar and vocabulary tended to do poorly in English learning. More importantly, pre-service teachers’ beliefs about what is the best way to learn English is critical to their future instruction design. Horwitz (1985) has suggested that prospective teachers who believe that grammar and vocabulary are the most important tasks in language learning may appreciate “standard language teaching procedures” and shut themselves off from new teaching methods and ideas offered in a teacher education program.
In the present study, the majority of the pre-service teachers endorse the concept that vocabulary learning (76.2%) and grammar instruction (61.9%) were important in English learning and more than twenty percent of the participants “strongly agreed” with each concept. However, the data do not yield specific information whether the respondents think that grammar and vocabulary are the most important tasks in English learning. Rather, the data only reveal that these pre-service teachers see the value of grammar instruction and vocabulary learning. The statements used to elicit these two beliefs do not ask the respondents to rank or prioritize the importance of these language learning tasks (see Appendix D). Consequently, it is not possible to conclude whether the Thai pre-service teachers who reported beliefs that grammar and vocabulary was important would spend their time in English classes learning vocabulary, studying grammar rules, and working on grammar exercises at the expense of other language learning activities as discussed in Horwitz.

Taking into consideration the EFL context of English learning and teaching in Thailand, the learning of grammar and vocabulary should not be dismissed completely from English classes since the classroom is usually the main language resource for English learners. The pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the importance of grammar and vocabulary revealed in this study may reflect such situation.

Nevertheless, since communicative approaches are the current trend of EFL instruction in Thailand, the pre-service teachers’ conceptions about the nature of language learning in this regard may be important for the implementation of communicative activities. If the pre-service teachers who reported that grammar instruction and vocabulary learning were important also believe in the importance of
communication practice activities, the beliefs about grammar and vocabulary would not be detrimental. If they believe otherwise, communicative approaches may not be effectively adopted in Thailand.

*I want to be “correct”.*

Concern about “correctness” is another possibly detrimental belief discussed in previous studies that the Thai pre-service teachers also reported. On one hand, the pre-service teachers tend to support basic concepts of communicative approaches. For example, they disagreed that “We shouldn’t say anything in English until we can say it correctly.” They supported the use of compensation strategies such as guessing. They knew the importance of practice and they tended to enjoy using English. They see the value of learning about the cultures of English-speaking countries. On the other hand, they show considerable concern about “correct pronunciation” and tend to favor “immediate correction”.

Beliefs about “correct pronunciation” were found to correlate with foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986). Horwitz and her colleagues found that anxious students were afraid to make mistakes. Therefore, it is likely that the pre-service teachers in this study may encounter anxiety when speaking English. In addition, it will not be surprising if their instructional practices will emphasize the practice of pronunciation and immediate correction to pronunciation errors. Therefore, their future students may suffer such anxiety as well. Nevertheless, beliefs about correct pronunciation and learners’ errors were found to change after the pre-service teachers had their practice teaching. Fewer pre-service teachers reported concern about correct pronunciation and they seemed to be more tolerant to learners’ errors.


Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings reveal that the Thai pre-service teachers possess some beliefs that may facilitate their own learning and positively influence their teaching approaches and classroom practices. These pre-service teachers are likely to do well in learning English since: (1) they see the importance of English learning and they have high motivation to learn English; (2) they have realistic idea about the difficulty of English learning and they believe that mastering English is not impossible for them; (3) they identify themselves with a group of potentially successful language learners; and (4) they know how important practice is in learning English and they enjoy practice using English. The positive thinking about their own learning ability and the realistic ideas about language learning in general are likely to enhance the pre-service teachers’ motivation in learning and promote their engagement in language learning activities. Moreover, the realistic beliefs about the difficulty and the nature of language learning will lead to positive effects on how the pre-service teachers make decision in their instructional approaches and activities.

In regard to the potentially detrimental beliefs, it was found that the Thai pre-service EFL teachers in the present study, after all, may not risk negative effects of these beliefs as much as concerned in previous studies. Only two beliefs—beliefs about correct pronunciation and immediate correction—are of concerns that may have negative effects on the pre-service teachers’ and their future students’ use of English, speaking in particular. First of all, although the pre-service teachers reported beliefs in the existence of foreign language aptitude, they believed that everyone could learn to speak a foreign language. Secondly, their estimation of time required for English learning, though it
appeared to be unrealistic which may lead to negative influences, does not seem to reflect
the pre-service teachers’ actual beliefs. Thirdly, their beliefs about the importance of
grammar and vocabulary seem to match with the current context of English learning and
teaching in Thailand in that these two language learning tasks are still necessary.
However, their concerns about correct pronunciation and immediate correction may
undermine their practice of English for communication as well as that of their future
students since the belief about correct pronunciation may raise foreign language anxiety
when speaking.

The next section presents the findings and discussion about the pre-service
teachers’ beliefs after their practice teaching. The effect of teaching experiences during
practice teaching on their beliefs, especially the ones discussed as being possibly
debilitative, is discussed.

*Practice Teaching and Pre-service Teachers’ Beliefs*

As presented in a previous section, the responses of the BALLI items in the
survey after the practice teaching did not show many significant changes. The stability of
beliefs found in the present study is consistent with several studies in that beliefs about
language learning are relatively stable (Kern, 1995; Peacock, 2001). They do not change
much, especially in experienced language learners such as these pre-service teachers and
over as a short period of time as in practice teaching.

In the present study, only three belief items obtained significantly different
responses in the post practice teaching survey, yet the significance of the change is
unquestionable. Concerning the detrimental beliefs discussed in other studies, the
changes in beliefs found in the post practice teaching survey are quite encouraging. Two
beliefs that may be detrimental to the pre-service teachers’ and their prospective students’ learning were positively refined during the practice teaching. However, one belief about motivation received less agreement.

The BALLI items that show significant differences in responses in the second survey include:

Item 6. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.

Item 23. It is important to speak English with a correct pronunciation.

Item 38. English is important for higher education level, especially graduate programs.

The trend of the responses changed in both directions: moving towards agreement (item 6) and moving away (item 23 and 38).

The first item that obtained different responses in the second survey is a subset belief of beliefs about foreign language aptitude. The results from the survey before practice teaching show that a substantial number of pre-service teachers (50%) believe that they possess the so-called “foreign language aptitude.” Their beliefs seem to be confirmed over the course of the practice teaching and more people reported their agreement with this concept. The percentage of agreement increased to seventy-one percent in the post practice teaching survey.

Considering that the pre-service teachers had a lot of opportunities to observe people’s ability in learning English during the practice teaching, they may have observed more evidence of the existence of foreign language aptitude. For instance, they could have experienced that some students make very little effort in learning but attain high grades, whereas others can make little progress regardless of their hard work. Apart from
that, there may be instances that inform the pre-service teachers that they themselves possess such special abilities. Since the pre-service teachers had to use English to a considerable extent, possibly more than ever before, during the practice teaching; they must have had a pleasant experience exercising their English ability while practice teaching.

The increasing approval of the pre-service teachers’ ownership of a special ability for language learning is encouraging. Since the pre-service teachers endorsed the concept of foreign language aptitude, their perception about their own ability is critical. If they felt that they personally lacked the ability for language learning, they might be discouraged and might not want to make much effort in learning (Horwitz, 1987). This is not likely to be the problem for these pre-service teachers. Especially after the practice teaching, approximately seventy percent reported believing that they themselves possessed the special ability for language learning and only about two percent reported not having it.

The second BALLI item that changed in the second survey addresses the importance of correct pronunciation. The results from the second survey showed less support for this concept. Taking into account the relationship between beliefs and experiences (Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Lockhart, 1996), we can assume that the pre-service teachers’ experiences during the practice teaching may have disproved this belief. Possibly, the common practices of other teachers, the teacher supervisors’ comments, or the emphasis in the school exams may support the notion that correct pronunciation is not that important. In addition, with their own use of English as a means for communication
in their classes, the pre-service teachers might have realized that pronunciation is not all that matters in using English for communication.

As discussed earlier, beliefs about correct pronunciation may inhibit the pre-service teachers and their prospective students from practicing using English. Therefore, the change in this belief is beneficial. The pre-service teachers may be less concerned about form when speaking English, which may promote their use of English speaking. Also, they may not monitor their students’ speech as much as before the practice teaching, thus it is less likely that they will raise their students’ anxiety in speaking.

The last significant change found in the pre-service teachers’ beliefs was not anticipated. The change was found in beliefs about motivation. After the practice teaching, fewer pre-service teachers endorsed the concept that English is important for higher education. In the first survey, the pre-service teachers unanimously endorsed that English was an important tool for higher education. They all agreed with the statement “English is important for higher education level, especially graduate programs.” After the practice teaching, not only did the frequency of agreement decline, but there was also a shift in agreement. Almost fifteen percent of the pre-service teachers did not support this concept, 4.8% “disagree” and 9.5% “neutral”.

A possible explanation for the decline in support in beliefs about motivation is that the pre-service teachers might have observed that English was not needed as the medium of instruction in classrooms in Thailand. Generally, Thai pre-service EFL teachers are encouraged by their method instructors or teacher supervisors to use English as the medium of instruction in their classrooms. However, in practice, the pre-service teachers, as well as other in-service teachers, have their own choice. From my
observations in English classes for over five years, Thai seems to be more practical for many Thai speaking teachers since Thai is the language that both the teachers and students share. For pre-service teachers who are under supervision during their practice teaching, they may have more attempt to use as much as English as possible in their classes. In contrast, in-service teachers have no obligations to use English as the medium of instruction, at least not indicated in any curricular used in Thailand.

If my observation about the low use of English in classrooms is applicable in the classes of the pre-service teachers in this study, their view of English importance may have changed accordingly. Their low use of English in classes may have disconnected the association between English and other levels of classrooms, English for graduate programs in particular.

In conclusion, some significant changes in beliefs about language learning were observed in the results of the post practice teaching survey. Most changes are quite encouraging. The belief that may be detrimental to their speaking practice changed after the practice teaching. The findings are consistent with previous studies in that beliefs about language learning can change, but those of advanced language learners such as the pre-service teachers in the present study are not easily reformed. These pre-service teachers had more than eight years of English instruction and may have developed a fully set of beliefs about language learning throughout those years. The new ideas learned from their teaching experience over the course of the three-month practice teaching may not be enough to override the influence of the experiences as language learners that the pre-service teachers have.
The next chapter presents the results and the discussion of the findings from the qualitative study phase.
CHAPTER 5
BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING APPROACHES

As mentioned earlier, the present study obtained data from three complementary sources: surveys, interviews, and observations. Chapter 4 presents the quantitative findings about Thai pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning obtained from the survey phase. In this chapter, the findings from the qualitative study phase are presented to discuss four pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning and their teaching approaches.

The main purpose of the qualitative study phase was to explore how pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning influenced their teaching approaches. Specifically, the observation data were used to determine the teaching approaches the four pre-service teachers employed in their classrooms. For example, did they focus on form when they conducted class activities? Did they focus on meaning? Then, the elicited beliefs from the surveys (obtained in the survey phase) and interviews were used to discuss whether the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches were influenced by their beliefs.

My assumption was that beliefs affect the way people think, react, and go about doing things in their life. According to Puchta (1980), beliefs are people’s “guiding principles” that “serve as explanations for what has happened and they give us a basis for
future behavior” (p. 66). More specifically, language learners’ beliefs about language learning, in particular, have been found to influence learners’ approaches in language learning—their use of language learning strategies specifically (Wenden, 1987; Abraham and Vann, 1987; Huang, 1997; Yang, 1999). Therefore, I hypothesized that pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches were influenced by their beliefs about language learning.

However, there are a number of significant factors that can influence pre-service teachers’ beliefs and behaviors during their practice teaching such as the students, the school curriculum, the textbook(s) used, common classroom practices adopted among the in-service teachers at the school in which the pre-service teachers had their practice teaching, their supervisors’ beliefs and instructional practices, and their own experiences as language learners. The pre-service teachers’ classroom practices may also be influenced by these factors. As a result, some beliefs may not affect the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches as much as others.

The following sections in this chapter present the findings about the four pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning reported in the surveys (see detailed results in Appendices F - J) and interviews and their teaching approaches as revealed in the observation data. The findings about each pre-service teacher are presented together under six interrelated sections: (1) motivation for English learning (2) beliefs about foreign language learning ability (3) beliefs about the difficulty of English learning (4) beliefs about one’s own English ability (5) Beliefs about the nature of language learning and (6) beliefs about practices. Before this, some background information about the practice teaching program in which the four pre-service teachers were enrolled and about the four pre-service teachers is presented. Lastly, a summary of beliefs about language
learning that appeared to influence the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches is presented.

In some sections, excerpts from the interviews and observations are presented to illustrate the discussion points (see symbols used in the transcriptions in Appendix K). The data were transcribed for the purpose of content analysis, rather than linguistic analysis; therefore, linguistic differences in the data such as intonation, pitch, pauses, and so on were not recorded in the transcriptions. Since the raw data contained some Thai sentences and words, I provided English translations of the Thai sentence(s) or word(s) in italics after each occurrence in the excerpts.

Before I begin, it should be noted here that my intention in conducting this qualitative study phase was, like other qualitative studies, not to try to find a conclusion or generalization about beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches of the whole population of the pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand. The survey data along with the emerging themes in the interviews and observation data were analyzed in order to explain the relationship between beliefs about language learning and the teaching approaches of the four pre-service teachers participating in this study only. The insights gained from this study may not be applicable to other pre-service EFL teachers’ situations, yet they can increase EFL teacher educators’ understanding about how preconceived ideas about language learning may influence the way pre-service EFL teachers apply the ideas learned from their teacher education programs in the classrooms during their practice teaching.
The Practice Teaching Program

The practice teaching program referred to in this study is a 6-credit hour course that all undergraduate students from the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, are required to take before graduation. Before enrolling in the practice teaching program, the students have to pass all the core courses in their areas of concentration. Therefore, the students who take this course are generally fourth-year students in the program.

The practice teaching program is approximately eighteen weeks long. It starts at the same time as public schools in Thailand start their first semester (around the middle of May) and ends right before the schools end (the end of September). Generally, the pre-service teachers go to the school one or two weeks before the school starts in order to familiarize themselves with the school facilities and the in-service teachers. They will also learn about the textbook(s) and prepare their classes with the school supervisors. They normally finish their practice teaching term before the end of the school semester and attend a post-practice teaching seminar at the Faculty of Education.

Another requirement that counts towards the pre-service teachers’ grade for the practice teaching program is seminar attendance. There are two big seminars and several bi-monthly seminars that all pre-service teachers are required to attend over the course of the practice teaching program. An orientation program is held during summer before schools start to inform the pre-service teachers about the requirements of the practice teaching program as well as to provide the opportunity for the pre-service teachers and the university supervisors to meet for the first time. The other big seminar is held towards the end of the semester after the pre-service teachers finish their practice teaching. This post-practice teaching seminar is an opportunity for the pre-service teachers to share their
experiences gained from the practice teaching with their peers. During the practice teaching program, the pre-service teachers have to attend bi-monthly seminars held every other Friday afternoon. These regular seminars provide the pre-service teachers opportunities to share up-to-date progress and/or challenges in the practice teaching with the others as well as with the director of the practice teaching program. In addition, the university supervisors usually take this chance to meet with their supervisees outside the school environment.

The schools that cooperate with the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, in arranging the practice teaching opportunity for the students are mostly public schools in Bangkok and its surrounding area. The students have an opportunity to request a school that they prefer; however, their request is not guaranteed. Since schools have to assign a supervisor to work with each pre-service teacher throughout the period of the practice teaching, each school has a different capacity to provide a teaching position for the pre-service teachers.

The pre-service teachers are required to teach four class periods a week in each of their major areas. For the English majors, students are usually assigned to teach English foundation courses which are two-credit hour courses that meet four times a week. Therefore, single major students of English have to teach two English courses; and double major students (English and another subject area) teach only one English course.

*Pre-service Teachers’ Supervision*

Each pre-service teacher has at least two supervisors: at least one from the school and at least one from the university. School supervisors are the in-service teachers whose classes the pre-service teachers teach during their practice teaching, so the number of the
school supervisors for each pre-service teacher varies depending on how many courses the pre-service teachers teach at the school. University supervisors are university professors in the program of the students’ major area(s). Single major students, then, have only one university supervisor, whereas double major students have two supervisors from the university.

The school supervisors are encouraged to read the pre-service teachers’ lesson plans and give suggestions before the pre-service teachers conduct a lesson. They also have to observe the pre-service teachers’ classes regularly. Some supervisors sit in the back of the class every time the pre-service teachers teach, but others do not. Differently, the university supervisors observe the pre-service teachers only three or four times over the period of the practice teaching program. However, the students also meet with their university supervisors when they attend the bi-monthly seminars at the university as mentioned earlier. The supervisors can use these meetings to check the pre-service teachers’ lesson plans, give advice, and schedule their next observation.

During the practice teaching, the students are observed and evaluated by the two supervisors. The supervisors observe the pre-service teachers’ classes and fill out an evaluation form designed by the university three or four times throughout the program in order to observe the teaching progress and development of the pre-service teachers. For these regular observations, the school and university supervisors can schedule the observations independently. Nevertheless, they have to observe and evaluate the teaching performance of the pre-service teachers together in the final observation. The final grades are assigned using the grades from both supervisors.
The Practice Teaching School

The four pre-service teachers had their practice teaching at the same school, a public co-ed secondary school in Bangkok. The school is located in the center of Bangkok and close to one of the shopping and entertainment areas where there are a lot of foreigners. It offers classes for students from Grades 7 to 12. Most classes have over fifty students in the class. The school has two admission procedures. Seventy percent of the new students are admitted because they live in the neighboring area and the rest enter the school by taking the school entrance exam. This other thirty percent can come from anywhere in Thailand.

For junior high school students, the school offered a series of English foundation courses, English 011-016. The students from Grade 7 took one course in each semester, starting from the lower number course and progressing through to the higher number one. Each course was a two-credit hour course that met four class periods a week. The course emphasized all four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

The textbooks that the school used for these courses were a series of three-level Longman English textbooks “Discoveries” (Abbs & Freebairn, n.d.). Each book was used for two courses; for example Discoveries 1 was used for English 011 and 012. The chapters in Discoveries are divided by communicative functions. For example, the first two chapters of Discoveries 1 are listed in the table of contents as follows:

Lesson 1: Hello
- Say hello
- Ask and answer your name
- Count to ten
Lesson 2: Good morning

- Greet people formally
- Introduce yourself
- Say goodbye

The Discoveries textbooks contain a combination of listening, speaking, reading and writing activities. There is a cassette tape that accompanies each level of this series for the listening activities suggested. In each chapter, no list of vocabulary or grammar lessons is provided. Teachers have to extract a vocabulary list and grammar points for each chapter themselves or consult the teachers’ manual. However, grammar lessons from each chapter are summarized and reviewed every fifth chapter.

In the semester that the present study was conducted, the school hired native English speakers to co-teach the English classes with the Thai teachers. For each class, the native English speakers taught one class period and the Thai teachers taught the other three. Therefore, the four-pre-service teachers actually taught three periods a week and observed the one class that the native English speaker taught their students.

The Four Novices

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the participants in the qualitative study phase consisted of four senior students from the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University in Thailand. Their degree is entitled Bachelor of Education in Secondary Education. All four participants were English major students who were enrolling in the practice teaching program in the first semester of the 2002 academic year (B.E. 2545). Pam and Preeya had a single major, English. Sar and Sinee had double majors, English and Educational Psychology.
Practice Teaching

Pam and Preeya taught students in Grades 8 and 9. Sar and Sinee taught seventh graders. The students were not divided into sections based on their English ability levels. They were with the same group of students in all subjects. However, three classes in each level were ability groups that were assembled every academic year based on the students’ grades from all the subjects in the previous year. Preeya was the only one in the group who taught one of these ability groups. The others taught mixed ability groups.

The four pre-service teachers had a different number of English supervisors. Sar and Sinee each had two supervisors for their English classes: one from the school and one from the university. They had different school supervisors but the same supervisor from the university. Pam and Preeya also worked with the same university supervisor but each of them had two school supervisors because they taught two English classes. All supervisors were women varying in ages from early forties to early fifties, except Pam and Preeya’s university supervisor who was in her late twenties.

Prior Teaching Experience

The teaching experiences prior to the practice teaching of the four pre-service teachers were different. Pam and Sar had some teaching experience as individual tutors, whereas Preeya and Sinee had never taught before. The individual tutoring that Pam and Sar had done before is a common part-time job for undergraduate students in Thailand. Many students, especially junior high and high school students, with support or push from the parents, take tutoring classes to prepare for some kind of exams—school exams or an entrance exam to a new school or a university. These students would spend most of their time, after school or on weekends, taking tutoring classes as if they were attending
another regular school. The students have options to attend a class in a tutoring center or study with an individual tutor. The high demand for tutoring creates job opportunities for the undergraduate students who specialize in the core subjects such as mathematics, sciences, and English. What Pam and Sar had taught before the practice teaching was one of these intensive sessions specially tailored for a small group of students or for a single student.

Teaching Attitudes

The four pre-service teachers had different attitudes toward teaching. All of them seemed to enjoy teaching during their practice teaching, which was a requirement for their graduation, but their dreams to be a teacher were another story. Since there is a high demand for people with good English skills in the job market in Thailand, English-majored students like these four pre-service teachers generally have a wide variety of job opportunities, in addition to teaching. Furthermore, the non-teaching careers that these students are eligible to apply to are normally higher salary jobs, compared to teaching. As a result, it is quite common that English majors may not want to be a teacher. The four pre-service teachers’ attitudes towards teaching were evident of this argument.

The two pre-service teachers who did not have prior teaching experience seemed to adjust their teaching attitude during the practice teaching, whereas the other two more experienced pre-service teachers had a certain idea whether they wanted to be a teacher or not. After experiencing teaching routines, none of the pre-service teachers reported having a definite plan to be a teacher in the near future.

To begin with, Preeya was the only one who mentioned wanting to be a teacher. In the first interview, she said teaching had been her dream since she was young. She
thought “Teaching kids is fun” (view1, 432). Her love for teaching did not change much after having some teaching experience. She still said she wanted to be a teacher in the second interview. On the other hand, she learned that teaching was not as fun as what she thought, so she wanted to do something more challenging before being stuck in this career.

(1)

Preeya: …คือเป็นเหมือนกัน หนูก็อยากเป็นครูเหมือนกันนะครับ แต่ว่า

ความรู้สึกของหนูคนนี้คืออยากจะแบบไปทำอะไรก่อน อย่างอื่นก่อน ที่จะมาเป็นครู เพราะว่า

อย่างเช่น เรียนต่อ หรือไปทำงานอะไรที่มันแบบว่า เปลี่ยน ๆ ก่อนอะไรอย่างนี้ก่อน

เพราะหนูรู้สึกว่าครูที่สอน สอน สอนไป เลย แล้วมันนี่ ก็อยู่แล้วนี่ อยู่แล้วนี่ เรียง ๆ อย่างค่ะ

ก็จะเหมือนแบบ ซ้ำซ้ำๆ ซ้ำ ๆ ไปเรื่อย ๆ อะไรอย่างนี้ ถึงจะสนุก คิดกิจกรรมแต่ละวัน

หนูรู้สึกว่าแบบนี้ เอก อยากรู้หายหนุ่มแบบ ไปทำสิ่งที่มัน...ทั่วทายแล้วก็สนุกกันนี่ก่อนค่ะ

แล้วก็โดยทั่วไปมาเป็นอะไรอย่างนี้ก่อน อยากเป็นอย่างนั้นมากกว่า

→ ...It’s like, I want to be a teacher but I want to do something else first. Like further my study, or work in other areas that are interesting. Because I think teaching is a repetitive job. You teach the same book again and again every year. It’s like doing the same thing again and again. It may be fun designing class activities but I want to do something...more challenging and more fun before becoming a teacher. I want to do that.

(view2, 760-770)
In contrast, Sinee confessed from the beginning that teaching was not for her. She said that she chose to major in English because she wanted to have options in choosing careers other than teaching.

(2)

Sinee: ... หน้าที่ในคณะเรานั้นไม่มี ไม่มีวิชาอะไรที่มันจะกว้างอะค่ะ ออกไปหากินได้มากมาย

แล้วหน้าไม่ออกเป็นครูไหมคะ ถ้าเป็นออก สังคมอะไรอย่างนั้นนะ มันก็

มันเที่ยงกับว่าจะจะจะจังมากกินไป คือต้องเป็นครูอยู่แล้วอะค่ะ แต่บอกมาอีกถึงแม้ก็

เอ้าไปทำอะไรได้ [ฮึกฮアウ]

...I think the other majors cannot be applied to a wide range of jobs. And I don’t want to be a teacher. If I majored in Social Studies or something like that, it would be too specific. I would have to be a teacher. But majoring in English, I can use English to do a lot of things. (view1, 6-9)

Interestingly, the second interview reveals that her idea about a teaching career changed quite a bit. This time she accepted that teaching was one of her choices. In fact, she even mentioned that she wanted to be a teacher.

(3)

Sinee: หน้าว่า ถ้าเข้าพวกครูดีนะคะ หน้าก็ดีเหมือนกัน มันเป็นทางเลือกหนึ่งนะค่ะ ถ้าออกเป็นครู แต่

ว่า อย่างที่นุ่นบอก หน้าไม่ชอบที่จะสอนเด็ก หน้าคิดว่า หน้าเป็นอาจารย์หน้าจะ น่าจะดีกว่า...

I think teaching is good too. I consider it as one of my options. I want to be a teacher but like I said earlier, I don’t like teaching young students. I will be better off being a university instructor... (view2, 472-477)
The two pre-service teachers who had taught as tutors before the practice teaching, Pam and Sar, were more definite about their career goals than the other two pre-service teachers. They reported not dreaming of being teachers. Sar, though she said she loved teaching very much, did not think she wanted to be a teacher. She thought she was not good enough.

(4)

Sar: อยากเป็นครูปีปลาย ๆ ชอบสอนแต่ผมให้นะครูหนูนังไม่เป็น (@@) นะที่อาจารย์ เพราะว่าหนูมีความรู้สึกว่า หนูสอนไม่เต็มที่ เป็นคนที่คือแบบว่า

รู้สึกว่าตัวเองจะสอนไม่เต็มที่…เป็นครูครู รู้สึกจะรับผิดชอบเยอะมาก…หนูคิดแบบว่า

เป็นครูไม่ได้มากเลยนะจะเป็นได้ (@@) หนูจะเป็นไม่ได้นะ

→ Do I want to be a teacher? I enjoy teaching but I don’t want to be a teacher (@@). Because I think I am not good at teaching. I feel like I can’t do well in teaching…Teachers have a lot of responsibilities… I think teachers are brilliant. I don’t think I can be like them. (view2, 563-584)

Similar to Sar, Pam did not think she wanted to be a teacher. She thought teaching was hard work for little money, especially teaching in a public school. However, she said she did not mind being a tutor.

(5)

Pam: ไม่ค่อยถูกต้องสอนหนังสือหนูจะมองไปแบบเรื่องได้นะครับจะออกอย่างนี้ รายได้จะอะไรอย่างนี้

ถือแบบมันถึงหน่อยนะ หนูจะเป็นแบบ ดีจะดีอะไรอย่างนี้
I don’t want (to teach). When I think about teaching, I think about salary too. Teaching is a hard work. I may, I may be a tutor. Being a tutor is okay. But to be a teacher and teach eight periods a day like these teachers, I don’t want to do that.

In brief, the four pre-service teachers started their practice teaching with different teaching experiences. Two of them taught as tutors before but the other two had never been in a class as a teacher. Their attitudes toward teaching seem to be similar in that none of them was certain that they wanted to pursue a teaching career. Stereotypical characteristics of a teaching career such as non-challenging, low salary, hard working, and high responsibility and the job opportunities for English majors were reported to be the factors that undermine the four pre-service teachers’ desire to be a teacher.

Learning Experiences as EFL Learners

Researchers (Horwitz, 1985, 1987; Kern, 1995; Puchta, 1999) have observed that language learners develop their beliefs about language learning from the experiences they gained as language learners. Therefore, it was assumed that what pre-service teachers observed and experienced in their English classes could be crucial to their perceptions about language learning and teaching. In this section, I will present the findings about the four pre-service teachers’ learning experiences obtained from the interviews and discuss how these experiences might have affected the way they conducted their own lessons during the observations.

My English Was Not So Good
In general, the four pre-service teachers were not successful language learners from the beginning. They reported doing poorly at first then discovered a way to become good at it. Pam, Preeya, and Sinee started learning English when they were in kindergarten, while Sar did not start her English classes until she was in 5th grade. Their English classes continued forward until they graduated from high school and entered the university in the English major.

All of them reported having difficulty in learning English in their early years of English learning. Sar was the only one who said that she enjoyed learning English from the beginning but had never been very good at it. She mentioned several times how difficult English was for her and how she persisted to deal with it. The other three confessed that English was not their all-time favorite subject. Pam hated it when she was young because she was “not so good” at it. Preeya and Sinee did not pay much attention to their English classes and did not do well. Preeya even reported that she failed some of her classes.

The four pre-service teachers became better at English and started enjoying it at different levels. Pam reported getting better at it after having some tutoring sessions when she prepared for a junior high school entrance exam. As her grades went up, so did her love for English. Preeya changed her fate in English and became better in her English classes when she was in high school preparing for the university entrance exam. Her strategy in overcoming the difficulty of English learning was different from Pam’s. She emphasized practicing language skills, especially listening and speaking, by watching English movies and conversing with English speakers. She said the improvement in her listening and speaking made her feel good about learning English and she became good at
it. Sar and Sinee reported doing poorly in English until they were in the English major. Sar said that it was her belief that taking a lot of classes in English would make her become better at it. Her hypothesis seemed to work.

**My English Classes**

In general, the English classes that the four pre-service teachers recalled having been in were large-size classes that focused on form more than meaning. The main class activities were grammar instruction, note taking, and structure drills. The following three excerpts show how Pam, Sar, and Sinee described their typical English classes. Preeya had slightly different experiences than the other three pre-service teachers. The fourth excerpt shows that her classes had a wider range of activities compared to those of the three pre-service teachers. Some of the activities she did seemed to be more communicatively based than focused on meaning.

Pam described her classes as lecture-type classes in which the teacher gave a lecture and the students take notes. Nothing much went on. Students got a little speaking practice by repeating after what the teacher modeled.

(6)

Pam: กิจกรรมไม่ค่อยได้ทำ ไม่ค่อยมีกิจกรรม ส่วนใหญ่จะเป็นแบบ ตอน ซึ่งกระดาษ sheet นี้ก็มีบาง

แล้ว Sheet ก็ไปได้น่าสนใจ ก็คือแบบเป็น ข้อความ รูปภาพอะไรอย่างนี้ ถ้าไม่ต้องมี อะไรกำ…กำ

lecture เวยะแบบ บอกด้วยอย่างนี้มี…และ แล้วก็ชีวิตยิ่ง เหล่าก็แบบนี้ตั้งให้ติด แล้วก็ให้

บั้งคับให้อ่าน เพื่อสอน ก็ สอนตรงตามนั้นอย่างนี้ ที่เป็น grammar จะเรียนอย่างเท่า…แนวทาง lecture
There were not many activities in class. Not many. It was most of the time lecturing. The teacher wrote on the blackboard. There were some worksheets but not so interesting. They were only texts, no pictures...A lot of lectures. Sometimes the teacher even told us to write it down word for word...(the teacher) explained, told us to take notes, told us to read. And the exams would test that, tested grammar. Students took notes from the lecture. And there might be some random calls. For example, we might be randomly called to compose sentences. For dialogue practices, the teacher would ask us to repeat after her and randomly called one or two students to practice.

Sar’s classes were planned around the materials in the textbook. Mostly, the students read and did activities in the textbook. Also, Sar described a similar scene of dialogue practice to Pam’s. The teacher modeled the reading and the students repeated after her.

(7)

Sar: … เข้าไปก็ ครูก็อ่านหนังสืออย่าง หนูรีตน English for Changing World (@@@) อย่างนี้ค่ะ เข้าไปก็อ่านหนังสืออย่าง เนื้อหา ก็จะ ไม่มีอะไรค่ะ ถึงที่แบบศึกษาต้น อ่านตามหนังสือ บางครั้งก็จะมี listening ก็คือ จะมีแบบ dialogue อย่างนี้ค่ะ ในนั้น ก็จะมีแบบมาให้ทำ ก็อย่างนี้ค่ะ จะ ไม่มีเร็มอีน อะไรอย่างนี้เลยอย่างค่ะ…ก็จริงเหมือนจะค่ะ ก็ มันจะมีแบบฝึกหัดใหม่ๆนะ ครูก็
Once the teacher came in, she would open the book. I use English for Changing World (@@). Open the book and read. Nothing much. Then, the students did exercises, read the book. Sometimes there were listening activities using the dialogues in the book. The teacher would play the tape in class and we listened to it. There was nothing additional... Class activities? There were exercises, and the question-answer activity. The teacher asked a question and the students answered. They have to stand up and answer the questions one by one. For dialogues, the teacher would read. Listen to me. Read in chorus. And answer questions one by one.

(view1, 100-116)

Since did not describe her class extensively but she also used the same key words that appeared in Pam’s and Sar’s class description: no variety of activities, focus on grammar, and exercises.

(8)

Since: ... กิจกรรมกิจกรรมจะไม่ก่อขึ้นกี่ครั้งจะเป็น ส่วนใหญ่จะเป็น ส่วนใหญ่จะเป็นข้อแนะนำให้ว่าจะเป็นใน grammar ประจำ เหล่าก็ให้ทำแบบฝึกหัด
Activities. There were not many activities and most of the activities were writing that focused on grammar. Then the teacher told us to do the exercises.

Similarly, the key words that the other three pre-service teachers used to describe their grammar-based classes appear in Preeya’s description of her classes as well. Nonetheless, Preeya reported having experienced more eclectic class activities than the other three pre-service teachers. Apart from her grammar activities, she also had listening-speaking activities, reading activities, and writing activities.

Preeya: …เหมือนกับว่าที่โรงเรียนจะเน้น grammar เหมือนกัน grammar นั่นคือ ใช้หนังสือแบบเพื่อเป็น grammar โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งแล้วก็แบบ เหมือนจะต้อง

ก่อนจะต้องท่องหนังสือกัน…แล้วถ้ายกเป็นคำที่สอนพวก ทางทักษะฟัง พูดโดยโรงเรียน

เข้ามักที่พูดภาษาอังกฤษทั้งหมดเลยทั้ง พูด พูด อย่างเดียวเลย ถามภาษาอังกฤษ ไม่มีพูดภาษาไทย

ที่ต้องอาจารย์เป็นคนไทยอย่างเดียว อาจไม่พูด…ส่วนมากจะให้อ่านหนังสือมา หนังสือพิมพ์

หนังสือพิมพ์ภาษาอังกฤษ แล้วถ้า จะถามว่า ข่าวนี้มี main idea อย่างไร เกี่ยวกับอะไร

อะไรอย่างนี้อย่างเดียว แล้วถ้ายกพักหลัง ๆ มีให้ไปกับความไม่ท่องสมุดพิมพ์เป็นเกี่ยวกับพวก Renaissance

อะไรอย่างนี้อย่างเดียว ภาษาอังกฤษ แล้วถ้าให้มา…อ่านแล้วก็สอบ…เขียนหรือจะ

ส่วนมากจะรวมอยู่ใน grammar อย่างละ พวกเขียนจะรวม แบบให้เขียน

ส่วนมากจะเป็นการบ้านประโยคอะไรบาง
...It seems like the school also emphasized grammar. There was a textbook for grammar only. And it was like there was some memorization too. But for the listening and speaking classes, the teacher would come in and speak only in English for the whole class. Speak, speak, for the whole class. Then ask questions in English. There was no use of Thai, even though the teacher might be Thai. She would not speak Thai in that class...Most of the time the teacher would assign us to read something in English, books, English newspapers. In my later years, I even had to search in the library for English materials in various topics, Renaissance and so on. Then, we had to read it for a test...Writing? Writing was usually combined with grammar. We wrote to practice sentence structures as assignments.

Considering the learning experience and the kind of English classrooms that the four pre-service teachers had, it is not surprising that Preeya was less concerned about form in her class activities than the other three pre-service teachers. Since she reported to be the only one who had experienced classes that focused on both form and meaning, Preeya may be more flexible in giving explicit grammar lesson and in focusing on form because she has seen how a non-grammar based classroom can be conducted. In addition, she reported that she herself overcame problems in English learning by practicing using English in real life. She may realize the advantages of non-grammar based learning and tried the idea in her own classroom.

In contrast, the other three pre-service teachers had a more limited view about how English classrooms can be conducted. They all had a clear memory of classrooms that emphasized the use of correct form and disregarded functions of language. Their
teaching approaches tended to imitate the ones used in the classes they had observed. Pam, especially, became successful in English from intensive tutoring classes which only focused on form and structure drills. It is likely that she would favor the teaching approach that emphasizes test-oriented practice activities over one focusing on communicative activities.

In brief, the four pre-service teachers reported some hardship in learning English when they were beginning EFL learners. Most of them started learning English early in kindergarten. They all reported doing poorly in English when they started and had to struggle before they became good at it. The classes most of them recalled focused on grammar instruction and structure drills, with little practice of language skills. However, Preeya was the only one who reported having some classes that did not have a focus on form. The learning experiences as language learners seem to reflect in their instructional practices. In general, the three pre-service teachers—Pam, Sar, and Sinee—used a more limited teaching approach than Preeya.

The next section presents the findings and discussion about the effects of beliefs about language learning on the choices the four pre-service teachers made in their teaching approaches.

**Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching Approaches**

The analysis of the data from the three sources reveals that the four pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches were influenced by their beliefs about language learning to a certain extent. The pre-service teachers who showed a focus on form when conducting class activities were found to have different beliefs about language learning from those of the one who was less concerned about form.
Particularly, Pam, Sar, and Sinee conducted their class activities focusing on form rather than meaning. Preeya cared about form less than the other three pre-service teachers. The survey and interview data show that Preeya reported having some different beliefs from those of the other three pre-service teachers in beliefs about self efficacy, the difficulty of English skills, and the importance of grammar instruction.

The following sections will illustrate these relationships by presenting the findings and the discussion of the data from the three sources in the following topics:

1. Motivation for English learning
2. Beliefs about foreign language aptitude
3. Beliefs about the difficulty of English learning
4. Beliefs about one’s own English ability
5. Beliefs about the nature of language learning
6. Beliefs about practices

In addition, the findings about the reported beliefs that changed in the post-practice teaching survey will be presented and discussed in each section.

Motivation for English Learning

Motivation has been discussed as one of the main factors accounted for success in second language learning. This section presents the findings and discussion about the four pre-service teachers’ reported self motivation for English learning and their beliefs about the role of motivation in language learning. The responses to the BALLI items 32 to 39 (see Appendix J) and the interview and observation data were analyzed to examine the relationship between the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about motivations and their teaching approaches.
In general, the data reveal that the four pre-service teachers were highly motivated in learning English. They were aware of the importance of English for Thai people. In addition, they stated that motivation was important in the learning process and they believed they had to help enhance their students’ motivation in learning English.

Self Motivation

The survey and interview data reveal consistent findings about the four pre-service teachers’ motivations for English learning. In general, all of them reported having high motivation for English learning. Regarding the reasons why they learn English, all four pre-service teachers reported in the interviews beliefs that English was important for the purposes of education, job opportunities, and communication with people from other countries. However, they did not mention having integrative motivation in learning English as they reported in the surveys. None of them said that they learned English because they wanted to make friends with people who speak English nor that they wanted to learn about English speakers.

To begin with, all of them strongly agreed with the statement, “I want to be able to speak English well” in the BALLI in both surveys. The interview data confirmed this finding. As mentioned earlier, the interview data reveal that the four pre-service teachers were not successful learners when they started learning English but they still chose to major in English. This suggests that their motivation for English learning is relatively high; they would have given up learning English after high school otherwise.
Considering the options that they had in their choices of classes in the university, their persistence in choosing to be in the English major is strong evidence of their high motivation for English learning.

Among the four pre-service teachers, Sar seemed to be the one who expressed her love for English learning most extensively in the interviews. As mentioned earlier, Sar reported having difficulty in learning English throughout her school years but decided to major in English. The following excerpt illustrates how her motivation for English learning drove Sar into the English major.

(10)
Sar: เรียนได้สองย่างนี้ค่ะ แต่ถ้าหนูชอบจังครับ (@@) หนูก็เลยแบบ เลือกเนี่ยกัน

เข้าไปมันแบบว่าเรียนภาษาเยอะๆ ดูฝึกหนูจะต้องพึ่งมากับมั้ยคะ (@@)...

I can learn both. But I like (English) (@@) I thought, let's do this, choose the program that I'll have to learn English a lot. I wanted to see if I would become good at it (@@)... (view1, 49-50)

In addition, Sar expressed her love for English learning several times in the interviews. She reported dreaming to be very good at English and able to use English for her own pleasure.

(11)
Sar: ...หนูหลังออกมาแบบว่า มีคอมไนยังคะ เข้า Internet ได้ หนูจะไป แบบสืบค้น (search)

แล้วก็คุยกันไงนะคะ ภาษาลงๆคุย แล้วก็ออก ดูหนัง มีเวลาดูหนัง แบบอื่น พักผ่อนเนี่ยค่ะ
…I want to, like, having a computer that connects to the Internet. I will search the Internet and chat with people in English. And I want to watch movies. I want to have time to watch movies, taking a rest. I want to see English movies, listen to English music. I like that. I want to listen to music while I am reading English novels. Because I like reading these books. I like it.

(views1, 224-227)

The other three pre-service teachers did not mention directly their self motivation for English learning. The interview data reveal that their motivation for English learning is likely to be driven from external factors rather than from personal preference like Sar. For instance, Pam and Preeya reported paying attention to English classes when preparing for exams and becoming interested in English learning after making good progress in their classes. Sinee did not mention directly how she got to be interested in learning English in general. She only said that she chose to major in English because of the high demand of people with English ability in the job market (see Excerpt 2).

Considering that all the four pre-service teachers were in the English major, it is likely that their motivation for English learning is relatively high, as suggested by the survey findings. However, some of them might be more expressive about their own motivation than the others.

Regarding their beliefs about the importance of English for Thai people (item 32), the survey data show consistent findings with the interview data overall, except in the case of Sinee. Sinee, like the other three pre-service teachers, reported in the interviews...
that she was aware of the importance of English learning for Thai people, but she responded to BALLI item 32 in a disagreement level “2”. However, her response to this item changed to “4” in the post-practice teaching survey. Considering the change in her response in the second survey, her agreement responses to the other items concerning the value of English learning, and her positive statement in the interviews about the importance of English learning, it is possible that her response in the first survey may not be valid and may not represent her actual beliefs in this regard. Therefore, I conclude that, in general, the four pre-service teachers were aware of the importance of English learning for Thai people. The following excerpts from the interviews can support this conclusion firmly.

In this excerpt, Pam stressed that Thai people needed to be good at English because it provided education and job opportunities.

(12)

Pam: นี่คือสาเหตุมาก่อนว่า...เรียนต้องใช้ภาษาอังกฤษแล้ว
อย่างเช่นสอบเน็ต นี่คือสาเหตุของภาษาอังกฤษ ต้องไปไม่ได้ เรียนต้องภาษาอังกฤษ ทำงานต้องดีบ้าง เรียนหน่อย บางที่แบบ
ต้องด่าประเทศต้องใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ แล้วภาษาอังกฤษ อย่างเวลาทำงาน
ความสามารถพิเศษเรา ถ้าคนเราได้ภาษาอย่างนี้ เราจะนิยมแบบ
ความได้เปรียบมากกว่าคนที่ جاءไม่มี

→ I think it’s very important...Like what we see now. We need English for education. Exams, for example. I think a lot of people would agree. If we
can’t pass English exams, we can’t do anything else. We need English if we want to pursue our higher education. At work, we need to collaborate with other departments. And sometimes, we have to be in contact with people from another country, so we need English. And English, when we work, our specialties. If we master English, we will have a better opportunity than people who don’t.

Similarly, Sar focused on the use of English in school and work contexts.

I think it is very important because, because nowadays. If we cannot use English well, we won’t be able to get a job. Because job interviews are normally in English...And when we want to search some information, when we study too (:@@) we search information in English. We need English.

Sinee extended the view about the importance of English to the aspect of English as the means of communication in the globalization world.
It is very important because the world becomes smaller now. We can communicate with people from other countries without having to see each other. For example, we can be in contact with people using (E-)mail. We can also buy stuff from the Internet. Right? I think the world is getting smaller and we communicate with people from other countries more, so English is important.

Preeya, whose ideas seem to reflect the most expansive view about the use of English, mentioned the importance of English in Thai people’s current daily life as well as English for education and job related reasons.

(15)
It’s quite important because everything is in English these days. For example, in the Internet, everything is in English. Or when we buy something, the instruction manuals are sometimes in English too. And there are a lot of foreigners in Thailand nowadays, so we need to use English for that too… I think it is also important for education. Like, medical students, they have to know English vocabulary in their field, right? Also, if we want to further our study, we also need English. In working, I have seen that all kinds of workers have to know English to some degree. Sometimes, some people seem to be working in a low level job, they still need to use English.

Maybe not much, but still, they need to know English. (view1, 410-423)

The four excerpts shown above suggest that all four pre-service teachers were aware of the importance of English for Thai people. Though their reported views about the use of English for Thai people were slightly different, they reveal the same orientation—instrumental, not integrative motivation.

The Role of Motivation in Language Learning

With regard to the relationship between motivation and language learning, the interview data reveal that the four pre-service teachers believed in the effects of
motivation on language learning success. Three pre-service teachers, Pam, Preeya, and Sinee, brought up issues related to motivation when describing characteristics of potentially successful English learners. In addition, all four of them showed concerns about students’ motivation when they talked about their selection of class materials and activities.

The following excerpts are parts of the interviews that Pam, Preeya, and Sinee talked about characteristics that potentially successful language learners should have. Pam and Preeya had similar ideas about this. They both believed that the list had to start off with intrinsic motivation—a passion for English learning. Preeya elaborated her idea in this regard that the enthusiasm for English learning would make learners interested in learning and willing to try to use English.

(16)

Pam: อย่างแรก ถ้าเกิดความเห็น หนูคิดว่าแบบ ต้องให้ก่อนอัน ต้องแบบกล้าพูด

→ First of all, if you ask me, I think they have to love to learn English and be willing to speak English. (view1, 376-378)

(17)

Preeya: ต้องกล้า ต้องกล้า เพราะว่า เนื่องกับต้องสนใจเนื่องกับ ต้องมีใจก็จะ

They have to be willing to try, and to be interested in it. To be successful in learning a language, learners have to love it. Because I used to dislike
learning English, I feel, I know if we don’t love to learn (the language), we will not want to learn. And, we won’t be willing to answer, to speak, or to do anything in English.

Also, Sinee mentioned believing that motivation accounted for success in learning. In this excerpt, she compared the learning circumstances of the students who had high and low motivation for English learning in her class. She argued that students who had experienced the use of English outside the classroom were more motivated to learn English than those who had no contact with English in real life, and thus, they paid more attention to class and were more likely to be successful in learning.

(18)

Sinee:  I think these students already have good foundation and they are in supportive environment for language learning. Some of these students have been to a foreign country, and they can use English to some degree,
so they want to know more, they want to learn more. If we look at the
learning environment at their houses, these students have UBC (Cable TV
that has English programs) and have access to the Internet. They will
want to learn more than another group of students who live in this area,
Huay Kwang slum. They have nothing at home and have to help their
mothers work. These students don’t do anything much in class. They don’t
see the importance (of English).

All four pre-service teachers showed their awareness of the importance of
motivation in their design of class materials and activities. Both the interview and
observation data reveal consistent findings about their beliefs in this regard. Mainly,
when talking about an ideal class, the four pre-service teachers described the kind of class
in which the students were motivated by the learning atmosphere created by the teachers.
First of all, they reported their preferences in using fun activities such as games to raise
students’ participation. They also favored using pictures (i.e., pictures of super stars or
popular places in foreign countries) or examples containing attractive names (i.e., the
names of super stars, sports players, the students in the class) to draw students’ attention.
Lastly, they mentioned using incentives to enhance students’ motivation. Consistently,
the observation data support the findings from the interviews. All pre-service teachers
showed attempts to enhance their students’ motivation in one way or another.

To begin with, most of them used a lot of pictures in their classes, especially
pictures of super stars—movie stars or singers, both Thai and foreigners—and popular
people in other careers. For example, popular soccer players’ names were used in several
classes that I observed because the World Cup program was broadcast live on television in the month of the observations.

Secondly, some pre-service teachers used the names of someone popular or of students in the class in their sentence examples. The observation data also showed that the use of these names was very effective in drawing students’ attention, as the pre-service teachers expected. In several class activities that incorporated known names, the students showed their excitement at seeing themselves or someone they knew and were eager to participate in the activity. For instance, in one of Pam’s classes, students’ names were used as the subjects of the sentences with a question tag. Here are some examples of the sentences in the activity:

Karn is a good student, isn’t he?
Cheztavut isn’t a moody boy, is he?
Geartipon and Jirayuth are so talkative, aren’t they?
Mutita is so beautiful, isn’t she?

In this activity, Pam had the students, one by one, practice responding to these sentences. The students showed that they were interested in the activity. Normally, Pam’s students did not pay much attention to the student who was interacting with Pam. It was different that day, the students who were not called listened to the response of the person who got called, and sometimes even shared their opinions with the class. They seemed to have fun responding to these sentences because they got to critique their friends through Pam’s activity.

Thirdly, game-like activities that involved competition between teams were employed in some of the four pre-service teachers’ classes. For instance, Pam used a
“buddy hunting” game to replace a simple question-answer activity. In this activity, each student was given a word card that contained either a question or an answer. Within the given time, the students had to “hunt” for the student who carried the card that matched with their own. In other words, students who had a question on their cards had to find the person who carried the answer to their question and vice versa.

Likewise, Sar colored her structure-drill activity by dividing the students into two teams to compete for scores by answering her questions. Each team had to send a representative to the blackboard to write the answer to respond to Sar’s question. The team that got the answer right in less time earned two points. The one that took more time in answering got one point, but only if they answered the question correctly.

Preeya also changed an “otherwise-boring” drill into a “fun” activity. Instead of having the students practicing the structure “Can I… (do something)?” in a traditional way, she created a “King and slave” game for this activity. Preeya divided the students into six groups. The students in each group had to help each other in structuring a “Can I…?” sentence using a verb given. The group that created a sentence in the shortest time became the King. The other groups had to compete for the “people” position by answering the King’s question. The rest fell into the “slave” position and had to follow the order of the King.

Lastly, the pre-service teachers favored using incentives to enhance their students’ motivation. To begin with, most pre-service teachers gave compliments when the students participated in their activities. However, their compliments were rhetorical rather than meaningful. Words like “Good” or “Very good” were used to inform the students that they accepted the students’ sentence(s) rather than to indicate their appreciation.
In addition, the four pre-service teachers used some kind of incentives (or threats) to promote students’ participation and attention. Preeya had her distinct way of motivating students to do writing assignments. She reported giving a star in students’ books when they submitted their work. She said she did not care whether they did the assignment correctly or not. She wanted to reward everyone who did her assignment.

Also, Preeya used an assignment of homework to enhance students’ motivation. She said that she did not usually assign any homework to her students because she wanted to make them feel good about her class. In practice, Preeya often used assignments to get the students’ attention. She brought it up in class as a conditional reinforcement. She said something like, “I will give you an assignment if you do not pay attention to this,” when the students did not participate well. Sar and Sinee also used a similar strategy. Sinee was sometimes more threatening. In some classes before the students’ mid-term exam, Sinee used a curse “You will fail the exam” to push the students to participate in class activities and to be disciplined. Pam used grades as incentives to motivate students to do class activities or homework assignments. In order to raise students’ work submission rate, Pam told them that the assignment was a part of their final grade.

The examples of motivational strategies used by all four pre-service teachers shown above are evidence of their awareness of the relationship between motivation and success in English learning.

Motivation after the Practice Teaching

In general, the survey data show consistency in the responses between the two surveys. The four pre-service teachers still reported believing that they had motivation for English learning, that it was necessary to learn English, and that motivation could affect
language learning success. However, some beliefs received different responses from some pre-service teachers after the practice teaching (see Appendix J for detailed results). In total, four out of the six beliefs show changes in the responses from the first survey. Most changes show a shift towards less agreement. Pam and Sinee changed their responses in two items, while Sar and Sinee had one item changed. Only the responses of Pam and Sinee show a shift in agreement.

Sinee changed her response to item 32, “Thai people feel that it is important to learn English”, from disagree to agree. As discussed earlier with the interview data, this shift may be an issue of validity of survey data rather than an issue of a change in beliefs. The interview data show that she was aware of the importance of English as much as the other three pre-service teachers.

Differently, item 36, “I would like to have friends from other countries,” received less agreement from Pam. Pam strongly agreed with this statement in the first survey and changed to disagree with it in the second survey. This shift in Pam’s reported beliefs is not surprising when considering her responses to the items about the joy in practicing English with English speakers (item 25) and about self efficacy in speaking English (item 28). The responses in these two items suggest that it is unlikely for Pam to want to seek a friendship with a foreign friend. In the second survey, Pam emphasized her dislike of speaking with English speakers more and still did not show her confidence in speaking English. Therefore, her motivation in seeking foreign friends may not be so high either.

Although, the survey responses seem to support the change in Pam’s belief about her motivation in pursuing a relationship with foreign friends, the observation and interview data do not yield much information in this regard. Only one part in the second
interview reveals her attitude towards making friends with one foreigner. When asked whether she consulted the native English speaker teacher when she prepared her lesson plans, Pam said that she did not see him or talk with him often and she felt that he was not so friendly. If this were Pam’s first experience in encountering with a foreigner, her motivation in seeking a foreign friend might change, as seen in the survey results. However, the data obtained in the present study do not provide enough evidence to support this argument.

Summary

In the aspect of motivations for English learning, the data reveal that the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about motivation showed their effects on classroom practices. All four pre-service teachers reported having high motivation for English learning themselves, being aware of the importance of English, and being aware of the association between motivation and language learning success. Consistently, the observation data reveal that all of them employed various strategies to make their classroom supportive for students’ motivation for English learning. Nevertheless, the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about motivation did not indicate whether the pre-service teachers emphasized form or meaning more in their classes. The beliefs only show an influence on their choices of class materials and activities and their motivational strategies.

Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude

Beliefs about foreign language aptitude have been discussed in the literature (Horwitz, 1987; Mori, 1999) as one of the beliefs that may be detrimental to learners’ language learning. This section presents the findings and discussion about the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about foreign language aptitude. The responses to the BALLI items 1-3,
5-7, and 9 (see Appendix F) and the interview data were used to discuss their beliefs in this regard. The observation data were used to discuss the effect(s) of these beliefs on their teaching approaches.

Fortunately, the survey and interview data suggest that the four pre-service teachers are not likely to risk the negative effects of the beliefs in this category mentioned in the review of the literature. Even though the four pre-service teachers reported believing that some people had a special ability for language learning while others did not, they believed that everyone had some potential to be successful in learning foreign languages. Besides, they reported believing that learners’ motivation and hard work, rather than an innate ability, contributed to language learning success.

The four pre-service teachers showed their endorsement of the concept of foreign language aptitude in both the surveys and interviews by agreeing that some groups of learners had more potential to be successful in language learning than others. For example, Pam reported believing that young learners had more potential to be successful language learners than adult learners, and women could do better than men. Sar’s reported beliefs were consistent with Pam’s in the issue of young learners vs. adult learners, but not in the issue of gender. Sar was neutral about the latter issue. In contrast, Sinee agreed with Pam about superior language ability of women over men. Preeya did not support either of Pam’s ideas about potentially successful language learners, but she reported believing that people who were good at mathematic or science did not have language learning ability, with which Sinee also agreed. The four pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs in the surveys and interviews show that they believed in the existence of foreign language learning ability.
However, the data do not suggest that the four pre-service teachers perceived that foreign language aptitude accounted for success in language learning. First of all, they reported believing that “everyone” had potential to learn a foreign language. Furthermore, they praised learners’ attributes such as motivation, effort, willingness to take risks, and confidence, not any special ability, as contributing factors to learning success. Evidence that can support this argument is shown in the interviews when the pre-service teachers talked about their improvement in English learning and when they talked about potentially successful language learners.

As mentioned in the section of “Learning experiences as EFL learners,” these four pre-service teachers were not successful English learners when they started learning English. When talking about how they became better at English, they mentioned changes in their own behaviors as sources of their success. They did not say anything that referred to foreign language aptitude. For instance, Pam said she got better at English after taking intensive English classes. Preeya reported paying more attention to her English classes and spending time practicing English on her own. Similarly, Sar made more effort in learning English by taking more English classes to overcome her problem. Sinee, though, did not share her thoughts about how she changed her fate in English learning during the interviews; she only described potentially successful language learning using these similar key words.

In the aspect of potentially successful language learners, the pre-service teachers reported perceiving that learners’ motivation and their effort in learning were the causes of success or failure. For example, Pam described why she thought that women could do better than men in foreign language learning by referring to the difference in their
interests towards the subject, not to a different “ability” that comes with being a man or a woman. She believed that women were interested in the area of English learning more than men, so they made more effort in learning and performed better as a result.

Furthermore, when she described a potentially successful English learner in her class, she showed concerns about motivation, attention, and participation, not about any gifted ability a learner might possess.

(19)

Pam: อย่างนี้เกิดขึ้นเอง หญิงถึงจะไม่ยอมแบบเกิดมาที่ค่อนข้างดีพวกไข่จะเห็นว่าเธอ จันทร์พิพ์

แบบเป็นคนเรียนก่อนจะเรียนอย่างนี้ หญิงคิดว่าเธอ เข้าใจได้ เพราะฉะนั้นเขาชอบ จะเรียนอย่างนี้

ขณะนี้เขาก็ ทักษะการสอนให้เรียนดีทั้งสิ้น จะต้องเรียน ตอบอะไรแบบ

คำตอบต้องตอบถาวรได้เรียนอย่างนี้ จะไม่แน่ใจแม้แต่เกมไหนก็จะเรียนอย่างนี้อาจจะ ไม่มี

Personally, I think of it this way, like what other people think, Jantip is a good student. I think she is good at English because she likes learning English. Her grade is good. She participates in class. She pays attention to class... She is attentive. She answers my question. She always looks at me.

She does not play a game (game boy) nor does that sort of thing in class.

She is not like that. (view2, 759-764)

Similarly, Preeya used “motivated”, “hard working”, and “willing to take risks” when she talked about how learners can be successful in English learning. Sinee described potential learners using words like “active”, “willing to take risks”, and “attentive.” She also mentioned “practice” as a way to success. Lastly, Sar added
“confident” and “curious” into the vocabulary list for describing characteristics of potential successful English learners.

The vocabulary list used in addressing issues relating to learning success is evidence to support that the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about required attribute(s) for language learning success are based on students’ attention and participation in the learning, not any external power. This finding suggests that the four pre-service teachers are likely to make efforts in their own learning and encourage their students to work hard in English classes instead of waiting for help from external power like foreign language aptitude.

The observation data supported that these four pre-service teachers emphasized the importance of students’ motivation and participation in their classroom practices. They all showed attempts in engaging students to participate in their class activities. To begin with, as discussed earlier, the four pre-service teachers tried to create the learning environment that enhanced students’ motivation. For instance, they designed “fun” activities that the students would enjoy doing without thinking about the use of English. They also used incentives to raise students’ participation in class activities.

Furthermore, they showed attempts in giving equal opportunities to every student to participate in class activities. Because of the large size class they all had, it was not possible that all students would get to participate in all activities. The pre-service teachers seemed to be aware of this and utilized a strategy that would recruit more people to be involved. Instead of having the students volunteer to perform a task all the time, where they might end up having the same group of students volunteer, they randomly called the students either by their names or their ID numbers. Although, their random selection
might not be very systematic and some students were called more often than the others, this random call practice shows the pre-service teachers’ attempts in giving equal opportunities to all students to be called and to practice in class.

Apart from the emphasis on students’ motivation and participation, it was found in the observation data that none of the four pre-service teachers showed different expectations for any group of students or treated any particular learners differently from others. For instance, even though Pam and Sinee believed that women were better than men in language learning, they treated both of their female and male students similarly.

Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude after the Practice Teaching

After their practice teaching, the pre-service teachers reported some beliefs differently from in the first survey. However, these differences are not significant changes in their beliefs in this regard considering that their reported beliefs about the key issues. The existence of foreign language aptitude (item 2) and the effect of foreign language aptitude on language learning (item 9) show consistency in the two surveys (see Appendix F). The pre-service teachers still reported believing that everyone could learn foreign languages but some group of learners may be better learners than others. Only their choices of potentially successful language learners changed.

Sar and Sinee reported more agreement in a belief about the existence of foreign language aptitude. Sinee changed to report that she believed that children could learn better than adults in the second survey. She was neutral the first time. Sar responded differently to the item concerning the ability of men and women after her practice teaching. Her response moved towards agreement, from “3” to “4,” that women are better learners.
In contrast, Pam and Preeya reported less agreement with the concept that some learners were better in language learning than others. In the second survey, Pam was skeptical about the issue of men vs. women in language learning. She first agreed that women were better than men but then was neutral in the second survey. Preeya, in the second survey, did not agree that people who were good at mathematics or science did not have foreign language learning ability. She first agreed that they did not.

The differences in their reported beliefs between the two surveys may be a result of their practice teaching experiences. The pre-service teachers might have observed the English learning ability of their students and adjusted their reported beliefs based on their experience. For instance, Sar might have seen that her female students did better in her class than her male students. In contrast, Pam might not have seen any difference between her male and female students. However, the observation data do not reveal any evidence. In all classes, I did not observe any difference between male and female students in taking part in class activities, nor did I know how well they did in class assignments or exams.

Summary

In sum, for the aspect of beliefs about foreign language learning ability as revealed in all the three sources, the findings are encouraging. Although the pre-service teachers reported believing in the existence of foreign language aptitude, their own language learning as well as their classroom practices did not show negative influences from this set of beliefs. The four pre-service teachers reported having made efforts in their own learning to overcome their problems in learning English. Also, they designed their class materials and activities to encourage students to make efforts in and pay
attention to the learning. Similar to beliefs about motivation, beliefs about foreign
language aptitude did not influence the pre-service teachers’ choices of teaching
approaches, either focusing on form or on meaning.

Beliefs about the Difficulty of English Learning

Beliefs about the difficulty of language learning have been seen as one of the
beliefs that may have negative impacts on learners’ success in language learning. This
belief was found to correlate with anxiety (Horwitz, 1989; Truitt, 1995) and learning
achievement (Mori, 1999). Learners who believed that the target language they were
studying was easy were found to have low foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, 1989;
Truitt, 1995) and did well in learning (Mori, 1999). On the other hand, one may assume
that an underestimation of the difficulty of language learning may not do any good to the
learners either. The students who perceive that the target language is easy but cannot
make as much progress as they expected may be discouraged and give up studying. The
responses to the BALLI items 10, 12-14, and the two items in Part II and the interview
data were used to discuss the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the difficulty of English
learning.

The findings are presented and discussed in the following orders: (1) the relative
difficulty of languages in general (2) the difficulty of English (3) time required to master
English and (4) the difficulty of each language skill. Then, the discussion about how
beliefs about the difficulty of English learning influenced the teaching approaches of the
pre-service teachers is presented.

The Relative Difficulty of Languages
Three pre-service teachers reported in both surveys that they believed in the relative difficulty of languages. Sinee was the only one who did not endorse this concept. She disagreed with the statement, “Some languages are easier to learn than others” in the first survey, and responded to it in the “neutral” scale in the second survey. This finding reflects a similar pattern of responses shown in the survey group as well. Only half of the participants in the survey phase reported believing in this concept and almost seventeen percent disagreed with the statement. Unfortunately, the interviews and the observations did not capture any information useful in discussing the survey results in this regard.

**English Difficulty**

In the aspect of the difficulty of English learning, consistency was found between the survey and interview data. In the surveys, three pre-service teachers—Pam, Sar, and Sinee—reported believing that English was a difficult language and Preeya reported that it was a language of medium difficulty. Preeya’s response is consistent with the responses of the majority of the pre-service teachers in the survey phase.

The interview data of the four pre-service teachers reveal consistent findings with the survey data about beliefs about English difficulty. To begin with, Preeya estimated the difficulty of English at a lower level than the other pre-service teachers in both surveys. Accordingly, in the interviews, she was the only one who did not mention that English was difficult. When talking about her failure in English when she was young, she confessed that it was because she did not pay much attention to her studies, not because of the difficulty of English. Moreover, when asked a direct question about the difficulty of English, she argued that English was not an easy language, but learning English for communication was not very difficult.
It seems not so difficult. Especially if we learn it just to be able to use it. It shouldn’t be difficult. I don’t think it’s difficult because when we talk we don’t need much vocabulary. We shouldn’t need to use difficult vocabulary. So, it’s not going to be difficult. But if we learn about English in depth, it is difficult.

On the other hand, Pam, Sar, and Sinee all stressed how difficult it was to learn English. For Pam, when I asked her a direct question about the difficulty of English in relation to other subjects, she confidently said that English was the easiest. However, her responses to other related questions show that she did not really believe that English was that easy. Pam mentioned a few times in the interviews that she still had not mastered English, even though she had studied it since she was in kindergarten.
**Very long but I still can’t speak English well (@@).**

This excerpt shows that Pam was aware that she had not mastered English. Therefore, it is likely that Pam did not think that English was an easy language. Similarly, Sar mentioned about her low grades in English a few times in the interviews.

(22)

Sar: …หนุน่า หนูเรียนอังกฤษ ข้ามมากั้ว หนูไม่เคย (@@) หนู เรียนแล้วกรดมันไม่เคยจะตื่นตระหนักว่า หนูเรียนแล้วมันยาก ถึง แต่หนูยังยั่งยืนเรียนนะ แต่ว่ามันยาก

...I think English is so difficult for me. But I (@@), I have never got good grades in English. And I think when I learn it, it’s difficult. Uh, but I still want to learn English. But it’s difficult.

In the following excerpt, Sar explained why she majored in English. Though she thought that her English became better than when she was in high school, she still believed she had not gotten to be good at English.

(23)

Sar: …ถึงก็ถึงข้อบ่ง แต่ว่าไม่ดีเลย แบบ เกมที่ไม่ดีเลย หนูก็ ไหนลองสักที

ว่าถ้าเกิดออกมาได้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษ ๆ อังกฤษальะ มันจะดีขึ้นมั้ย vae เกิดจะ

...I like English but it’s not so good. My grades are not good. So, I wanted to try to take more English classes and see if I would get better.

JV: แล้วสอนนี้รู้สึกยังยั่งยืนนะ

And what do you think now?

Sar: หนูน่า หนูได้ออкартกว่าเรียนมันละเอียดอะไร แต่ คือไปได้ดีมากนะ เล็กแบบ ได้อย่าง
I think, I am much better than when I was in high school. But it’s not very good. But I got better.

The efforts Sar made in learning English—her decision to major in English and her years of learning without discouragement—suggest that Sar perceived that English learning was not easy; because of her motivation for English learning and her beliefs about foreign language learning ability mentioned earlier, she did not give up.

Sinee, similar to Sar, reported having a difficult time with English until she entered the university and was in the English major. She admitted that English was difficult for her. Furthermore, when asked about her language ability, Sinee did not confidently say that she had made it.

(24)

JV: ...ถ้าพ่อบนหนูเคยเข้าไปในต่างประเทศ แล้วถ้าให้ใช้ภาษาเลย ทั้งเนื้อ ฟัง จุบทั้งอ่าน เขียน อย่างไรจะ

...If you were taken to a foreign country and needed to use English right away, all skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, would you be able to?

Sinee: ไม่

No.

JV: หนูคิดว่าอยู่ในระดับไหน

What level do you think you can do?

Sinee: ต้องปรับอีกเยอะจังค่ะ
I still have to learn a lot more.

All the excerpts shown above support that the survey results in the aspect of English difficulty are valid. The four pre-service teachers reported in both the surveys and interviews that English was not an easy language, but not very difficult either. They rated English in more or less a manageable level “difficult” or “medium difficult.” None of them reported being discouraged or wanting to quit learning English.

The findings about the four pre-service teachers’ beliefs in this regard and their attempts in learning English suggest that their beliefs about English difficulty did not have a strong negative influence on their language learning. The three pre-service teachers who reported believing that English was difficult did not give up learning English. It may be possible that they had higher anxiety than those who believed that English was easy as found in Horwitz (1989) and Truitt (1995). Nevertheless, the anxiety caused by this set of beliefs might not have been very detrimental. They continued in their learning.

**Time Requirement**

Even though the four pre-service teachers did not underestimate the level of English difficulty, their estimation of time required for a person to master English is rather unrealistic, considering the length of their own English study time. Pam, Preeya, and Sinee reported believing that people could speak English well within *three to five years* if they learned English one hour a day. Sar was even more unrealistic; she gave them only *one to two years*.

All four pre-service teachers had studied English for more than ten years and all of them reported not having mastered English. Their estimation about time requirement
for English study does not reflect the reality they were facing. If their responses to the BALLI projected their actual beliefs, what did they think about the English classes they had taken? Did they think that they did not have the right kind of instruction? What kind of English class did they have in mind when filling out the survey? Evidently, they did not answer the survey question based on their own learning experiences.

The results in the second survey were even more interesting. The responses of the four pre-service teachers were varied from one another ranging from “less than one year” to “5-10 years.” Pam and Sinee reduced their time estimation to “less than one year” and “1-2 years,” respectively. In contrast, Preeya and Sar extended the time requirement for English study to “5-10 years” and “3-5 years,” respectively. Do these shifts in response reflect the change in beliefs of these pre-service teachers?

As discussed in Chapter 4, the validity of this BALLI item is questionable. Because of the inadequate context in the statement, the respondents might have interpreted the statement differently in the two surveys. As Sakui and Gaiés (1999) suggested, beliefs are situationally specific, so respondents may respond to the same question about beliefs differently if they base their answers on different situations. It is possible that the four pre-service teachers thought about different kinds of English instruction and different levels of “speaking well” when they responded to the statement, “If someone spent one hour a day learning English, how long would it take him or her to speak English well?” The statement did not clearly specify either the kind of instruction or the quality of speaking. Therefore, the respondents might have interpreted this statement in different ways in the two surveys. Those who reported that it would take a person only one or two years to learn to speak English well might have thought about the
learning in an intensive English class, rather than in a regular English class in schools. Also, their estimation of “speaking well” may be based on lower standards than those who estimated longer time.

**The Difficulty of Language Skills**

In the aspect of the difficulty of each language skill, the four pre-service teachers’ responses to the BALLI items (items 12, 13, and 14) were varied (see Appendix G). In brief, Pam, Sar, and Sinee reported having the same opinion about the difficulty of reading and writing in relation to listening and speaking. They believed reading and writing were easier. Preeya had the opposite idea; she thought they were more difficult. When comparing between listening and speaking, Pam had a different idea from the other three pre-service teachers. She was the only one who reported believing that speaking was easier than listening. The interview data did not show much information about their beliefs in this regard. Only Sinee and Preeya mentioned the relative difficulty of language skills, which was consistent with the survey data.

Yet, the interview data show that the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the difficulty of each language skill projected into their use of English in their daily life. Briefly, the pre-service teachers reported using the language skill(s) that they believed were not difficult on their own, rather than the skill(s) they perceived as difficult. However, their use of English in their leisure time also appeared to relate with their beliefs about self efficacy in each language skill. In order to discuss the effects of these two beliefs together, the findings about the pre-service teachers’ use of English is presented in the following section under the topic of “Self-efficacy.”
Furthermore, the observation data reveal that the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches were influenced by their beliefs about the difficulty of each language skill. Even though all four pre-service teachers used more listening-speaking activities than reading-writing activities in their classes, their approaches in teaching linguistic knowledge before the activity were different. Preeya with the beliefs that listening and speaking were relatively easy was at ease when preparing her students for listening-speaking activities. She did not usually give much instruction on grammar structures or vocabulary that students might need to perform the activities. The other three pre-service teachers, on the contrary, always prepared their students for a “difficult task of listening and speaking” with an extensive grammar lesson. Furthermore, Sar and Sinee usually taught a long list of vocabulary before starting their listening-speaking activities.

In addition, the three pre-service teachers sometimes used writing activities to prepare the students for listening-speaking activities. The following excerpt is from Pam’s class that shows such a technique. In the activity, the students had to give directions to a friend to go from one place to another using a given map. Pam prepared them for the speaking task by telling them to write down what they were going to say before they started the activity.

(25)

Pam: อัศรีนี้ ถึงคราวนักเรียนจะต้องบอกทางเพื่อน นักเรียนฝ่าย A ที่ได้ชุด A กับ B
จะให้สถานที่ไม่เหมือนกัน ทั้งสอง ถ้าถ้าสถานที่ที่ได้ไว้ไม่ตรงกับ ชุด B

คนที่ได้ชุด A จะต้องบอกทางไป ไปโรงเรียนให้เพื่อนชุด B ที่ชุด B

จะต้องบอกทางไปแบบให้เพื่อนชุด A เข้าใจมั้ย? แล้วก่อนที่นักเรียนจะบอก นักเรียนทั้ง
Now, it’s your turn to give directions to your friend. Map A and B do not show the same places. Don’t peek over each other’s map. Who has map A? Raise your hand. (XX). The students who have map A will give a direction to the school to the students who have map B. And the students who have map B take the students having map A to the bank. Do you understand? But, before you start, do you see the space under what I wrote, “Describe the directions?” I want you to try to take yourself to the destination first. Write in that space, how can you go to the bank, to the school. Tell yourself first. At the end, you can check (XX) from your partner. If he or she can go to the destination correctly (XX) it means that you did it right. If he or she is lost, there must be something wrong in your directions, Okay?

This classroom event shows that Pam might believe that writing was easier than speaking, which is consistent with what she reported in the surveys and interviews.

Similar class events were observed in Sar and Sinee’s classes as well, but not in Preeya’s.
In short, the pre-service teachers’ preparation of linguistic knowledge for their students before a practice activity is evidence of their beliefs about the difficulty of each language skill.

Beliefs about the Difficulty of English Learning after the Practice Teaching

In the second survey, all pre-service teachers reported some beliefs differently from the first. First of all, in the aspect of the relative difficulty of languages in general, Sinee was the only one who showed a change in her agreement. Before the practice teaching, Sinee disagreed with the statement “Some languages are easier…,” then she changed to be neutral. This change in her response indicates that she supported the concept of the relative difficulty of languages more after the practice teaching. The interview and observation data did not yield any relevant information to discuss this inconsistency.

In the second aspect, beliefs about English difficulty, Pam reported a different response. She first reported believing that English was difficult. In the second survey, she thought it was only a language of medium difficulty. Taking into account her responses to the items addressing her own language ability (6 and 11), it can be assumed that Pam did not believe that her English was very good before the practice teaching. After having to teach English and use it in the classroom, she might have found that her English was not that bad. Her ability in communicating in English in the class and in giving instruction might have reassured her of her self efficacy in English. This successful use of English during the practice teaching may contribute to a lower estimate of English difficulty in the second survey.
Third, all pre-service teachers reported different estimates about the time required for English learning. The changes in responses were shown in both directions. Preeya and Sar believed more time was needed, while Pam and Sinee believed less was needed. Their estimates were varied ranging from *less than one year* to *5-10 years*. The changes in their responses in this regard can be explained using the validity issue of the BALLI item used to elicit this belief as discussed earlier.

First of all, considering that their reported perception of English difficulty was quite consistent in the two surveys, the estimation of the time required to learn English of each pre-service teacher should not have been as varied as shown in the results. Secondly, their time estimation, particularly in the first survey, does not match with the learning experience the pre-service teachers had had. All of them had learned English for more than ten years and none of them reported being confident in their speaking skills but they estimated that it would take a person who studied one hour a day to be able to speak English well within five years.

Evidently, they might have not responded to this statement using the kind of English instruction they had had or the kind of speaking they themselves wanted to master. When completing the first survey, they might have thought of a kind of instruction that was more efficient than regular English classes they had been in. Furthermore, they might have interpreted “speaking well” at a lower level than what they themselves wanted to accomplish. Therefore, the variation of the responses to this statement in the two surveys may not be significant.

In the last aspect, the difficulty of language skills, Pam and Sar reported different responses in the second survey. Pam did not report that she thought reading and writing
were easier than listening and speaking in the second survey; however, she did not change to disagree with this concept either. She responded to item 13 and 14 in the “neutral” scale in the second survey. Since Pam had to use her listening and speaking to a certain degree in her classes during her practice teaching, the practices of the two skills over the course of eighteen weeks might have made Pam assess their difficulty levels differently from before.

Sar also changed her perception about the relative difficulty of language skills. She changed to agree that speaking was easier than listening after experiencing the use of English in class. Her beliefs about the relative difficulty of listening and speaking skills might be disconfirmed by the experience from the classroom like Pam’s. According to the interview data, Sar usually used some English listening skills on her own but she never had to converse with anyone in English. However, her use of these two skills changed during her practice teaching; she employed more speaking skills. The observation data show that Sar used English to speak with her students to a certain extent. Differently, her practice of listening in the classes was limited because her interlocutors, the students, had very limited speaking ability. Also, she did not conduct many listening activities in her classes. In fact, there was no activity that focused on practicing listening skills, except pronunciation practice, in the five classes that I observed. Having used more speaking than listening, Sar might have perceived the difficulty of the two skills in a different way after the practice teaching.

Summary

Briefly, the four pre-service teachers reported believing that some languages were easier than others. They had quite realistic perceptions about the difficulty of English but
their estimation about time requirement for English learning was quite problematic. Lastly, their beliefs about the difficulty of each language skill were varied. Furthermore, the effects of these beliefs were shown in the pre-service teachers’ use of English in daily life as well as in their teaching approaches.

Beliefs about One’s Own English Ability

Self perception about one’s own language ability, or so called self efficacy, is another significant factor for success in language learning. This section presents the findings and discussion about the pre-service teachers’ beliefs on this topic. The responses to the BALLI items 3, 6, 11, and 15 (see Appendix F and G) along with the interview data were used to discuss the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about their potential in learning English. The interview data were used to discuss their perceived ability in English learning. Using the observation data, the discussion about how these beliefs affect the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches is presented.

One’s Own Potential in Learning English

In the surveys, the four pre-service teachers reported having different beliefs about their potential in learning foreign languages. Three of them reported having positive beliefs about their potential in learning English, while the other one was skeptical about her potential.

Preeya was the most optimistic about her own learning potential. She agreed that she had a special ability in learning foreign languages and that most other Thai people do, too. Moreover, she did not agree that English was difficult for Thai people even though Thai and English used different alphabet systems. In contrast, Sinee was the most
pessimistic. She did not agree with any of the BALLI items that addressed her potential in learning English (items 3, 6, 11, and 15). She responded to all of them in the neutral level.

The other two pre-service teachers had slightly different beliefs in this regard but they both believed that they could learn English. Pam reported believing in her own potential in learning English and that she had the foreign language ability. Even though she was not certain that Thai people were good at foreign languages, she did not think that Thai people would have much difficulty learning English because of the different alphabet systems. Sar did not report believing that she herself had foreign language aptitude but she believed Thai people did. Nevertheless, she believed that she would be able to do well in English. She was neutral on the issue about the difficulty of English for Thai people.

These findings are confirmed by the interview data. As shown in the section of “the difficulty of English learning,” Preeya had a rough time when she started learning English just like the other three pre-service teachers, yet she did not say that English was out of her control. Pam, Sar, and Sinee mentioned a few times that they had not yet become so good at English. Considering that all of them had continued learning English and were in the English major, it is likely that their beliefs about their potential in English learning might not have affected their learning much; otherwise, some of them would have reported giving up their learning.

*Self-efficacy*
In regard to self-efficacy, Preeya, once again, reported her confidence in her English ability more than the other pre-service teachers. In this excerpt, Preeya said that she did not have any problems using English.

(26)
JV: ...สบายใจระดับไหน ที่จะใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ

...How comfortable are you in using English?

Preeya: ก็สบาย ค่ะ สบายสบายค่ะ ไม่ ไม่เครียด]

\[ I'm \ okay \ with \ it. \ I'm \ not \ nervous \ or \ anything. \] (view1, 394-398)

The other three pre-service teachers, in contrast, showed that they were not confident in their English abilities. Sinee, in Excerpt 24, when being asked whether she was comfortable using English in a foreign country, confidently answered that she would not be able to. Sar, as mentioned earlier, repeatedly mentioned about her low grades in English and in this excerpt, she emphasized again that she was not confident in her English.

(27)
JV: แล้วก็ถ้าพูดถึงว่า จับให้หนูใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ย

หนูมีความมั่นใจในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมากน้อย

แค่ไหน

If you have to use English, how confident are you in using English?

Sar: อุย 30 40 เปอร์เซ็นต์ (@@) เองค่ะอาจารย์
Ooh, only 30-40 percent (@@)

JV: แต่ก็คือ ทำได้ แต่จะมีความรู้สึกไม่เท่าไหร่

But it means that you can do it, though you are not so confident about it.

Sar: [ไม่ ไม่มั่นใจ] อย่าคะ

No. I’m not confident. (view1, 338-342)

Pam, similarly, confessed that she was still nervous to use English with other people. (28)

JV: ...ถ้าบอกว่าได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ความรู้สึกของเราคือ มีความมั่นใจในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมาก่อนแต่ไม่

If you have to use English, how do you feel about your English?

Pam: คิดว่าจะหน่อยยังระทึก

I’m not so confident.

JV: แสดงว่า อธิบายถูกว่า จับให้เห็นโอกาสไปอยู่ในที่นี้ [ซึ่งมีคนใช้ภาษาอังกฤษอย่างเนื่อง หนูจะรู้สึก

So, if you were put into a place where everyone speaks English, would you be nervous?

Pam: [โอ ถึงก็ยัง ก็ยัง แบบ เจริง เจริง ประจุนะ]

อะไรอย่างนี้ คิดว่าจะพูดไม่ได้คิดอย่าง

Yes. I still feel tense, nervous, that kind of feeling. I don’t think I can speak

English well. (view1, 570-577)
From this, the four pre-service teachers can be divided into two groups based on their assessment of their own English ability. Pam, Sar, and Sinee are in one group and Preeya is in the other group.

Interestingly, the observation data show that Preeya, who reported being confident in her English ability, focused more on the use of English for communication purposes than the other pre-service teachers who reported low self efficacy. She conducted a number of communication oriented activities that aimed for students’ use of English. In addition, she was less concerned about monitoring the students’ language production and giving immediate correction, compared to the other three pre-service teachers (see detailed discussion about the pre-service teachers’ class activities in the sections “Beliefs about grammar” and “Beliefs about practices”).

Possibly, Preeya, with her high self efficacy in her English, was more confident to conduct communication oriented practice activities, which are usually difficult to control, than Pam, Sar, and Sinee. From my experience in the classrooms in Thailand, communication oriented activities are generally more difficult to conduct. Since the class sizes are big and the classrooms are usually open air, such activities can create hectic easily. The students can be out of control making a lot of noise, which can retrieve complaints from the neighboring classes. Furthermore, it takes a lot of effort for one teacher to monitor and assist a class of 40-50 students in a communication practice activity. Most importantly, in conducting communication oriented activities, the teachers have to be knowledgeable in both linguistic knowledge and socio-cultural knowledge to be able to create a role play or a skit for the students to practice the use of English for communication purposes. The three pre-service teachers who were not very confident in
their English might not feel comfortable preparing such activities for their classes and might tend to stick with a more traditional practice activity, discrete sentence structure drills, that require less work on their parts.

Regarding the perception about their own language skills, the same division can be applied. The group of the three pre-service teachers reported being able to do well in the reading and writing domains, whereas Preeya reported being good in the listening and speaking domains.

In the following excerpts, each pre-service teacher reported the English skill(s) she was confident with the most. Mainly, Pam and Sinee were most comfortable with writing. Sar said her reading was quite good.

(29)

Pam: เขียน เพราะมันเหมือนกับเขียนมันออกมาจากตัวเรา เราสามารถเลือก topic ส่วนใหญ่เขียนแยกก็ จะมั่นมาเรา

มันออกมาจากตัวเราอย่าง

→ Writing, because writing is created from ourselves. We can choose the topic ourselves. Most of the time, writing comes from ourselves.

(view1, 559-563)

(30)

Sinee: หน้าว่าหนน พึ่งกับเขียน...[แต่นูเขียนดีกว่า ไม่ดีมากคะ]

แต่ตีที่สุดแล้ว
I think listening and writing...but I am better in writing. It’s not very good but it’s my best. (view1, 183-186)

Sar: หนูว่าอีฟง พูด เนี่ยกุกไม่ค่อยได้เท่าไร อำนาจเขียน เขียนนี ถามเกิดเพิ่งเรียนมาใหม่นี้ เนี่ จะเขียนได้ดี (@@)
แต่อ่านนีก็ ก็พอโอเคค่ะ

I think, uh, I’m not so good at listening and speaking. For reading and writing, I can write well if I have just learned about it (@@). But I’m okay with reading. (view1, 320-321)

Preeya said her listening and speaking were good but not her reading and writing.

Preeya: หนูว่าฟงพูดหนูได้มากกว่า(@@) [เพราะว่าอ่าน เขียน ไม่ได้]

I think I’m better at listening and speaking (@@) because I can’t do well in reading and writing. (view1, 360-361)

The findings about the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the difficulty of language skills presented in the previous section and their reported self efficacy suggest that the four pre-service teachers tended to report that they could do well in the skill(s) that they perceived to be easy (see Table 5.1). However, they did not report being confident in using all the perceived easy skills. Pam, Sar, and Sinee, who believed that reading and writing were easier than listening and speaking, reported that they were confident in either reading or writing (see Excerpts 29-31). On the contrary, Preeya
reported her self-efficacy in listening and speaking. She perceived these two skills as being relatively easy (see Excerpt 32).

Furthermore, the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the difficulty of language skills and self efficacy in each language skill seem to influence their use of English outside the classroom. The interview data reveal that the four pre-service teachers, though they did not use English much outside the classroom, reported having an English activity that they enjoyed doing in their free time. They reported engaging in the kinds of activities requiring skills they were confident in using, not the activities that required skills they lacked confidence in using. Also, the pre-service teachers tended to favor the activities requiring skills they perceived as easy, not the ones that were difficult (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1

*Reported beliefs about the difficulty of English skills and self-efficacy and the skills that were reported being used outside classroom*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Perceived easy skill(s)</th>
<th>Perceived mastered skill(s)</th>
<th>Skills required in favorite activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pam</td>
<td>reading, writing</td>
<td>writing</td>
<td>reading, writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preeya</td>
<td>listening, speaking</td>
<td>listening, speaking</td>
<td>listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sar</td>
<td>reading, writing</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since</td>
<td>reading, writing</td>
<td>writing, listening*</td>
<td>writing, listening</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* *Reported confidence in listening despite perceiving it as difficult.*
This argument, however, does not apply to a particular listening activity, listening to English music. All four pre-service teachers reported listening to English music in their free time. When asked whether they understood the songs they listened to or not, some of them confessed that they did not always understand the song and that understanding did not seem to be their concern. Considering that music listening does not require comprehension skills—people can listen to and enjoy music of any language without having to understand the language—the pre-service teachers’ practices of this specific listening activity may not be influenced by their beliefs relating to English learning. Therefore, the discussion below of each pre-service teacher’s activities outside the classroom does not include their use of English in this particular context.

For Pam, with her reported belief that reading and writing were not so difficult, she mentioned practicing English in varied activities including reading, writing, listening, and speaking. However, she reported favoring the activities that required the “easy” skills she felt comfortable with, reading and writing activities, more than listening and speaking activities. Pam reported being confident in writing (see Excerpt 29) and said that she preferred writing in English to writing in Thai because she thought English was more economical and expressive than Thai. Even though she did not report her self efficacy in reading, she reported reading for pleasure. She said she always picked an English book over a Thai book for reading in her leisure time.

Also, Pam did not seem to enjoy listening and speaking activities as much. Pam mentioned speaking English with foreigners on the street but this speaking practice does not seem to be her choice. She only talked with foreigners when they came to ask for directions. Considering that Pam did not talk with the native English speaker teacher
frequently, she might not have made much effort in using her speaking and listening skills to talk with foreigners. In addition, her reported listening activity was limited only to listening to English music. When asked whether or not she listened to English radio programs or watched English TV programs, she said, “If someone turned it on, I can listen to it” (view 1, 167-168). Her response to this question reveals her lack of interest in this kind of listening activity.

In sum, Pam tended to make more effort in using reading and writing skills than listening and speaking skills in her free time, which reflects her belief about the difficulty of and her self efficacy in these two skills. She did not think that either of these skills was difficult. Moreover, she was confident in her writing.

Similarly, Preeya reported having various kinds of activities in English but she seemed to engage the most in the activity that required her perceived easy and mastered skill, listening. With her belief that listening and speaking were easy, she was confident in these two skills but reported practicing her listening more than her speaking. Preeya reported listening to various kinds of media in English including television programs, music, and movies. Nevertheless, she did not mention having regular speaking practice. She spoke English only when coming across a foreigner on the street. For reading and writing, Preeya wrote e-mail in English and searched for information in English on the Internet.

Preeya’s expansive use of English on her own may be explained by her beliefs about her potential in learning English discussed earlier. She was the most confident in her English among the four pre-service teachers. In addition, although she reported believing that reading and writing were relatively difficult and that she was not good at
them, she believed that English for communication was not so difficult and was manageable (see Excerpt 20). Thus, her use of reading and writing may be evidence of this belief. She did not do serious reading and writing; she only read for a particular purpose, searching for Internet information, and did a certain kind of writing, “e-mail.” On the contrary, her reported use of listening skills sounded to be more intentional.

The third pre-service teacher, Sar, with her perception that reading and writing were not so difficult, reported being confident in her reading skills more than any other skills and stated that she enjoyed reading English books as a hobby. She did not report having any regular writing activities even though it was one of her perceived easy skills. Her self efficacy in reading seems to be higher than in writing (see Excerpt 31). In addition, Sar did not mention doing any listening and speaking activities in English on her own, except listening to English music. Her beliefs about the difficulty of and her self efficacy in listening and speaking might relate to her low use of these two skills in her free time.

Sinee’s use of English reveals a slightly different relationship between her belief about the difficulty of language skills, self efficacy in each language skill, and the use of English in leisure activities. She reported having writing and listening activities in her free time even though listening was not reported as an “easy” skill, but, remember, it was one of the skills she was confident in using (see Excerpt 30). Sinee reported writing to her Thai friends in English and listening to English radio and television programs. She did not enjoy reading English books for pleasure and did not mention speaking English with anyone regularly. Sinee’s listening practices suggest that self efficacy may have a more influential effect on the use of English in leisure activities than beliefs about the
difficulty of language skills. Although Sinee might not have thought that listening was easy, she reported that she was good at it and she used it outside the classroom.

The findings about the reported use of English in leisure activities of the four pre-service teachers suggest that there is a relationship between beliefs about the difficulty of each language skill, self efficacy in each language skill, and the use of English for pleasure. In most cases, the pre-service teachers tended to enjoy using the language skill(s) that they were confident in using and was perceived as being not too difficult.

Nevertheless, the pre-service teachers’ selection of class activities did not appear to be influenced by beliefs about the difficulty of English skills and self efficacy in English skills. From my observation, all the four pre-service teachers conducted more listening-speaking activities than reading-writing activities, regardless of their beliefs about the difficulty of listening and speaking skills and their self efficacy in these two skills and of the activities suggested in the textbooks. As mentioned earlier, the Discoveries tended to promote the practice of all four language skills and there are a number of practice activities for each individual skill in the book.

That the pre-service teachers conducted listening-speaking activities as the main activities in their classes seems to be an effect from their beliefs about the importance of English skills. The interview data reveal that all four pre-service teachers reported believing that listening and speaking were the most important skills and should be learnt early. Perhaps the effects of beliefs about the difficulty of listening and speaking and self efficacy in these two skills might have been overridden by beliefs about the importance of language skills. With the belief that listening and speaking were important, the three pre-service teachers who were not confident in these two skills and perceived that these
skills were difficult might have disregarded their personal feelings in using these two skills and conducted the practice activities that employed these two skills.

It is also possible that, with their own low self efficacy in listening and speaking skills, the pre-service teachers might not want their students to be in the same situation. Taking into considerations their reported beliefs about the importance of listening and speaking and their reported learning experience regarding the low practice of these two skills, the pre-service teachers might have realized that the classroom was the main forum that the students could practice the use of these two skills since the students might not have opportunity to practice these two skills much outside the classroom. Therefore, they might have wanted to provide the students the opportunity to practice the skills in their classes as much as they could, and thus conducted conversational-based practice activities for either their discrete sentence structure drills or communication oriented practices.

Beliefs about One’s Own English Ability after the Practice Teaching

In general, there was not much change in responses to the four BALLI items (3, 6, 11, and 15) concerning beliefs about self efficacy and self potential (see Appendix F and G). Pam and Preeya reported consistent beliefs in the two surveys. Sar and Sinee responded differently to two items in the surveys after their practice teaching.

After the practice teaching, Sar seemed to change her mind about the potential of Thai people to learn English. She changed her support for the statement “Thai people are good at learning foreign languages” by responding to it in the neutral scale. In the item about the difficulty in learning English for Thai people that caused by the alphabet system, Sar changed to disagree. It is possible that, during her practice teaching, Sar
observed that her students had difficulty in learning English. Such experience could perhaps have caused Sar to question her beliefs about the potential of Thai people, thus leading her to respond to item 3 in the *neutral* scale. The change in her response in item 15 suggests that Sar does not think that the difficulty that Thai learners have, if any, in learning English is because of the difference in the alphabet systems of Thai and English. Sar might have seen, again, in her classes other possible factors. However, these two changes in Sar’s responses may not be significant. Sar consistently reported believing that she had the potential to learn English.

Sinee’s changes in her responses are more serious. She reported in the surveys that she herself and Thai people, the group she belonged to, did not have a potential to do well in English. At first, Sinee was skeptical about her own potential in learning English as well as in Thai people’s potential and she responded to the four items concerning this issue in the neutral scale. After the practice teaching, she stressed that she did not believe that she would be able to learn to speak well and that she believed English was difficult for Thai people. Apparently, Sinee was more pessimistic about her potential in learning English after having some teaching experience.

A plausible interpretation is that Sinee might have experienced difficulty in teaching and using English during her practice teaching. Such difficulty might have confirmed her beliefs about her lack of ability to learn English. Besides, similar to Sar, Sinee might have observed that her students struggled in English classes, which might make her conclude that the difficulty they were facing could be attributed to the difference in the alphabet systems between Thai and English. Nevertheless, the observation and interview data did not yield much information relating to this. I did not
observe her frustration or discouragement in preparing for class or hear her discomfort in teaching during the practice teaching. Her use of Thai as a medium of instruction in class was rather consistent with that of the other pre-service teachers.

Summary

In general, the pre-service teachers reported having different beliefs about their own potential and ability in learning English. Preeya seems to be the most optimistic about her potential in learning English; whereas Sinee is on the other end of the continuum. Their teaching approaches regarding the focus on form or meaning reflected their beliefs about their own English ability. Preeya, with her high self efficacy, tended to be less concerned about form and conducted more communication oriented activities than Pam, Sar, and Sinee who reported low self efficacy.

Their reported self-efficacy in each individual language skill also varied. Preeya was confident in her listening and speaking. Pam and Sinee were comfortable with writing. Sar thought her reading was good. Their beliefs about their own ability in each language skill appeared to affect their use of English on their own, but not their selection of class activities. All of them conducted more listening-speaking activities than reading-writing activities even though not all of them believed that they mastered listening and speaking skills or that the two skills were easy. Their beliefs about the importance of listening and speaking skills seem to be more influential than the beliefs about the difficulty of English skills and self efficacy in this regard.

Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning

Horwitz (1987) was concerned that beliefs about the nature of language learning such as beliefs about the importance of grammar and vocabulary may influence the way
foreign language learners spend their time in language learning. She claimed that learners who believe that learning English is a matter of learning vocabulary and grammar may have a limited view of language learning and invest all their time learning these two elements. In this section, I discuss the relationship between the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the nature of language learning and their teaching approaches using the data from the three sources. The survey data used in this discussion are from the BALLI items 16-20.

The survey and interview data reveal that the four pre-service teachers were varied in their beliefs about important language learning tasks. The data show that their beliefs about the importance of culture learning, language immersion, and vocabulary were consistent with each other’s but their beliefs about translation and grammar instruction were different.

The Importance of Cultural Knowledge

All pre-service teachers reported in the surveys their awareness of the importance of learning about English speakers’ cultures. However, the interview and the observation data did not show consistent findings.

In the interviews, the pre-service teachers reported believing that English learners should learn about English-speaking people’s cultures. However, they did not report making much effort to provide such knowledge for their students. In their explanation about their class design, three pre-service teachers—Pam, Sar, and Sinee—mentioned including cultural knowledge in their lessons, but only when the textbook or the teachers’ manual suggested. Preeya, on the other hand, said that she preferred adding general knowledge in her lessons (i.e., the speed limit in Thailand, the location of an underpass in
Thailand, the name of the bullet train in Japan) more than cultural knowledge.

Consistently, the observation data did not show any class events in which the pre-service teachers emphasized cultural knowledge. Furthermore, their classroom practices showed their lack of concern about socio-cultural knowledge or the appropriateness of the use of language in a given context. The following two excerpts illustrate this argument.

The first excerpt is a dialogue used in one of Preeya’s classes when she wanted the students to practice the expression “What’s the matter with you?” (I assumed that Preeya wrote this dialogue herself since I could not find it in the textbook). The use of this dialogue shows that Preeya was not aware that it was not appropriate for a doctor to use the expression “What’s the matter with you?” with his patient.

(33)

Doctor: Hello. Sit down. Now, what’s matter with you?

Patient: I’ve got a stomachache.

Doctor: Well, it’s nothing to worry about.

You must… (1) take this medicine three times a day.

(2) stay inside and keep warm.

(3) stay in bed for two hours.

That’s all.

Patient: Thank you, Doctor. (observe6, 126)

Another excerpt is from one of Sinee’s classes. In this class event, Sinee was translating a dialogue from the textbook for the students. In interpreting the word “your” in the context of a conversation between a father and a daughter, Sinee used a direct
The term “ข้องคุณ”/khong-khun/ is a formal word that is not generally used in Thai by a father. This excerpt is evidence of Sinee’s insensitiveness to cultural differences between Thai and English.

(34)

Mr. Morgan: Kate, whose sweater is this? Is it yours or Andy’s?
Kate: It’s Sue’s.
Mr. Morgan: Well, why is it here?
Kate: I don’t know.

Mr. Morgan: And whose socks are these? Are these yours, Andy?
Andy: Mine? Pink socks?
Kate: Well, they aren’t mine.
Andy: Perhaps they’re yours, Dad.

Mr. Morgan: Don’t be cheeky! (observe6, 496-506)

Considering the scant attempts in teaching cultural knowledge and the lack of concerns about the appropriateness of the use of linguistics elements discussed above, it is not likely that the reported beliefs in the BALLI represent the four pre-service teachers’ underlying beliefs about the learning of English-speaking people’s cultures. Rather, their responses to the BALLI item in this regard may only reflect the knowledge they learned from the teaching methodology class. The interview data show that cultural knowledge was one of the learning elements that they were taught to include in their lessons.

On the other hand, the inconsistency between the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the importance of cultural knowledge and their instructional practice may be attributed to the fact that the BALLI was not designed to elicit the respondent’s opinions...
about teaching. Instead, the inventory aims to obtain information about what should be learned in language learning, not what should be taught. The four pre-service teachers might believe that English learners should learn about the cultures of English speakers, but they might not think that it was necessary for them to teach such knowledge in their classes. It is possible that they might have assumed that students should learn about English speakers’ cultures outside the classroom such as from movies, television programs, and so on.

*The Benefits of Language Immersion*

Similarly, in the aspect of beliefs about language immersion, all the four pre-service teachers agreed in the surveys with the concept that learning English in an English-speaking environment was the best way. Nevertheless, the interview and observation data did not reveal any effects of this belief that it was necessary for English learners to be immersed in the environment of the target language.

First of all, the interview data reveal that the pre-service teachers themselves did not make much attempt to be exposed to English in their daily lives. Considering the availability of English media in Thailand nowadays, including newspapers, radio programs, and television programs, they should be able to create an English learning environment at home using such media and be exposed to the use of English more often. As presented earlier, all four pre-service teachers reported having some out of class activities in English, but they only did those activities when they had time. None of them reported having a regular activity that requires their use of English skills.

Furthermore, when responding to the question about native and non-native English speaker teachers, none of the pre-service teachers said that learning with native
English speaker teachers was better. Some of them even said that Thai teachers were better options for Thai EFL students. Actually, they did not seem to think that it was important for learners to be in an English speaking classroom. They also emphasized the use of Thai in English classes. They all agreed that EFL teachers, including themselves, needed to use Thai as a medium of instruction to accommodate the students’ ability levels.

Consistently, in their classroom practices, the four pre-service teachers did not show attempts to create an English-speaking atmosphere in their classes. They all used Thai in their classes extensively. They translated English sentences and words into Thai for the students all the time. Furthermore, they ceased their use of cassettes, which could have given the students the opportunity to listen to native speakers’ voice and accent, because of the inconvenience in using tape players in the class (see detailed discussion in “Beliefs about listening practice”).

The inconsistency shown between the survey data and the interview and observation data suggest either that a belief about language immersion did not have influence on the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches or that the survey findings did not represent the actual beliefs in this regard. Taking into consideration the situations of English learning in Thailand, it is possible that the pre-service teachers might believe that language immersion was beneficial for English learners, but they might not have thought that the concept was practical for Thai people. In addition, the pre-service teachers’ understanding of the concept of language immersion might have also affected their instructional practices.
Most Thai EFL learners do not have opportunity to immerse themselves in English-speaking environment; and thus, the concept about language immersion may seem to be unrealistic for them. First of all, English is not used as a medium of communication in their daily life. Secondly, a small number of students have opportunity to go abroad. Chances for studying abroad are even slimmer. Furthermore, not all students have access to English media available for middle class families such as English radio programs, English movies, Cable TV, or the Internet. Considering these learning circumstances, the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language immersion might have been confounded.

The four pre-service teachers themselves also experienced these same situations. They did not use English in their daily life much. None of them reported having been abroad either for a long period of time or for a study. Some of them had more access to English media than the others. However, they all were successful in English to a certain extent. They were able to communicate in English in class and gave instruction on English. Their success in learning English in Thailand, a non-English speaking country, might have led them to think that it might not be very necessary to be immersed in an English-speaking environment to be successful in English learning.

However, that no effects of the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the value of language immersion were observed in their instructional practices may be attributed to the pre-service teachers’ understanding of the concept of language immersion. It is possible that the pre-service teachers might have thought about “language immersion” in terms of studying abroad only. Therefore, they might not have thought that they were able to help create an English speaking environment for their students in their classrooms.
In conclusion, the four pre-service teachers might be aware of the benefits of language immersion in general, but they might not have thought that this concept was applicable for Thai EFL learners or that they might have misinterpreted the concept of language immersion, and thus their teaching approaches did not appear to be influenced by these beliefs.

The Importance of Vocabulary

Regarding the four pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the importance of vocabulary, all three data sources were consistent. In both surveys, all of them reported believing that vocabulary was an important element in English learning. The interview data also reveal that the pre-service teachers believed that they had to teach vocabulary. When explaining about their lesson plan designs, all of them mentioned a selection of vocabulary or a design of visual aids to teach the vocabulary.

The reported beliefs about the importance of vocabulary are supported by the observation data as well. Not one of the four pre-service teachers’ classes lacked vocabulary instruction. However, their teaching approaches were different. Since the textbooks do not provide a list of vocabulary to be taught in each lesson, the four pre-service teachers reported creating a vocabulary list for each lesson by reviewing the passages, dialogues, or practice activities in each chapter of the textbook. Their decisions in choosing the vocabulary and arranging time to teach it was varied. Pam did not spend as much time on vocabulary instruction as the other three pre-service teachers.

The observation data reveal that Pam did not allocate much of her class time to teaching vocabulary. She only taught new words when they appeared in a sentence during an activity. Mostly, her teaching method for teaching vocabulary was merely a translation
method. She only gave the students the meaning of the word in Thai. In contrast, Preeya, Sar, and Sinee tended to spend a good amount of their class time giving a mini lesson of vocabulary before starting practice activities. Neither Preeya nor Sar taught vocabulary as extensively as Sinee. Preeya simply gave the meaning of the words in Thai, just like Pam. Sar gave an example of a sentence with the new word when introducing new vocabulary. Sinee, on the extreme end, usually talked about the pronunciation, the spelling, and the meaning of the word when she taught a new vocabulary. When giving the meaning of a word, she either showed pictures that illustrated the word or used the word in a sentence(s) to hint to the students about the meaning of the word. The following excerpt shows how Sinee taught the word “country.”

(36)

(Sinee sticks a word card ‘country’ on the blackboard.)

Sinee: ติดมีควูรี่นิสละคร แปลว่าจะไร?

Who knows the meaning of this word?

Ss: ประเทศ

Pra-ted (The meaning of the word “country” in Thai)

Sinee: ประเทศ ซึ่ง เพียงเหอสุ่งใช้ไป เพียงเหอสุ่งใช้ไป(Chartercommunications.)

Pra-ted. Uh, let's see if you are right. Let's look at this sentence.

(Sinee sticks up a chart)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thailand is my country.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Sinee: ประเทศไทยเป็นจังหวัด

Who can translate this sentence?
Thailand is my country.

(XX) is my country.

(Sinee sticks up another chart)

| Britain, Italy, Spain are countries. |

Can you see the difference? In this sentence, there is more than one, it’s in plural form, right?

Ss: es/ies

Yes. It has to be in plural form, so we change “y” to?

Ss: i

“i” and add?

Ss: es

es Good. นะคะ. เพราะฉะนั้น country แปลว่า?

“es” Good. So, “country” means?

Ss: [ประเทศไทย]
Pra-ted (the meaning of “country” in Thai)

Sinee: ประเทศไทย

Pra-ted.  
(observe3, 179-207)

This excerpt shows that Sinee highly valued the teaching of vocabulary, and thus spent a lot of class time teaching it. She made the students examine the word in a context.

The Importance of Grammar

In general, the four pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the importance of grammar in English learning were varied. Both the survey and interview data show that, among the four pre-service teachers, Preeya was the least concerned about giving grammar instruction and Pam showed to be the most obsessive about it. The other two pre-service teachers agreed that grammar was an important element in English learning but they did not favor it as much as Pam. Therefore, I will only discuss the findings about Preeya’s and Pam’s beliefs in this regard.

To begin with, Preeya responded to the statement “Learning the grammar is an important part of learning English” in the neutral scale; whereas the three pre-service teachers agreed or strongly agreed with it. In the interviews, when talking about what to include in one lesson, Preeya although mentioning the teaching of grammar, said that grammar was not necessary in every lesson. For instance, in the following excerpt, she said that she did not have to teach grammar when she taught reading.

(38)

Preeya: (@@) ที่ตาม pattern นี้ ต้องมีนำ เขาสู่พลเรือนน่าจะ แล้วก็ มีการ บางครั้งก็อาจจะมีความของ
I follow the pattern. There are introduction, review, presentation of new vocabulary and structures, but not in every class, then practice. Practice and then evaluation, and transfer.

When you said that you didn’t teach vocabulary and structures in some lessons, what do you mean?

Well, sometimes, the vocabulary is already learnt. If the students already learnt the vocabulary, I don’t need to teach it again. And because some lessons only focus on grammar, and use old vocabulary, I don’t have to teach the vocabulary. Or sometimes when I teach reading, there is no structure. So, it depends.

The observation data reveal consistent findings about Preeya’s beliefs about grammar instruction. She did not teach grammar as extensively as the other three pre-
service teachers. Preeya tended to start using structures with little or no instruction about the grammar points in the structures. Actually, she taught a sentence structure as if she were teaching vocabulary. She started by showing examples of how the sentence structures were used, asked for the meaning of the sentences, then concluded with how and when the structures could be used. In the following excerpt, Preeya introduced the structure “Can I…?” and how to respond to this question to her class.

(39)

(Preeya sticks up a chart.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Can I eat that apple?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, you can.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, you can’t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You must keep it for tomorrow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Preeya: Can I, can I eat that apple? ถ้าเกิดกินได้ต้องเป็น

_Can I, can I eat that apple? If the person can eat it, the answer will be?

Ss: Yes,

Preeya: Yes?

Ss: You can.

Preeya: You can. No? You can’t. ถ้าไม่กินไม่ได้ คุณต้องเก็บไว้ tomorow.

You can. No? You can’t. If you want to explain more why the person can’t eat, You must keep it for tomorrow.
Ss: ต้อง [เก็บ พรุ่งนี้]

*Must keep it for tomorrow.*

Preeya: [ต้องเก็บ] เราไว้สำหรับวันพรุ่งนี้. พรุ่งนี้อาจจะทำอะไรซ่อมอย่าง. ใช่ไหม? จะจะทำ

*Must keep it for tomorrow. Tomorrow, we may need it for something. right? We may,*

S: สลัด

*Salad*

Preeya: อีก จะจะไปทำสลัด ใช่. จะจะทำจะอะไรได้อีก แอปเปิ้ล?

*Yes. We may make salad. Yes. What else? What else can we do with an apple?*

S: ซัน

Preeya: แซน แซนแอปเปิ้ล

*Apple jam*

Ss: ไปแปะหน้าหลัก

*To frost a cake.*

S: ทำ잖아요เปิ้ล

*Apple pie*

Preeya: อย่าน ใส่ ไค. Repeat after me.

*Ok. Ok. Repeat after me.*

(T reads the sentences from the chart. Ss repeat.)
(b) Preeya: ไม่เอามาใส่แล้ว. Can I, can I wear my new jeans? อยากจะ ขอดัน? ใส่

[angkanéénzar].

No more apple. Can I, can I wear my new jeans? I want to ask if I can wear jeans.

S: [angkanéénzar]

Jeans

Preeya: ตัวใหม่ได้มั้ย? Yes or no?

My new jeans. Yes or no?

Ss: No.


แล้วมีเพื่อนคนนึงขูดขันมา. เราจะขูดขันมาบอกว่า Can I wear my new jeans?

No. Uh, no you can’t. You must? What must you do? Supposing that we were going for a study trip and one of your friends said, Ngoa said, can I wear my new jeans?

Ss: You must,

Preeya: You must?

Ss: You must wear,

Preeya: [wear a school uniform.]

Ss: [wear a school uniform.]
(T sticks a chart on the board)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Can I wear my new jeans?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☑  Yes, you can.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐  No, you can’t. You must wear a school uniform.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(T writes the sentence structure on the board. No punctuation!)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Can I + V1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You must + V1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Preeya: (XX) Can I นะคะ จะมากับ [verb].

(XX) can I plus verb.

Ss: [verb].

➔(c) Preeya: ซึ่งที่หนึ่งก็คือ verb ที่อยู่ไม่ได้ผัน. ถ้าไม่ได้ ถ้าไม่ได้แปรรูป. แบบอย่างเช่น he ใช้เป็น he speak ที่สอง speak ที่สองเป็น s เดิม s ใช้มั้ยคะ? ก็ถือถือเน้น ถือผันแล้ว. แต่กว่าเราค่อย (XX).

แล้วต่อไป You must? ต้องบอก ตามด้วย verb เช่นคี่กับ. ถ้ามีอยู่? Wear. แล้วมีอยู่ก็อะไร? Keep เป็น verb หมวดอย่าง ใช้มั้ยคะ?

The verb in the base form is the verb that doesn’t have any conjugation.

For example, when the subject is he, he speak, we have to add “s” after “speak”. Right? This is an example of how to conjugate a verb. But, we will (XX) And, you must? The word that follows “you must” has to be a verb too. See? Wear. And what was the other one? Keep. They both are verbs, right?
Preeya: ถ้าผมต้องถามว่า. Sing a song. (XX). Can I?

_Supposing that I wanted to ask, sing a song. (XX) Can I?_

Ss: (XX)

Preeya: [Yes. You can.]

Ss: [Yes. You can.]

Preeya: ถ้าเกิดเป็น No you can’t. You must. Must จะไร่ดี?

_What if, no you can’t. You must. Must what?_

Ss: You must

S: study.

Preeya: ขอร้องเพลิงได้ยัง

_Can I sing a song?_

Ss: No.

Ss: ไม่ได้

No.

Preeya: No. ไม่ได้. You must. เอาอะไรดี? You must dance. ใช้ very good ได้นะครั. เพราะว่า
dance ที่เป็น verb. ถ้าไปถึง สมetat. Can I drink whiskey?

_No, no. You must. What? You must dance. Yes, very good. That’s ok.

Because “dance” is a verb too. Next, Can I drink whiskey?_

Ss: No, you can’t. You must drink milk.
Preeya: You must drink milk. Good.

You must drink milk. Good. You got it now? Did you? (observe5, 29-87)

Preeya’s approach in teaching the structure “Can I…?” in this excerpt is evidence of how much Preeya was concerned about form in relation to functions. After showing the examples of how the structure was used and how to respond to it [from line (a)], Preeya had the students practice using the structure right away [from line (b)]. The only grammar point she mentioned was about the form of the verb that follows “Can you” [from line (c)]. Actually, she did not give a lot of explanation about it at all.

Taking into consideration the data about her learning experience and beliefs about her English ability, it is possible that Preeya’s teaching approach in regard to the teaching of grammar may be influenced by two factors. She reported disliking grammar and did not believe that her grammar was good. When she prepared for her university entrance exam, she did not take intensive grammar classes as other students did. Instead, she focused on practicing using English for communicative purposes such as watching movies, talking with foreigners, and so on. Since her success in learning English was not from learning grammar, Preeya might not think that it was necessary to give extensive grammar instruction.

On the other hand, Pam reported becoming good at and enjoying English after taking some tutoring classes, which generally focused on grammar lessons and practice. The survey and interview data consistently show that Pam favored the teaching of grammar. First of all, she responded to the statement “Learning grammar is an important part of learning English” in the strongly agree scale in both surveys. Consistently, when explaining the steps in writing her lesson plans, Pam mentioned that grammar was a key
element in her lessons and she always consulted with grammar-drill exercise books used in tutoring centers when preparing her lessons. In addition, she reported favoring using grammar-drill worksheets for student practice.

Unsurprisingly, Pam did what she believed in in her classrooms. Her lessons were built around the focus on form. In the classes I observed, Pam often gave grammar lessons, used linguistic terminologies, focused on the form of sentences used in the activity rather than their meaning, used discrete sentences as examples instead of contextual sentences, and assigned grammar-drill worksheets.

In the following excerpt, Pam introduced a new structure to the class. She explained how and when to use the structure from the beginning. She used linguistic terminologies such as tense names and verb forms throughout the activity. Then she wrapped up the mini-grammar lesson with a chart that showed the pattern of the structure. When she asked the students, “Have you ever been to Laos?” she did not intend to elicit information from the students. She only used the question to teach the pattern of the expression “Have you ever been...?”

(40)

Pam: OK. Listen. Class, listen. Have you ever been to Laos? Listen and repeat after me. Have you ever been to Laos? One two three.

Ss: (repeat)

Pam: ถ้า จ่าได้ใช้ประโยค Have ever been to นี้ เราใช้ถาม ถามประโยคหรือเกี่ยวไปที่ไหนไปที่ไหน
Do you remember “Have ever been to”? We use this expression to ask someone about their experience, whether they have been to some place. This expression is used to indicate the action that still shows its consequence in the present time. It is in our subconscious. Right? Our experiences are always in our memory (XX). What do you call this term, uh, this tense?

S: Future

S: Present (XX)

Pam: Present Perfect Tense. คุณเคยไปลาวอสไหม? ถ้าเคยไปเคยไป ตอบว่า

*Present Perfect tense. Can you tell me? Do you remember? Have you ever been to Laos? If you have, what do you say?*

Ss: Yes I have. I have been to Laos.

(Pam sticks a sentence chart on the board)

Yes, I have. I’ve been to Laos once.

No, I haven’t. I’ve never been to Laos.

Pam: ถ้าเคยไปเคยไปตอบว่า

*Ok. If you have been there, what do you have to say?*
Ss: Yes I have. I have been to Laos once.

Pam: เคยไปมาที่นี่ครั้ง nào?

*How many times?*

Ss: ครั้งเดียว

*Once.*

Pam: ครั้งเดียวนะ. ถ้าไม่เคยไปเลยว่า?

*Once. What if you haven’t been there? What do you say?*

Ss: No I haven’t. I have never been to Laos.

Pam: ถ้าอยากนั้นจะต้องจ่ายรูปแบบประโยค structure ให้ได้ ว่า Have you ever จะต้อง

ปากด้ำ verb ช่วงอะไร?

*Ah, Okay. You have to memorize the pattern of this structure. Have you ever plus, plus what verb form?*

Ss: สาม

*Past participle*

Pam: ช่วงสาม เราต้องก็เข้าดีกว่านะ ถ้าเกิดเคยไปก็เป็น have ปากด้ำ verb ช่วง?

*Past participle. It’s the same when you answer. If you have been there, you have to use “have” and what verb form?*

Ss: สาม

*Past participle*

Pam: ช่วงสาม. ถ้าเกิดเป็นปฏิเสธ ว่าไม่เคยเราจะใช้?
Verb in the past participle form. If you haven’t been there, what do you say?

Ss: No

Pam: have never บอกว่า verb ชั่งสามเหลี่ยมกัน Do you understand?

You use “have never” plus verb in past participle form too. Do you understand?

Ss: Yes.

Pam: มีใครไม่ชื่นชอบ raise your hand. ชื่นชอบ OK. Very good.

Do you have any question? Raise your hand. Do you understand? Ok.

Very good.

(Pam sticks a chart on the blackboard)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>have you ever + V3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>have never + V3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(observe1, 46-81)

This excerpt shows how Pam usually taught sentence structures in her class.

Similar to what was found in Preeya’s data, Pam’s approach in teaching grammar seems to reflect what she has experienced as an English learner. She recalled English classes that focused solely on grammar lessons and she believed such classes contributed to her success in English learning. As a result, Pam might have tried to give her students what she believed had worked best for her.
Beliefs about Translation

The survey results show that the four pre-service teachers reported different beliefs about translation. Pam was the only one who reported that learning how to translate from Thai was an important part of learning English. Preeya and Sar were neutral and Sinee disagreed.

The interview data reveal inconsistent findings. None of the pre-service teachers mentioned teaching their students how to translate English sentences from Thai. Moreover, there is no evidence of such practice in the observation data either. No pre-service teachers taught or assigned any translation activities in their classes during the observations. They merely translated English sentences into Thai to accommodate their students’ English levels.

The findings from the interviews and observations challenge the applicability of the BALLI item used to elicit this belief (item 20). There was no difference in classroom practices regarding learning about translation between the pre-service teachers who agreed and disagreed with the BALLI statement. Therefore, the responses to this BALLI item might have not yielded applicable results about the pre-service teachers’ underlying beliefs. Considering the purpose of the BALLI, the reported beliefs about learning yielded from the inventory may not be inferred to the respondent’s beliefs about teaching. In other words, it cannot be assumed that the pre-service teacher who reported a belief that learning how to translate from Thai was important in English learning would actually teach their students to translate from Thai in their classes.

Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning after the Practice Teaching
In regard to beliefs about the nature of language learning, only beliefs about vocabulary learning show consistent findings in the two surveys. Each pre-service teacher reported different responses in at least one item in the second survey (see Appendix H).

First of all, in the aspect of cultural knowledge, Pam and Sar reported their responses to the BALLI item in this regard differently in the second survey. They both first agreed that learning about English-speakers’ cultures was important but they did not agree with it in the second survey. They responded to it in the neutral scale. Their experiences during practice teaching might have disconfirmed their beliefs in this regard.

Pam and Sar might have learned that it was unnecessary to teach culture from several sources. Although, they were taught to integrate cultural knowledge in their lessons from their teaching methodology class, they did not practice that and it did not seem to affect anyone. The interview data reveal that their supervisors never commented that they should add it into the lesson plans. Also, the pre-service teachers themselves did not appear to be so concerned about it. They reported that they only taught it if they found it in the teachers’ manual. The observation data reveal consistent findings. The two pre-service teachers did not promote their students’ awareness of English speakers’ cultures much in any of the observed lessons. The low practice of teaching cultural knowledge in classes might have confounded Pam’s and Sar’s beliefs about the importance of cultural knowledge.

For beliefs about language immersion, Pam, once again, reported her beliefs differently after the practice teaching. She first agreed that English learners should be immersed in an English-speaking environment, but she strongly disagreed with it in the second survey. Pam’s decreasing agreement with this may be influenced by her
observation of the native English speaker class. Since Pam co-taught the class with a native English speaker during the practice teaching and had to observe his classes, she might have seen that his class was not superior. It is also possible that Pam perceived that the students learned a lot more from her class, compared to his, especially about grammar—an important element of English lessons for her. Furthermore, the interview data show that Pam preferred her English teachers to be Thai.

Beliefs about translation also show some changes in responses in the second survey. Preeya stressed her disagreement with the statement “Learning how to translate from Thai.....” She was first neutral to it and changed to disagree in the second survey. Sinee, in contrast, reported more agreement. She first disagreed with the statement and changed to be neutral after the practice teaching. However, these changes may not be significant because they may be subjected to the applicability issue of this item as discussed earlier. The pre-service teachers who reported different beliefs did not appear to have different instructional practices in regard to learning how to translate from Thai; the different responses in the two surveys may not yield any significant information about the change in the pre-service teachers’ beliefs either.

The last item that shows changes in responses addresses the importance of grammar. Sinee lessened her agreement to neutral after her practice teaching. Considering her responses in the interviews and her classroom practice in this regard, it is questionable whether this different response shows a change in her beliefs. Sinee reported in the interviews that grammar was an important element in her lesson plan. Also, she taught grammar and practice grammar drills extensively in her classes during the observations. Therefore, it is unlikely that her beliefs about the learning of grammar
changed much during the practice teaching. Also, considering that the change in her response does not show a shift in agreement (e.g. from “4” or “5” to “2” or “1”), this inconsistency may not be significant.

**Summary**

In short, the survey data reveal that the four pre-service teachers reported having similar beliefs that vocabulary and cultural knowledge were important elements in English learning. They also unanimously agreed that it was best to learn English in an English-speaking country. Their reported beliefs about the importance of grammar and translation, however, were slightly different. Three of them agreed that learning about grammar and how to translate from Thai was important in English learning.

The interview and observation data reveal consistent findings in two beliefs, grammar and vocabulary, suggesting that there are relationships between these two beliefs and instructional practices. Beliefs about grammar instruction, in particular, appeared to affect the pre-service teachers’ focus on form. The three pre-service teachers who reported beliefs that grammar was an important learning task in English learning taught grammar in their classes extensively and were concerned about drilling discrete sentence structures rather than practicing English communication skills. In contrast, the pre-service teacher who did not think that it was very important to teach grammar was less concerned about giving explicit grammar instruction and attended more to meaning than form when conducting practice activities.

For beliefs concerning the other language learning tasks, translation, cultural knowledge, and language immersion, no effects of these beliefs on the pre-service teachers’ instructional practices were observed. In other words, the pre-service teachers
who reported beliefs that learning about the cultures of English speakers was important, for example, did not show any attempts to teach cultural knowledge in their classes or to emphasize the use of English appropriately in regard to contexts.

**Beliefs about Practices**

Practice is another important element in language classes. Linguistics knowledge is introduced to class for some kinds of practice—structure-drills, listening-speaking activities, reading activities, writing activities, and so on. In this section, I present the findings about the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the importance of practice in English learning in general and beliefs about listening and speaking practice. The survey data used in this section were the responses to the BALLI items 23 to 31.

Mainly, the four pre-service teachers reported believing that practice was important for English learners. In the surveys, Pam, Preeya, and Sinee *strongly agreed* with the statement “In learning English, it is important to practice a lot,” yet Sar only *agreed* with it. The interview data consistently support these findings. All pre-service teachers mentioned that learners needed to practice to be good at English.

When talking about how a learner can become good at English, Sar said that practice would help.

(41)

Sar:  หนุ่มวัยหนึ่ง น่า ดัง ตั้งกิจจำหาทีอย่าง ถึงจะ น่า จะได้ คือ

→  *I think, if they practice often, they should do well.* (view1, 233)

Sinee’s potential successful English learners also have to practice.
They have to be active, active. And, well, I think, willing to speak, willing to express. And they should enjoy practice. Listen and repeat, for example. They shouldn’t be shy.

Preeya described that the activities that were good for English classes were the ones in which students had to do something.

For activities? I think they should be activities that the students enjoy.

Games, for example. And they get to do something. Have their hands on. It may be a worksheet for them to work on, so they get to write. They may learn better that way.

Pam also thought that practicing helped students learn in English classes.
Yes. I thought the students would learn the vocabulary after doing the activity, so I didn’t check whether they had remembered the vocabulary yet. I want them to practice using it.

Accordingly, the observation data reveal that all four pre-service teachers conducted a great deal of practice activities in their classes. Yet, their concepts of “practice” seemed to be limited to practicing structures rather than communicative skills. Most practice activities that I observed in their classes were listening-speaking activities that were designed to practice discrete sentence structures instead of meaningful interaction. The meaning of the utterances in the conversation did not seem to be the major concern, especially for the pre-service teachers. Also, the students did not have a real reason to communicate since there was no information gap. The information used in the responses was known to everyone before the speaker(s) produced the utterance(s). However, the pre-service teachers’ concerns about form varied. Preeya appeared to be the least strict about form. She did not monitor students’ language production, gave immediate corrections to their errors, and disregarded the meaning of the interaction as much as the other three pre-service teachers.

The following excerpts show evidence of how each pre-service teacher focused on form when conducting class activities.

When asked about her favorite practice activities, Pam thought about sentence structure drills. She favored giving exercises on worksheets that focused on a single topic of grammar structure.
(45)

Pam: ถ้าคิดเป็นโครงสร้าง ส่วนใหญ่จะมายะงายไปถึง ใช้ worksheet อาจารย์ สมมติเริ่ม question tag อะไรอย่างเล็ก หนูคิดเลย exercise ที่คิดก่อนกัน question tag ห่วงนั้น คิดอยู่กัน ๆ

ถ้าแบ่งแบบเป็น group group ว่าแบบ เอก group เนี่ย จะเกณฑ์จะคล้าย ๆ กัน คิดจากง่าย ๆ

แล้วไปอ่านๆ บท ๆ ก็จะสมบัญญา ห่วงแบบเป็น past นั้น เป็น present นั้น เป็นอะไรอย่างนี้

[ที่คิดแบบ ให้ดี]

→  

For structures, I always think about using worksheets. For example, when I taught about question tags, I gave them all the exercises about question tags. I started by dividing it into groups. In the same group, the sentences will be similar and started from easy to difficult. I will have easy and difficult ones together. So, they will be in past, in present, etc. I want them to get it.  

(46)

Pam: ถ้า เสร็จแล้ว ถ้า เลขลงมาทำ ชื่อชัตชื่อ Exercise ถ้า Number one. Anon is a cheerful friend. ตอบอะไร?

Ok. Finish. Let’s do three sentences in the exercise. Uh, number one. Anon is a cheerful friend. What would you answer?
Ss: isn’t he (some students say “no”)

Pam: ที่เป็น question tag ไ่ว่ะ?

*What question tag do you need?*

S: isn’t he?

Pam: isn’t? he. OK. Number two. Teerapat and Worapong went to Hua Hin (XX).

Ss: isn’t he?

Pam: ใช่ไหม?

*What do you use for this?*

S: didn’t they?

Pam: ใช่ Didn’t เพราะว่า verb เป็น past ถูกต้องไหม? ที่เป็น didn’t?

You use ‘didn’t’ because the verb is in past tense, right. So you use “didn’t.”

Ss: they

Pam: they เพราะว่ามีสองคน ฉะ number three.

*Use ‘they’ because there are two people. Uh, number three.*

Ss: does she? does she?

Pam: Mayuree doesn’t go to school by bus

Ss: does she?
Pam: does she? Ok. Number four. Number four. Sasitorn can’t do that for you.

Ss: can he?

Pam: can he? OK.

Ss: she

Pam: can she? (view2, 188-209)

Sometimes, Pam practiced some structures with her students in a conversational format; yet she was not interested in the meaning of the conversation as much as in the targeted form. Excerpt 47 shows how little Pam was concerned about the meaning of her student’s answer. In this class event, Pam practiced the use of different tense forms with the students. To check whether the students can answer a question in Simple Present tense or not, Pam asked one student, “How are you today?” Her response to the student’s answer “I am sick” showed that she was not listening to what the student actually meant. Pam was solely interested in the verb form used in the answer. Therefore, instead of wishing the student well or saying that she was sorry to know he was not doing well, Pam simply responded by repeating the sentence. Most dialogue practices that Pam conducted in her class were similar to this one which are grammar oriented, not communication oriented.

(47)

Pam: Jirayut. Jirayut. ตัว nearly? Please stand up. Jirayut. How are you today?

Jirayut. Jirayut, are you here? Please stand up. Jirayut, how are you today?
S: (XX) (I assumed that the student produced something like “I am sick”).

Pam: I am, I am sick. OK. Look at on the blackboard please.

→ I am, I am sick. OK. Ah, Ok. Everyone, look at on the blackboard please.

(observe2, 197-204)

Similarly, Sar’s practice activities did not emphasize the use of English for communication either. The following excerpt is an example of common practice activities observed from Sar’s class. In this class event, Sar used this activity to practice how to identify an animal’s name and its country of origin after she taught her students the expressions “What’s this animal?” and “Where is it from?” and some vocabulary about nationalities and country names. Sar did not create a context of interaction for the students to practice these linguistic elements. She simply asked the students the questions and looked for the responses that she expected them to use—complete, correct sentences. There was no need for communication since all students saw the pictures in the textbook with the vocabulary word relating to the pictures.

(48)

Sar: Look at picture two. What’s this animal?

Ss: It’s a sheepdog.

Sar: It’s a?

Ss: [sheepdog]

Sar: [sheepdog] Where is it from?

Ss: It’s from England.
Sar: เธอ It's from England. ถ้าบอกว่ามันเป็นของประเทศอังกฤษ บอกว่าอะไรคะ?

(a) Uh, it’s from England. What if you want to say that it belongs to England, what do you say?

Ss: It’s an English sheepdog.

Sar: ชื่อ It’s an English sheepdog.

Er, it’s an English sheepdog. (observe3, 331-339)

Sar’s response to the students’ answer in line (a) shows her intention to use this activity to practice the structures that she taught the students. During the observed class, Sar taught two sentence structures that can be used to indicate the country of origin of an animal: “It’s from + country’s name” and “It’s + nationality + animal’s name.” She showed that she wanted to know that the students could use both structures, regardless of the appropriateness to the context. She asked the students to respond to her question “Where is it from?” using the sentence “It’s an English sheepdog.”

Sincee shows her emphasis on form in her practice activities as well. Excerpt 49 shows an activity that she used in a lesson about how to identify people’s possession. Sinee prepared the students with instruction of possessive nouns and pronouns and vocabulary about clothing. She divided the students into three groups. Each group took the role of a character from the textbook: Andy, Kate, and Mr. Morgan, and she herself took the role of Mrs. Morgan. Andy and Kate are Mr. and Mrs. Morgan’s children. In the textbook, there are pictures of different kinds of clothes that belong to each of these characters. There is information about the owner of each piece of clothes illustrated by
the picture. Since practiced the use of the grammar point she taught by asking each group of students, “Whose…are these?” or “Whose…is this?”

Sinee: Kate, whose trousers are these? Whose trousers are these?

S: It’s

Sinee: เข้าตอบพร้อมกัน

Answer altogether.

Kate: It’s Mr. Morgan

Sinee: ตอบให้เต็มประโยคใช้ It’s it’s ใช้ it’s เหรอะ ใช้ it’s เหรอะ?

→ (a) Use a complete sentence. It’s, Its’, can you use ‘it’s’? Can you use ‘it’s’ in this sentence?

Kate: They are

Sinee: They are

Kate: Mr. Morgan’s.

Sinee: Mr. Morgan อยู่ไหนยัง ถ้า ซึ่งว่า They are

→ (b) Mr. Morgan. Where is Mr. Morgan? Point to him too. They are,

Kate: Mr. Morgan’s

Sinee: ถ้า แบบที่สองเท่าละ?

→ (c) What about another way?
Kate: They are…

Sinee: They are?

Kate: his

Sinee: his. OK. Good. They are his. OK. (observe6, 567-583)

Sinee’s responses to her students’ utterances showed that she was concerned about form rather than the meaning of the conversation between her and the group of students playing “Kate.” In line (a), Sinee wanted the students to answer the question in a complete sentence. Also, she pointed out the students’ error in the use of pronoun right away. Line (b) shows that Sinee was not serious about the roles of the characters. She accepted the students’ answer “They are Mr. Morgan’s” because there is no flaw in the structure. However, this sentence is not appropriate considering that Kate is Mr. and Mrs. Morgan’s daughter. A daughter would not refer to her father like that when talking with her mother. This confirms that Sinee did not intend to practice the use of appropriate English; she was only interested in correctness. Line (c) is additional evidence of her purpose in using this activity to practice sentence structures. Sinee asked the students to produce another form of a sentence to answer the same question because she taught them two ways of answering.

Preeya, similar to the other three, also conducted some structure-drill activities in her classes, but the observation data show that she conducted more activities that focused on meaning than seen in the other three pre-service teachers’ classes. In each of Preeya’s classes that I observed, there was at least one activity that the students had to use English for communication. Most of her practice activities were still not contextualized but they
were usually communication-based. The students performed language in the activity for a communicative purpose. The followings are three examples of her communication-oriented activities.

In the first class, Preeya taught the expression “How do you get to school?” and how to respond to this expression using adverbs of frequency. After explaining how to use this expression and adverbs of frequency, Preeya had the students practice using these linguistic elements in a dialogue form.

A: How do you get to school?
B: I _____ go by ____.
A: Do you ever go by ____?
B: No, ____.

She asked the students to practice using this dialogue with four other students. Then, each student had to fill out a worksheet with the information they had got from their classmates. After the students finished, Preeya asked some students to present their entries to the class and asked some pairs of students to do the dialogue in front of the class. This activity has characteristics of a communicative activity. The students had a meaningful purpose to use the expression. They knew that they had to retrieve some information from the interlocutor(s) in order to complete their tasks—filling out the table.

In another class, Preeya practiced the use of the expression “How long does it take your friend to…?” First, she asked the students to do the following tasks and watched the time that they spent on each task.

- count up to 50 in English
- say alphabets in English
work out the answer to a given math problem

After they finished their tasks, they had to talk with another student and ask the person how much time he or she spent in doing each task, then they jotted down the information on their worksheets. This activity, once again, did not focus on form as much as meaning. It may only practice one single structure with no context but there was a need to perform the language.

Similarly, this next activity shows to be communication-oriented. In this activity, Preeya used a role play to practice the expression “What’s the matter with you?” (see details in Excerpt 33. Preeya had the students work in small groups. One student in the group took the role of a doctor and the others were patients. The patients each got a slip that told them what problem they were having such as:

- You’ve got a toothache. You feel terrible.
- You’ve got a headache. You feel awful.
- You’ve got a sore throat. You can’t speak louder.

The doctors also had a script that told them what suggestions they could give. The suggestions were as follows:

- drink lots of water.
- take this medicine three times a day
- stay in bed for couple of days

Preeya also told the “patients” to act out the symptoms that each of them had and the “doctors” to act real when giving the diagnosis. This practice activity is contextualized. The students took different roles and had to produce language according to their roles, so the target structures and vocabulary were practiced in a meaningful context. Moreover,
there is an information gap in the activity. The students did not know in advance what the other student would say, so there was a need for them to communicate.

These three activities are examples of Preeya’s practice activities that show her interest in a meaningful communication practice. In fact, I did not observe such activities in Sar and Sinee’s classes at all. Pam had only one activity that was communication oriented (see Excerpt 25); her other activities were solely grammar oriented.

The teaching approaches the four pre-service teachers employed in conducting practice activities seem to be influenced by their beliefs about grammar instruction and their learning experience as language learners. As discussed earlier, Preeya was the only one who reported believing that grammar was not so important and having some English classes that practiced English for communicative purposes. Her beliefs about the importance of grammar and her learning experience might have influenced Preeya to be less concerned about form than the other three pre-service teachers.

The following sections present the findings about the pre-service teachers’ beliefs in the category of learning and communication strategies that are related to their choices of practice activities, listening and speaking in particular.

Beliefs about Listening Practice

The survey data show that the four pre-service teachers were aware that English learners should listen to English often by listening to radio or watching television programs in English. Furthermore, Pam, Sar, and Sinee thought that listening to cassettes or tapes was also a good idea. The interview data reveal consistent findings. The four pre-service teachers seemed to enjoy practicing listening by listening to authentic materials
such as English music and radio programs or by watching movies. All of them reported doing one of these activities in their free time.

Surprisingly, the observation data did not show the pre-service teachers’ attempts to conduct listening practice activities in their classes. Although the four pre-service teachers conducted a number of conversational-oriented practice activities, they did not have any activities that focused only on listening skills. They did not use cassette tapes in any classes during the observations, even though there was a cassette tape for listening activities which accompanied the textbook.

The four pre-service teachers explained their low conduct of listening activities with their assumption that the native English speaker teachers were responsible for such activities. Also, they said that using tape players in class was hectic. Sinee, for instance, said that she lost control of her class when playing tape cassettes. Similarly, Preeya mentioned problems about class attention. She also talked about the inconvenience of the open-air room for voice quality. Pam blamed time constraints. From my observation, the classrooms at this school were often very noisy and the quality of sound from the tape players would not be clear to the students. Therefore, the pre-service teachers’ low use of listening materials in class may be a result of the inconveniences in the classroom as stated by the pre-service teachers rather than an effect of their beliefs.

Furthermore, the pre-service teachers did not encourage their students to utilize authentic listening materials outside the classroom either. Although all of them reported enjoying listening to such materials themselves, they did not share their joy with their students. A plausible explanation is that the pre-service teachers might not associate their students’ formal learning with their own informal learning opportunities. Considering the
pre-service teachers’ focus on form, it is likely that their concepts about listening practice for students may consist of non-communication oriented tasks that their everyday listening activities do not fit in.

In brief, the findings about the pre-service teachers’ beliefs in the aspect of listening activities suggest that the pre-service teachers were aware of the importance of listening for English learners. However, their beliefs in this regard might have not affected their classroom practices perhaps because of time and class atmosphere constraints, class discipline, and teaching approaches.

**Beliefs about Speaking Practice**

The survey and interview data show that the four pre-service teachers were aware of the importance of speaking practice. All of them, except Sinee, reported in the surveys beliefs that learners should try to practice speaking English even though they might make mistakes (item 24). Also, they accepted that speakers could use communication strategies such as guessing when encountering difficulty in using English (item 26). Consistently, in the interviews, all of them mentioned that English learners needed to practice speaking. In fact, they thought speaking was one of the most important skills that needed to be learnt and practiced early in the learning.

Nonetheless, their reported use of English speaking in their daily life was not consistent with their beliefs about the importance of speaking practice. None of the pre-service teachers reported having English speaking friends with whom they had to communicate in English. In fact, they did not mention their attempts to find opportunities to speak English. Pam and Preeya reported having some chances to speak with foreigners on the street but neither of them said that it was their intention to seek speaking
opportunities that way. Moreover, the use of English in their classes shows that the pre-service teachers did not enjoy speaking English so much. They did not use English as the medium of instruction in their classes.

The four pre-service teachers did not use English in class as much as they were encouraged to by their supervisors. This can be considered a loss of opportunity for their students to practice conversing in English. Generally, English classes are the main forum for EFL learners to use English. The pre-service teachers’ low use of English may not only debilitate their own English learning but also that of their students.

The low use of English speaking skills of the four pre-service teachers may be explained using the results from two items in the BALLI (items 25 and 28). First of all, only Sar reported believing that she enjoyed practicing speaking English with foreigners. The other three pre-service teachers either disagreed with this feeling or were neutral. Responding to the statement “I feel timid speaking English…," Pam and Preeya agreed while Sar and Sinee were neutral. These findings suggest that the pre-service teachers might not enjoy speaking English so much, so it is not likely that they would seek opportunities to speak English with any English speakers. Pam, particularly, had the least possibility to practice speaking in English. She reported being timid when speaking English with others. Also, she did not agree that she enjoyed speaking with foreigners.

Furthermore, considering their reported beliefs about the difficulty of speaking and their self efficacy, the pre-service teacher might have not used their English speaking skills much because none of them reported believing that speaking was an easily mastered language skill. All of these findings possibly explain why the pre-service teachers did not put much effort into their own speaking practice.
After all, the findings about the pre-service teachers' speaking practice beliefs were not encouraging. The pre-service teachers, though they believed that English learners should practice speaking, did not seek opportunities to speak English themselves. This could also be a result from their concerns about correctness. Their responses in the surveys and interviews about correct pronunciation and error correction reveal that the pre-service teachers might believe that learners should attend to form when speaking (item 23) and that learners’ errors should be corrected immediately (item 29). These findings suggest that the pre-service teachers might be likely to attend to form in the spoken discourse while speaking or while conducting speaking practice in their classes.

Nevertheless, their beliefs relating to speaking practice did not appear to inhibit them from conducting speaking practice activities. As discussed earlier, the four pre-service teachers stated in the interviews that speaking was one of the most important skills. Accordingly, most of the four pre-service teachers’ class activities during the observations were conversational-oriented activities. Some of the activities might have been used to practice non-contextualized sentence structures rather than communication skills but all pre-service teachers seemed to promote students’ speaking practices, which is consistent with their reported beliefs about the importance of speaking practices.

With their reported beliefs about correct pronunciation and immediate correction, the pre-service teachers showed concerns about the correctness of pronunciation and sentence structures when conducting conversational activities. Most of them always monitored their students’ language production and gave immediate correction. This evidence confirms their reported beliefs about speaking practice that attends to form.
Consequently, their attempts to conduct speaking practice activities might not yield rewarding results because their beliefs about correctness may not enhance their students’ motivation to practice. As discussed in Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), students who are aware that they are being evaluated are likely to encounter anxiety when they perform a language task. Especially in Pam, Sar, and Sinee’s classes, the students were often monitored for form when they spoke. This focus on form may raise their students’ awareness of pronunciation and grammar as well as their fear of being evaluated. As a result, the students’ anxiety may rise when they speak English in class with these pre-service teachers, and thus their motivation in practice speaking in English may decrease.

**Beliefs about Practices after the Practice Teaching**

Most survey items concerning the importance of practice for English learners show consistent findings in the two surveys. After the practice teaching, the pre-service teachers still reported believing that (1) practice was important, (2) learners should pay attention to their pronunciation, (3) guessing is okay when using English, and (4) learners should listen to the radio or watch TV programs in English.

However, all pre-service teachers reported some beliefs differently after the practice teaching. For instance, Preeya’s responses show three positive changes in her beliefs (items 25, 28, and 30). First, she was neutral to the statement “I enjoy practicing English…” but she reported that she strongly agreed with it in the second survey. She also lessened her disagreement with the statement “I feel timid speaking English…” The third change was about the use of cassettes for listening practices. She did not agree in her first survey that it was important to practice listening using cassettes but she changed
to agree in the second survey. Preeya’s practice teaching experience might have increased her confidence in her English speaking as well as in the importance of using authentic listening materials.

The argument about Preeya’s increasing confidence in speaking can be supported by the responses to item 12. Preeya first strongly disagreed that speaking was easier than listening. The disagreement level changed in the second survey; she only disagreed. This change in her responses suggests that Preeya might not think that speaking was as difficult as what she might have thought it was before the practice teaching. Moreover, the interview data reveal that she reported receiving appreciation about her teaching from her students. This perceived success in teaching might have raised her self efficacy in English as well.

In contrast, the change in Preeya’s reported belief concerning the importance of listening materials is problematic. Considering that Preeya reported that watching television programs in English had been one of her regular English activities outside the classroom, her disagreement in the first survey does not seem to represent her underlying belief. Rather, the reported belief in the second survey seems to match with her actual practice and may be more valid. Therefore, the change observed in the surveys may not be significant.

Pam also gained more confidence in speaking English (item 28). Her response to the statement “I feel timid speaking…” changed from strongly agree to neutral. Since Pam had to use English in class, possibly much more than she had ever had to, she might have got used to speaking English with people and her fear in speaking might have lessened.
The other belief that shows a change in Pam’s responses in the second survey addresses the use of cassettes in listening practice activities. Pam’s reported beliefs about the use of cassettes changed from agree to disagree. This change is supported by the interview and observation data. Pam did not use any listening materials in her class and reported in the interviews that she did not have time to conduct listening activities. In fact, she reported believing that it was unnecessary for her to conduct such activities since her students already had a chance to practice their listening in the native speaker teacher’s class once a week. Pam also did not mention any comments from her supervisors in this regard. That she did not conduct any listening activities and was not told to do so might have disconfirmed her belief that English learners should practice their listening by using authentic materials.

Sar showed one change in her response (item 23). In the first survey, Sar was concerned about immediate correction but she changed to disagree after the practice teaching. However, this change is not supported by the observation data. As discussed earlier, Sar had a focus on form and always gave immediate correction to students’ errors in class. There is no evidence to support that her belief in this regard changed during the observations.

Sinee had two reported beliefs changed from the first survey (24 and 25) but she did not appear to have gained confidence in speaking like Pam and Preeya. Responding to the statement “I enjoy speaking with foreigners…,” she changed from neutral to disagree. Sinee might not have experienced success in her use of English during the practice teaching as the other pre-service teachers. Taking into consideration Sinee’s responses to the items concerning her self efficacy (items 6, 11, and 28) and the difficulty
of speaking skills (item 12), it is not surprising that her beliefs about joy in speaking with foreigners show more disagreement. Sinee’s self efficacy in English might not have increased and she might still think that speaking was difficult. Therefore, it is not likely that she would enjoy speaking English with foreigners.

Another change in her reported belief is shown in item 24. She first strongly agreed with the statement “We shouldn’t say anything in English…” but strongly disagreed in the second survey. Taking into consideration Sinee’s low confidence in her own English and the obligation to speak English to a certain extent in the classes, Sinee might have realized that it was all right to speak English with some mistakes after having to speak English in class regardless of her speaking ability. The observation data show that Sinee, though she did not use English as the medium of instruction in her classes all the time, used some English with her students in all the classes I observed. Her English showed both grammar and pronunciation errors at times but they did not appear to bother her audience, the students. With the ample success in passing on information in English to her students, Sinee might have been aware that she did not have to speak with perfect English for communication purposes. Accordingly, her reported belief in the item “We shouldn’t say anything in English…” might have changed.

Summary

In brief, the pre-service teachers reported believing that practice was important for English learners in both the surveys and interviews. Their classroom practices appeared to be affected by this belief. The four pre-service teachers conducted some kind of practice activities in all the classes that I observed. Most activities were conversational
based. Some activities aimed to practice discrete sentence structures while the others focused on practicing communication skills.

Their reported beliefs concerning speaking practice also show effects on their instructional practices. With the belief that English learners should experiment with speaking practice, all the four pre-service teachers conducted practice activities that employed speaking skills. Furthermore, they reported concerns about correct pronunciation and error correction and they attended to the pronunciation and sentence structures of the students’ spoken discourse during the activities.

In addition, the speaking practice beliefs tended to influence the pre-service teachers use of English as a medium of instruction. English was not used as a medium of instruction in any classes in the observations perhaps because first, none of the pre-service teachers refused that they were not timid speaking English; second, most of them did not enjoy speaking English; third, they were all concerned about correctness in speaking; and fourth, none of them believed that speaking was easy.

For beliefs concerning listening, no relationship between this belief and the classroom practice was found. Even though all of the pre-service teachers reported beliefs that listening to authentic materials was a good way to practice listening, none of them conducted listening practice activities using such materials in the observed classes. However, the listening practice belief appeared to influence the pre-service teachers’ use of listening skills on their own. All of them reported listening to English music in their free time.


Conclusion

The findings from the three data sources reveal that there are relationships between nine subsets of beliefs about language learning and instructional practices (see Table 5.2). Out of the nine beliefs, three subsets of beliefs appeared to relate to the pre-service teachers’ focus on form when conducting class activities. These beliefs are beliefs about their own English ability, beliefs about grammar instruction, and beliefs about the difficulty of English skills.

The four pre-service teachers can be divided into two groups based on these beliefs and their teaching approaches regarding to the focus on form or meaning. Pam, Sar, and Sinee formed one group that focused on form. Preeya was in the other group. She was more concerned about the use of English for communication purposes, compared to the others.

Pam, Sar, and Sinee, who reported low self efficacy in their English ability, beliefs that grammar was important in English learning, and beliefs that listening and speaking were more difficult than reading and writing, focused on form when conducting class activities. With their low self efficacy in English, the three teachers appeared to stick with a traditional approach, grammar oriented, which usually requires less work on the teachers’ part in both the preparation and the implementation of the activity in the classroom. Also, they believed that grammar was an important element in English learning. Accordingly, the three pre-service teachers gave extensive grammar instruction and mostly conducted non-contextualized practice activities that aimed to practice a single sentence structure in their classes during the observations. Since most activities in their classes were conversational based requiring perceived difficult skills, listening and
speaking, these pre-service teachers tended to prepare their students with linguistic knowledge extensively before letting the students practice using the language.

Table 5.2

*The reported beliefs about language learning that appeared to affect instructional practices*

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</table>

On the contrary, Preeya tended to be less concerned about giving grammar instruction and attended to form less than the other three pre-service teachers. She also conducted more communication oriented activities. By being confident in her English
ability, she might have felt more comfortable preparing and conducting communication-oriented activities than the others. Also, since she did not think that learners needed to learn grammar extensively in all lessons, Preeya did not spend a lot of time teaching grammar in her classes or monitored her students’ form all the time. Furthermore, with her beliefs that listening and speaking were easier than reading and speaking, she tended to be less concerned about preparing linguistic knowledge for her students before having them practice listening and speaking, compared with Pam, Sar, and Sinee.

The other six beliefs were found to relate to the pre-service teachers’ instructional practices in regard to the selection of class materials and activities, the use of English as a medium of instruction, and the instruction on vocabulary.

First of all, the pre-service teachers’ selection of class materials and activities appeared to be influenced by beliefs about motivations, beliefs about the importance of English skills, beliefs about the importance of practices, beliefs about listening practice, and beliefs about speaking practice. With their beliefs that English was important for Thai people and motivation was an influential factor in English learning, they tried to enhance their students’ motivation for English learning by using attractive and interesting class materials, and implementing fun activities in their classes. Beliefs about the importance of practices, beliefs about listening practice, and beliefs about speaking practice appeared to affect the kind of activities the pre-service teachers did in their classrooms. All the four pre-service teachers reported believing that practice was important and that learners should practice listening and speaking. Accordingly, they conducted a number of practice activities in their classes. Furthermore, most of their practice activities were conversational based activities that required the use of listening
and speaking skills, the skills perceived to be the most important skills that Thai learners should practice.

Secondly, the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs relating to speaking practice such as beliefs about correct pronunciation, beliefs about the joy in speaking English with others, and beliefs about their confidence in speaking English appeared to influence the use of English as a medium of instruction in their classes. The four pre-service teachers tended to concern about speaking English with correct pronunciation and most of them did not report that they enjoyed speaking English. Furthermore, two of them confessed that they were timid when speaking English while the other two were neutral. Consistently, they did not show much attempt in speaking English in their classes as a medium of instruction.

Lastly, the four pre-service teachers’ practices in teaching vocabulary seemed to be influenced by their reported beliefs about the importance of vocabulary. All of them spent some time teaching vocabulary in all their lessons. However, the extent to which the vocabulary was taught by each pre-service teacher varied. Sinee spent a lot of her class time examining the meaning and the use of each new vocabulary in a context. Sar gave an example of how to use each new word and talked about the meaning of the word. Preeya simply introduced the vocabulary and gave the meaning in Thai. Pam spent the least time teaching vocabulary. She taught new vocabulary, most of the time, when they appeared in her practice activities. She did not present a list of new words before starting an activity like the other three pre-service teachers.

In brief, not all beliefs about language learning appeared to influence the four pre-service teachers’ instructional practices. Those that did show effects included beliefs
about motivations, self efficacy in English, beliefs about the importance and the difficulty of English skills, beliefs about the importance of grammar instruction, vocabulary learning, and practice, and beliefs relating to speaking and listening practices. The aspects of instructional practices that were influenced by these beliefs were the selection of class materials and activities, the use of English as a medium of instruction, the instruction on vocabulary, and the teaching approaches. The teaching approaches in regard to the focus on form or meaning, in particular, appeared to be influenced by beliefs about self efficacy, beliefs about the importance of grammar, and beliefs about the difficulty of English skills.

The next chapter, Chapter 6, presents a summary of the findings from the two study phases, the conclusions, the limitations of the study, and the implications of the study for researchers and teacher educators.
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

The present study investigated beliefs about language learning of pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand over the course of their practice teaching. Two distributions of a modified, Thai version of the BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) by Horwitz (1987) were conducted to elicit the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about five broad topics related to language learning, English learning in particular. These topics include: foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations and expectations. The results obtained from this survey phase were used to answer research questions 1 and 2 shown in Chapter 3.

In addition, four pre-service teachers were selected from the participants of the survey group for a qualitative study phase in order to investigate relationships between beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches. Each participant was interviewed twice and observed five or six times over the period of eight weeks. The reported beliefs elicited from the surveys obtained in the survey phase and from the interviews were used to discuss the four pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about language learning and the observation data were used to discuss their teaching approaches and their underlying beliefs that were evident in their classroom practices. The results obtained from this qualitative study phase were used to answer research question 3.
In this chapter, a summary of the findings is presented. Then, the conclusions and the limitations of the study are discussed. Lastly, the pedagogical implications and suggestions for further study are provided.

**Summary of the Findings**

The summary of the findings from the survey and qualitative study phases is presented in the order of the research questions shown in Chapter 3.

*Research Question 1: What beliefs about language learning do pre-service EFL teachers report having before and after practice teaching?*

In the survey phase, the data from the surveys before and after the practice teaching reveal that the Thai pre-service EFL teachers’ reported beliefs about language learning shared the same tendency in most BALLI items.

*Reported Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude*

In general, the majority of the pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand reported believing in the existence of foreign language aptitude and half of them reported beliefs that they themselves possessed the ability. However, they did not seem to think that people needed to have this ability to learn foreign languages since they reported beliefs that everyone could learn to speak a foreign language.

In regard to potentially successful learners, most of them reported beliefs that children were better foreign language learners than adults. However, there was no consensus in their beliefs about women and men in their foreign language ability and about the foreign language ability of Thai people. Furthermore, they did not believe that people who had science or mathematics abilities would not do well in learning foreign languages.
After classroom experience in their practice teaching, the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about foreign language aptitude did not change much. The majority still reported beliefs that some people had the special ability to learn foreign languages. In fact, more pre-service teachers reported having such ability themselves. However, they still believed that everyone had some potential to learn foreign languages.

Reported Beliefs about the Difficulty of English Learning

Regarding the relative difficulty of language learning, the majority of the Thai pre-service teachers reported believing that some languages were easier than others. Most of them viewed English, the target language they were pursuing, as being a language of medium difficulty they would be able to do well learning. Also, they did not think that Thai people would have any difficulty learning English because of the different alphabet systems used in Thai and English. They reported beliefs that anyone could master English within five years. Nevertheless, a third of them believed that no one could learn to speak English if he or she only spent one hour a day studying.

For the difficulty of English language skills, a majority reported believing that speaking was easier than listening. When comparing the difficulty of reading and writing skills with listening and speaking skills, they reported that reading alone was easier than listening and speaking, but not writing.

The pre-service teachers’ experience during the practice teaching did not seem to affect their reported beliefs about the difficulty of English learning. Their perceived difficulty of English and time required to master it remained the same. Also, their perception about the difficulty of English skills did not change.
Reported Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning

Concerning the nature of language learning, English learning in particular, the majority of the Thai pre-service teachers reported believing that it was best to learn English in an English-speaking country. They also believed that it was important to learn grammar rules, vocabulary words, and cultural knowledge in English classes. However, they did not think that learning how to translate from Thai was important for English learners. There was no strong consensus in their reported beliefs about the nature of English learning in comparison to other subjects and about the role of memorization.

After their practice teaching, the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the nature of language learning remained consistent. Their beliefs about the role of translation seemed to change, however; fewer pre-service teachers reported their disagreement while the percentage of the pre-service teachers who agreed with it did not change much.

Reported Beliefs about Learning and Communication Strategies

The majority of the Thai pre-service teachers reported beliefs that may facilitate the practice of English. They reported not believing that learners should hold their speaking practice until they could say things correctly. In fact, most of them reported that they themselves were not timid speaking English with others and that they enjoyed speaking English with foreigners. They also encouraged the use of compensation strategies like guessing. In addition, they supported the practice of English by listening to cassette tapes, radio programs, and television programs in English. Nevertheless, the majority reported their concerns about correct pronunciation. Their reported beliefs about learners’ errors did not show a strong consensus.
The pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about learning and communication strategies seemed to be influenced by their experience during the practice teaching, particularly in their beliefs relating to speaking. Their beliefs about the accuracy in pronunciation changed significantly: fewer pre-service teachers endorsed the concept of speaking English with correct pronunciation. Also, though not statistically significant, some pre-service teachers seemed to have gained more confidence in speaking English from their practice teaching experience. Fewer reported that they were timid speaking English with others whereas more reported that they enjoyed speaking English with foreigners. Furthermore, their reported beliefs about the use of cassette tapes in listening practices showed a slight change. Almost ten percent of the participants changed to not support the use of cassette tapes for listening practice.

*Reported Beliefs about Motivations and Expectations*

In the last category, the majority of the Thai pre-service teachers reported believing in the value of English learning for both instrumental and integrative reasons. They reported believing that English was a tool for communication, for job opportunities, for educational opportunities, and for information access. They also believed that English could provide them opportunities to learn more about English speakers and to make friends with people from other countries. Most of them agreed that English learning was important for Thai people, though the percentage of the agreement was not as high with this statement as with the others. However, all of them reported that they wanted to speak English well.

After the practice teaching, the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs remained consistent in most items in this category but some items showed changes. The reported beliefs about the value of English for higher education changed significantly after the pre-
service teachers had their practice teaching. Fewer people endorsed the notion that English was important for higher education. The pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the importance of English for Thai people also changed slightly. More people agreed that English was important. Nevertheless, the integrative value of English learning seemed to receive less support. The percentage of the agreement to the items concerning the motivations to learn more about English speakers and to have English-speaking friends declined an insignificant amount.

**Research Question 2: Are there any significant differences between the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs before and after practice teaching?**

As discussed above, the data from the two surveys reveal that the reported beliefs about language learning of the pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand were mostly consistent in the surveys before and after their practice teaching, especially in the main beliefs in each category of the BALLI. Only three beliefs showed significant changes in the survey after the practice teaching at the 0.05 level. These beliefs are beliefs about the pre-service teachers’ own possession of foreign language aptitude, beliefs about the importance of correct pronunciation, and beliefs about the value of English in higher education programs. More people reported believing that they themselves had foreign language aptitude whereas fewer people believed that correctness was very important in speaking and that English was required in higher education programs.

**Research Question 3: Are there any relationships between reported beliefs about language learning and teaching approaches?**

In the qualitative study phase, beliefs about language learning and teaching
approaches of four pre-service EFL teachers who were selected from the surveyed participants were elicited using surveys, interviews, and observations. The data from this second study phase reveal that there are relationships between three reported beliefs about language learning and their teaching approaches in regard to focusing on form and meaning. The beliefs that appeared to influence the extent to which the pre-service teachers focused on form or meaning are self efficacy or beliefs about one’s own English ability, beliefs about the importance of grammar, and beliefs about the difficulty of English skills. The other beliefs did not appear to affect the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches.

The instructional practices of the pre-service teachers during the observations exhibit two teaching approaches to English learning: one focuses on form and the other focuses on meaning. Three pre-service teachers—Pam, Sar, and Sinee—were concerned about form when conducting class activities. Preeya, on the other hand, was less focused on form; she tended to focus on the students’ use of English for communication purposes rather than monitored the correctness of their language production. Consistently, the four pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs in the three aspects mentioned above showed the same pattern. Pam, Sar, and Sinee shared the same beliefs in these three issues whereas Preeya held different beliefs.

First of all, in regard to their self efficacy in English, only Preeya reported having confidence in her English ability. On the contrary, the other three pre-service teachers consistently reported in the interviews their lack of confidence. Furthermore, their reported self efficacy in each language skill revealed the same division. Pam, Sar, and Sinee reported their confidence in reading and writing skills whereas Preeya thought she did well in speaking and listening.
Secondly, Preeya reported different beliefs about the importance of grammar instruction from Pam, Sar, and Sinee. She was the only one who reported that grammar was not very important while the others emphasized the importance of grammar to a high extent.

Lastly, the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the relative difficulty of English skills were further evidence of the division within the group of the four pre-service teachers. The three pre-service teachers reported believing that reading and writing skills were easier than listening and speaking skills but Preeya thought the opposite.

The variations found in the reported beliefs about language learning discussed above between the two groups of the four pre-service teachers seem to have a relationship to the different approaches they employed in their classrooms. The three pre-service teachers—Pam, Sar, and Sinee—were more concerned about form in their classes than Preeya. They gave more explicit instruction on grammar and vocabulary. They were more concerned about students’ errors and gave more immediate correction. In addition, they used more grammar-oriented practice activities while Preeya used more communication-oriented activities.

Their beliefs about the difficulty of and their self efficacy in listening and speaking skills and about the role of grammar in English learning tended to influence the extent to which the four pre-service teachers provided linguistic knowledge for their students. Pam, Sar, and Sinee showed more attempts to prepare their students for the class activities. They usually gave explicit grammar instruction and provided a list of vocabulary before they started any practice activities. Preeya, on the other hand, seemed to be less concerned about preparing her students with linguistic knowledge before she conducted her activities.

Since most activities were listening-speaking practice activities, the three pre-service teachers who reported believing that the two skills were the difficult skills that they were not
confident in using might have been worried that their students would encounter difficulty in practicing those skills. Therefore, they might want to arm their students with the “necessary” knowledge—grammar—before the students had to work on the “difficult” tasks. Also, with their beliefs that learning grammar rules was important for English learners, the three pre-service teachers might have wanted to assure that their learners received enough instruction about English grammar, practiced using English for accuracy, and used English correctly.

In contrast, Preeya, who reported believing that she was skillful in listening and speaking and that they were not very difficult, might have had less worry about linguistic knowledge preparation before listening-speaking activities than the other pre-service teachers. As a result, she might have not thought that it was necessary to teach grammar explicitly in her classes. Furthermore, her disbelief in the importance of grammar might have influenced her response to students’ errors. She was less concerned about the correctness of both pronunciation and grammar in her students’ language production and did not immediately correct their errors.

Conclusions

The results from the survey phase and the qualitative study phase reveal important findings as follows:

Pre-service EFL Teachers in Thailand Possessed Similar Beliefs to Those of EFL Learners

The findings from the survey phase show that the pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand reported possessing some beliefs about language learning that are common among EFL learners in previous studies and some that are different. Compared with other groups of EFL learners and teachers, the pre-service teachers in the present study tended to share similar beliefs with EFL learners at their same education level, like those in Peacock (1999)
and Yang (1999), rather than with in-service EFL teachers in Peacock (2001). This finding seems to support Peacock (2001) in that pre-service EFL teachers may hold different beliefs about language learning from in-service EFL teachers, which might be a result of the different amount of their teaching experiences as suggested by Horwitz (1985) and Kern (1995).

Beliefs about Language Learning Were Influenced by Learning Experience as Learners

The findings from the qualitative study phase reveal that some of the four pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about language learning might have been influenced by their learning experience as EFL learners. This finding may lend support to the arguments of Horwitz (1987), Holec (1987), and Puchta (1999) in that learners develop their beliefs about language learning from their experience as language learners. Nevertheless, not all beliefs appeared to be influenced by the pre-service teachers’ learning experience as language learners. Those that seemed to relate to the pre-service teachers’ learning experiences are beliefs about required ability for language learning and a belief about the importance of grammar.

First of all, the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about required ability for language learning seemed to relate to their experiences as language learners. The survey and interview data reveal that the four pre-service teachers, although they believed that some people might have a special ability to learn a foreign language, believed that everyone had some potential to be successful language learners. All of them reported learners’ hard work and efforts as the cause of success in language learning, not a special ability. The pre-service teachers themselves were not successful English learners from the beginning. In fact, all of them reported having to struggle hard in their English classes before they became good at
English. Their strategies in overcoming their problems in learning English varied but they all reported spending time and making efforts in the learning. The experiences that the pre-service teachers had gained from their own learning might have contributed to the ideas that learners had to work hard to be successful in English learning, not dependent on an external power such as foreign language aptitude.

In the aspect of the importance of grammar, the four pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the role of grammar in English learning reflected what kind of English instruction the pre-service teachers received in their school years. Preeya reported having been in different kinds of classrooms from Pam, Sar, and Sinee. Accordingly, she reported having a different belief about the importance of grammar. Pam, Sar, and Sinee, who taught extensive grammar lessons during the observations, reported learning English in grammar-based classes. On the other hand, Preeya, who was less focused on form and gave less extensive grammar lessons, reported having various kinds of classes. Some of the classes she had in her own schooling emphasized the learning of grammar while others emphasized the practice of English skills. The different learning experiences the four pre-service teachers seemed to influence their ideas about the extent to which grammar should be emphasized in English classes.

Beliefs Relating to the Use of English Were Influenced by Practice Teaching Experience

The findings from the survey phase show that most beliefs in the BALLI were not influenced by the experiences the pre-service teachers gained during their practice teaching. Only three beliefs showed significant changes in the post practice teaching survey. These beliefs are beliefs about their own possession of foreign language aptitude, beliefs about the importance of correct pronunciation in speaking, and beliefs about the role of English in
higher education programs. The changes seem to be resulted from the pre-service teachers’ use of English during the practice teaching. This finding may support Richard and Lockhart (1996), Horwitz (1985), and Kern (1995), which suggest that pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning can be adjusted in teacher education programs while the pre-service teachers gain experience in teaching during their practice teaching.

To begin with, after using and teaching English in their classes, a significant number of pre-service teachers seemed to gain more confidence that they themselves possessed foreign language aptitude. A plausible explanation is that these pre-service teachers might have been successful in using English during their practice teaching and this success might have refined their beliefs about their own possession of foreign language aptitude.

Secondly, fewer pre-service teachers reported concerns about correct pronunciation in speaking after the practice teaching. This change may be a result of their own use of English in their classes during the practice teaching. Considering that the pre-service teachers had to speak English in their classrooms to a certain extent even though some of them might not have perfect pronunciation skills, these pre-service teachers might have realized that imperfect pronunciation did not obstruct their use of English for communication. In addition, correct pronunciation might not be a major concern of other teachers at the school or of their supervisors. For instance, the pre-service teachers might not have been told to improve their pronunciation by these people, or the pre-service teachers had experienced that not all in-service teachers could speak English with correct pronunciation all the time. Accordingly, the pre-service teachers’ beliefs about speaking with correct pronunciation might have been disproved.
Lastly, that fewer pre-service teachers agreed that English was important for higher education may relate to the low use of English in classrooms. They might have experienced that English was not used much in both their own classes and in other teachers’; therefore they might have adjusted their views about the association of English and education.

The other beliefs that did not show significant changes in the surveys may be more resistant to change or may not relate to teaching. Possibly, the pre-service teachers who are experienced EFL learners may have developed a fully developed set of beliefs about general language issues such as the existence of foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of English learning, the nature of language learning, and the value of English learning. These beliefs may not be easy to alter over the course of the practice teaching. Considering that these pre-service teachers had had over ten years of learning English, the three-month practice teaching may not be long enough to make any significant change in their beliefs about language learning. As discussed in Peacock (2001), Kern (1995), and Wenden (1998), beliefs of these advanced language learners may not be flexible. Another possibility is that these beliefs may not relate to teaching, and thus may not be influenced by the experiences the pre-service teachers received during their practice teaching.

*Beliefs about the Difficulty of English Skills and Self-efficacy Influenced the Use of English outside the Classroom*

The findings from the qualitative study phase reveal that the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the difficulty of English skills and their self-efficacy in English seemed to influence their use of English on their own. The pre-service teachers tended to exercise their English using the skills that they reported believing to be easy and/or that they were confident in using.
According to Horwitz (1989), Truitt (1995), and Kunt (1997), the pre-service teachers might not want to perform the language skill(s) that they perceive as difficult or that they believe they had not mastered because they may encounter uncomfortable feelings from anxiety when exercising such skill(s). Generally, people do not choose to do something that would create stress or anxiety for them in their leisure time. The choices of English activities outside the classroom that the pre-service teachers made may be evidence of this argument.

*Instructional Practices Were Influenced by Beliefs about Language Learning*

The findings from the qualitative study phase reveal that nine beliefs about language learning showed their effects on the pre-service teachers’ instructional practices in the aspects of the selection of class materials and activities, the use of English as a medium of instruction, the instruction on vocabulary, and the focus on form or meaning. These beliefs are beliefs about motivations, self efficacy in English, beliefs about the importance of English skills, beliefs about the difficulty of English skills, beliefs about the importance of grammar instruction, beliefs about vocabulary learning, beliefs about practice, beliefs about speaking practice, and beliefs about listening practice.

To begin with, the pre-service teachers’ selection of class materials and activities reflected their beliefs about motivations and beliefs about practices. The pre-service teachers reported beliefs that English was important for Thai people and were aware that motivation was influential. Accordingly, they showed their attempts to enhance their students’ motivation for English learning by designing interesting and fun activities, using attractive class materials, and giving incentives to students. With their beliefs that practice was important and that listening and speaking were the important skills that Thai learners should learn, they conducted a number of practice activities that employed the two skills.
Secondly, the pre-service teachers’ low use of English in the classrooms seemed to have resulted from their beliefs relating to speaking practices. All four pre-service teachers reported their concerns about speaking with correct pronunciation but none of them thought that speaking was easy or that they were good at. Furthermore, most of them did not think that they enjoyed speaking English. Furthermore, some of them even stated that they felt timid when conversing in English with other people. Taking all these reported beliefs into consideration, it is not likely that the pre-service teachers would enjoy using English as a medium of instruction in their classes.

Thirdly, all four pre-service teachers emphasized the learning of vocabulary to a certain extent. Their conduct of vocabulary instruction appeared to be affected by their beliefs about the importance of vocabulary in English learning. All pre-service teachers reported believing that vocabulary was important, and all of them always included vocabulary teaching as a part of their lesson plans.

Lastly, the pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches in regard to focusing on form or meaning seemed to be influenced by their self efficacy in English, their beliefs about grammar, and their beliefs about the difficulty of English skills. It was found that the pre-service teacher who reported high self efficacy in English, beliefs that grammar was not very important, and that listening and speaking were easier than reading and writing conducted more communication oriented practice activities, taught grammar less extensively in her classes, and monitored the students’ language production less, compared to the pre-service teachers who believed the opposite.
Beliefs May Not Show Their Effects When Conflicting with Others

Some beliefs about language learning that have been discussed in previous studies as being potentially influential to learners’ language learning or teachers’ instructional practices were found to be less influential in the present study. These beliefs include beliefs about the existence of foreign language aptitude, beliefs about the difficulty of English, beliefs about speaking practice, and beliefs about listening practice. These beliefs were found to be in conflict with other beliefs or classroom constraints, and thus their effects might have been lessened. In fact, no effects were shown in the observations.

First of all, the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the existence of foreign language aptitude did not seem to have negative effects on either their own learning or on that of their students. The interview data reveal that the four pre-service teachers, even though they had a rough time in learning English, still reported high motivation for English learning and made an effort in their learning. They did not report giving up on English or being discouraged. In the observations, their interaction and treatment with their students did not seem to be influenced by their beliefs about foreign language aptitude. They did not expect or treat any groups of students differently from others. For instance, their beliefs about men’s and women’s different potential in learning foreign languages did not seem to affect their expectations of or their interaction with the male and female students in their classes as concerned in Horwitz (1985) and Puchta (1999).

That the beliefs about foreign language aptitude did not seem to negatively influence either the four pre-service teachers’ own language learning or their instructional practices may be attributed to their beliefs that foreign language aptitude is not a cause of success in English learning, but that students’ hard work and attempts are. The findings from the
interviews suggest that the four pre-service teachers may perceive that learners’ effort and hard work can compensate the lack of foreign language aptitude. Therefore, they did not give up when they had difficulty learning English. Rather, they reported having made more effort in their learning to overcome their problems. Consistently, in their classes, the four pre-service teachers promoted students’ participation in the class activities perhaps because they believed that learners had to work hard to be successful in the learning.

Secondly, the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs about the difficulty of English learning did not seem to affect the pre-service teachers’ attempts in English learning, as discussed in previous studies. Even though the four pre-service teachers perceived that English was not an easy language, they continued their pursuit in learning English for more than ten years and chose to major in English. They did not even mention being discouraged while having to struggle in their English classes.

A plausible interpretation is that the influence of beliefs about the difficulty of English learning might have been overridden by other beliefs such as beliefs about the value of English for Thai people. Considering the pre-service teachers’ reported high motivations for English learning, the pre-service teachers, though they might have to deal with anxiety caused by beliefs about English difficulty as found in Horwitz (1989), Truitt (1995), and Kunt (1997) when learning English, might still want to continue learning English. This finding suggests that beliefs about the difficulty of language learning may not be detrimental as concerned in previous studies, after all, if learners have high motivation for language learning and see the value of the target language.

Thirdly, the pre-service teachers’ reported beliefs relating to speaking practice did not seem to promote the pre-service teachers’ use of speaking skills either on their own or in
their classes. Though the four pre-service teachers reported believing that speaking practice was important and that English learners should be willing to take risks and try speaking English, they did not report exercising their speaking skills on their own and did not use English as the medium of instruction in their classes.

Taking into considerations other beliefs relating to speaking, the four pre-service teachers reported a number of beliefs that might have inhibited their English speaking skills. First of all, the findings from the surveys and interviews consistently reveal that none of the pre-service teachers reported believing that speaking was easy and that they were confident in their speaking. Furthermore, all of them believed that correct pronunciation was important. Most of them did not report joy in speaking English with foreigners. Some of them even reported that they felt timid speaking English. According to the conflicting beliefs that the pre-service teachers reported having, it is not likely that they would seek the opportunity to exercise their English speaking skills.

Lastly, beliefs about listening practice did not seem to promote the pre-service teachers’ use of listening materials in their classes perhaps because of some constraints they reported encountering. All pre-service teachers reported believing that listening practice was important and that English learners should practice their listening using various kinds of materials. They also mentioned problems about voice quality when playing tape cassettes since their classrooms were open air and were quite noisy. Class discipline was another concern. Some pre-service teachers said that the students were not attentive if listening activities were done. This chaos was reported to be the reason why they were not interested in conducting listening activities.
Limitations of the Study

The present study contains a few limitations. First of all, the number of the participants in the survey phase is relatively small for the findings to be generalized to the whole population of the pre-service EFL teachers in Thailand. Only the pre-service teachers from two universities who had their practice teaching in one semester participated in this study. Secondly, in the qualitative study phase, the observations were conducted only in the middle of the four pre-service teachers’ practice teaching. I did not start observing them from the first class of their teaching nor continue to the end. Therefore, I could not discuss the changes of beliefs of the four pre-service teachers using the observation data, which would have yielded more evidence. Last, but not least, some items in the BALLI seem to be problematic for the purposes of the present study because they raised questions about the validity and/or applicability of the results. These items address the issues of cultural knowledge, language immersion, the importance of translation, and the time required to study English. Thus, it was difficult to draw any conclusion from the results of these items.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the present study suggest the following.

First, considering the possible relation of the nine beliefs about language learning and instructional practices revealed in the qualitative study phase, teacher education educators should try to enhance pre-service teachers’ understanding of their own beliefs about language learning in order to promote the instructional practices—the selection of class activities and materials as well as the teaching approaches—that match with the goals or the curriculum of the schools.
Second, the beliefs that were found to influence the four pre-service teachers’ teaching approaches in regard to focusing on form such as beliefs about the importance of grammar, beliefs about the difficulty of language skills, and self efficacy in English should be addressed while pre-service teachers are in teacher education programs. Teacher educators should raise awareness of pre-service teachers about their preconceived ideas in these aspects and help refine beliefs that may not accommodate communicative approach. According to Horwitz (1987) and Peacock (2001), beliefs about language learning may be susceptible to teacher intervention. Therefore, an instruction package, like the one used in Peacock, that includes some critical reading activities and discussion may be useful. As suggested by Dole and Senatra (1994), reading activities that require critical thinking may help refine beliefs.

Third, pre-service teachers’ self efficacy in English skills should be enhanced while they are in teacher education programs. Considering the effects of self efficacy on their use of English in and outside classrooms found in the qualitative study phase, courses that improve pre-service teachers’ English skills should be offered. Furthermore, the instructors should help enhance the pre-service teachers’ understanding about their own ability in each language skill.

Suggestions for Further Study

The findings from the present study suggest the following.

First, taking into consideration the complexity of beliefs about language learning, the combination of multiple sources of data should be employed in studies on beliefs. The present study showed that some beliefs were not easy to elicit using surveys alone. The interview and observation data have provided complementary and necessary information for the discussion of the survey findings to a high extent. For instance, the triangulation of the
data from the three sources in the qualitative study phase revealed that some BALLI items might not be valid and/or applicable for the purpose of the present study. Furthermore, the interview data yielded some important information about the pre-service teachers that could not be obtained using the observations or was not addressed in the BALLI such as the information about their learning experience as language learners or their use of English outside classrooms.

Second, in order to track changes in beliefs during practice teaching, the data collection using observations should cover the same length of time as the surveys. In the present study, the observations were conducted only over the course of eight weeks while the practice teaching itself was eighteen week long. Therefore, there was a lack of observation data to be used in discussing the results revealed from the surveys about the change in beliefs of the four pre-service teachers. More information could have been obtained if I had observed the four pre-service teachers from the beginning to the end of their practice teaching.

Third, researchers who are interested using the BALLI should make a revision of some items. A number of BALLI items are decontextualized and can be difficult to draw conclusions from. For example, the items concerning the importance of cultural knowledge, grammar, vocabulary, and translation do not specify the context of learning clearly. The respondents from different learning contexts, EFL and ESL for instance, may interpret these items based on different contexts, and thus confound the results.
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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire Items from Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory:

ESL student version (Horwitz, 1987)

All the items in the survey uses rating scales, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5), except items 4 and 15. There are five categories of beliefs about language learning that the inventory was designed to examine.

I. Foreign language aptitude

1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.

2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.

6. People from my country are good at learning foreign languages.

10. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.

11. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.

16. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.

19. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.

30. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.

33. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

II. The difficulty of language learning

3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.

4. English is:

   a) a very difficult language

   b) a difficult language

   c) a language of medium difficulty
d) an easy language

e) a very easy language

5. I believe that I will lean to speak English very well.

15. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take them to speak the language very well.

   a) less than a year
   
   b) 1-2 years
   
   c) 3-5 years
   
   d) 5-10 years
   
   e) you can’t learn a language in 1 hour a day

25. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language

34. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.

III. The nature of language learning

8. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.

12. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.

17. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.

23. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar.

27. Learning a foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects.

28. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language.

IV. Learning and communication strategies

7. It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.

9. You shouldn’t say anything in English until you can say it correctly.
13. I enjoy practicing English with the Americans I meet.

14. It’s O.K. to guess if you don’t know a word in English.

18. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.

21. I feel timid speaking English with other people.

22. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.

26. It is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.

**V. Motivations**

20. People in my country feel that it is important to speak English.

24. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know Americans better.

29. If I learn English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.

31. I want to learn to speak English well.

32. I would like to have American friends.
APPENDIX B
The Modified Version of BALLI (First Version)

แบบสอบถามความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับความเข้าใจในการเรียนรู้ภาษา

ตอนที่ 1 กรุณาถือข้อความไปแล้วข้อเข่าใส่เครื่องหมาย √ ในข้อที่ตรงกับความเห็นมากที่สุด

กรุณาระบุความคิดเห็นในระดับ 1 (ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง) ถึงระดับ 5 (เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง)

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<td>2. ถนนบางนมีความสามารถพิเศษในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศเช่น ภาษالأيبراط</td>
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<td>3. ฟู่ไทสามารถเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศได้ดี</td>
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<td>14. การที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างถูกต้องและเหมาะสม เราควรจะต้องเรียนรู้</td>
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<td>19. การแปลเป็นภาษาไทยเป็นเรื่องที่สำคัญในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
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<td>21. เราไม่ควรพูดภาษาอังกฤษจนกว่าเราจะสามารถพูดให้อย่างถูกต้องจริง ๆ</td>
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<td>22. อ่านข้อกิจพัฒนาภาษาอังกฤษกับรำคำต่างประเทศที่มีโอกาสให้พบ</td>
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<td>23. อ่านไม่รู้กิจพัฒนาภาษาอังกฤษ ตั้งแต่ต้นที่มันคือภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
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<td>25. นั่นคือถ้าอยากที่จะลงภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
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<td>26. ถ้าปล่อยให้คนที่พัฒนาเรียนภาษาอังกฤษใช้ภาษาแบบงัด ๆ จะเป็นการยากที่</td>
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<td>27. การศึกษาจากทรัพยากรเป็นเรื่องสำคัญในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
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<td>29. ตั้งความเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเฉพาะจะช่วยให้คนสามารถเขาใจคนที่ใช้ภาษา</td>
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<td>30. ท่านจะมีโอกาสได้ทำงานที่มีลูกหนังมีความสามารถในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี</td>
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<td>31. ท่านอยากพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี</td>
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<td>32. ท่านอยากมีเพื่อนเป็นชาวต่างประเทศ</td>
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<td>33. การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นเรื่องยากสำหรับคนไทยเพราะภาษาอังกฤษกับภาษาไทยใช้ด้วยกัน</td>
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<td>34. การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษต้องใช้ความจงจำ</td>
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<td>35. คนที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษควรศึกษาด้านการสร้างโอกาสทางการศึกษาหรือฝึก</td>
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<td>36. ท่านอยากเรียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีเพราะจะช่วยให้ท่านสามารถรับรู้ข้อมูลจากฟ้าสาร</td>
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<td>38. ท่านควรเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อที่ท่านจะสามารถมีการสื่อสารกับคนจากชาติอื่น ๆ ได้เพราะภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาสากล</td>
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ตอนที่ 2 ถูกต้องหรือไม่ ท้าทายความที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นมากที่สุด

1. ถ้าคิดว่าภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาที่ _________
    ______ ยากมาก    ______ ยาก    ______ ไม่ยากแต่ก็ไม่ง่าย    ______ ง่าย    ______ ง่ายมาก

2. ถ้าใครจะเริ่มเรียนภาษาอังกฤษโดยใช้ในในการเรียนทุกวัน วันละ 1 ชั่วโมง พวกเขาจะต้องใช้เวลา
    เท่าไรจึงจะสามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี
    ______ ไม่ถึง 1 ปี
    ______ 1 - 2 ปี
    ______ 3 - 5 ปี
    ______ 5 - 10 ปี
    ______ ไม่มีใครจะสามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีถ้าได้เรียนเพียงแค่วันละ 1 ชั่วโมง
APPENDIX C

The Modified Version of BALLI (Final Version)

แบบสำรวจความเชื่อมั่นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ

คู่มือนี้


c. ข้อความแต่ละข้อต่อไปนี้เป็นเรื่องเกี่ยวกับความเชื่อมั่นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษของท่าน ขอให้ท่านอ่าน
ข้อความแต่ละข้อ แล้วพิจารณาว่าท่านเห็นด้วยกับข้อความนั้นในระดับใด โดยใส่เครื่องหมาย√ ลงในช่อง
(1, 2, 3, 4, หรือ 5) หลังข้อความ

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ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง |

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<td>1. เทคนิคเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศได้ดีกว่าผู้ใหญ่</td>
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<td>2. บทบาทของความสามารถพิเศษในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ เช่น ภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
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<td>3. เทคนิคเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศได้ดี</td>
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<td>4. ท่านรู้ภาษาต่างประเทศแล้วหน้างานจะสามารถรีบเรียนภาษาอื่นได้ทันใดไม่ยากนัก</td>
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</tr>
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<td>5. ท่านรู้เทคนิคศาสตร์หรือวิทยาศาสตร์จะเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศได้โดยไม่ต้องการ</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ท่านมีความสามารถพิเศษในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. ผู้ใหญ่เรียนภาษาต่างประเทศได้ดีกว่าผู้ชาย</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ท่านที่จบได้หลายภาษาเป็นคนเวลา</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. ท่านรู้ความสามารถที่จะพูดภาษาต่างประเทศได้</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. ภาษาบางภาษีที่จะเรียนรู้มากกว่าภาษาอื่น ๆ</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. ท่านเชื่อว่าท่านจะสามารถเรียนที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ข้อความ</td>
<td>ระดับความคิดเห็นที่แบ่งเป็น 5 ระดับ มีความหมายดังนี้</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. การพูดภาษาอังกฤษ ง่ายกว่าการทักความจ้างให้ในการพิมภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ การอ่านง่ายกว่าการพูดและการฟัง</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ การเขียนง่ายกว่าการพูดและการฟัง</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นเรื่องยากสำหรับคนไทยเพราะภาษาอังกฤษกับ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ภาษาไทยใช้ตัวอักษรต่างกัน</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. การที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างถูกต้องและความมั่นใจเราควรจะต้องเรียนรู้</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ขนบธรรมเนียม วัฒนธรรม และวิวัฒนาการเป็นอยู่ของคนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>เป็นภาษาแม่ เช่น คนอังกฤษ คนอเมริกัน หรือ คนออสเตรเลีย</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. การจะเรียนภาษาอังกฤษให้ได้ผลควรไปเรียนในประเทศที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>เป็นภาษาแม่ เช่น ไปเรียนในประเทศอังกฤษ อบรมการ หรือ ออสเตรเลีย</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. การเรียนคั้ฟฟ์ที่เป็นเรื่องที่สำคัญในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. การเรียนหลักวิทยาการเป็นเรื่องที่สำคัญในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ โดยใช้การแปลเป็นภาษาไทยเป็นเรื่องที่สำคัญ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. การเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษแตกต่างจากการเรียนวิชาอื่น ๆ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษต้องใช้ความจิตมาก</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษควรออกเสียงให้ถูกต้อง</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. เราไม่ควรพูดภาษาอังกฤษจนกว่าเราจะสามารถพูดให้อย่างถูกต้องจริงๆ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. ตั้งชื่อเพื่อพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับชาวต่างประเทศที่ผู้มีโอกาสได้พบ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ข้อความ</td>
<td>ระดับความคิดเห็น</td>
</tr>
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<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. การสะดวกต่ำค่าพัฒนาการยังคงที่เราไม่รู้ เป็นเรื่องที่สามารถทำได้</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เราควรจะต้องฝึกฝนบ่อย ๆ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. มันเร็วกับเรื่องการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษต่อมหาค่อนข้างด้วย ๆ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. ถ้าปล่อยให้นิสิตเรียนเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ ใช้ภาษาแบบคิด ๆ จะเป็นการยากที่จะแก้ไขที่ใช้ภาษาให้ถูกต้องในภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. การศึกษาจากบทกวีเป็นเรื่องสำคัญในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. กรณีเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ ควรศึกษาด้วยการดูรายการโทรทัศน์ หรือฟังรายการวิทยุที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษบ่อย ๆ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. คนไทยให้ความสำคัญกับการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษมาก</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. ตั้งค่าเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเพราะจะช่วยให้ฉันสามารถเข้าใจคนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ (เช่น คนอังกฤษ คนอเมริกัน หรือคนอังกฤษ) ได้ชัดเจน</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. ถ้าต้นมีความสามารถในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี ต้นจะมีโอกาสได้งานที่ดี</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. ต้นถ้าพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. ต้นถ้าพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. ต้นต้องการที่จะเรียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีเพราะจะช่วยให้ฉันสามารถรับรู้ข้อมูลข่าวสารได้ง่ายขึ้น</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ข้อความ</td>
<td>ระดับความคิดเห็น</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. ภาษาอังกฤษมีความสำคัญกับการเรียนในระดับสูงโดยเฉพาะในการเรียน próสูงหรือปริญญาเอก</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษจะช่วยให้เราสามารถคิดต้องภูมิปัญญาต่อข้ออื่นๆได้</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>เพราะภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาหลัก</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ตอบที่ 2 กรุณาให้คริสต์มา วันในช่วงเส้นเหลืองก้นข้อความที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด

1. นักศึกษาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาที่________
   [ ] ภาษาไทย [ ] ภาษาอังกฤษ [ ] ไม่สะสมแต่ไม่ต้อง [ ] สะสม [ ] ไม่สะสม

2. ถ้าใครจะเรียนภาษาอังกฤษโดยใช้วิชาในการเรียนทุกวัน วันละ 1 ชั่วโมง เราจะต้องใช้สถานที่อะไร
   ซึ่งจะสามารถพุทธษาภาษาอังกฤษได้คือ
   [ ] ไม่ถึง 1 ปี
   [ ] 1 - 2 ปี
   [ ] 3 - 5 ปี
   [ ] 5 - 10 ปี
   [ ] ไม่มีใครสามารถพุทธษาภาษาอังกฤษได้คิด ถ้าได้เรียนเพียงคืนละ 1 ชั่วโมง
ขออภุชที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการสอบถามข้อมูล ดูด้วยนี้ขอท่านความรู้จักกับคุณกล่อกัน

กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย √ ลงในช่องถ้าต้องมีถ้ามีข้อความที่ต้องการแจ้งให้สัมบูรณ์

ชื่อ _____________________________________ นามสกุล ________________________________

อายุ ____ ปี

เพศ □ ชาย □ หญิง

ขณะนี้ศึกษาอยู่ชั้นปีที่ ____ คณะ __________________________

มหาวิทยาลัย __________________________

วิชาเอก/โท (นอกเหนือจากภาษาอังกฤษ) ________________________________

เป็นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษด้วยหรือไม่

□ ใช่ □ ไม่ มีข้อนี้ที่ __________

□ มัธยมศึกษาปีที่ ____ □ อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ ____________________________

ประสบการณ์ในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

□ ไม่เคยสอน □ สอนพิเศษเป็นรายบุคคล

□ สอนในโรงเรียนสอนพิเศษ □ สอนพิเศษทั้งแบบรายบุคคลและในโรงเรียนสอนพิเศษ

□ อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ __________________________

ในครอบครัวมีคนประสบอาชีพครู

□ ไม่มี □ แม่ และ/หรือ พ่อ

□ ญาติพี่อา๋ของผู้ด้วยกัน □ ญาติที่ไม่ได้อาศัยอยู่ด้วยกัน

□ อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ __________________________

หากท่านมีความคิดเห็นหรือข้อเสนอแนะเกี่ยวกับแบบสอบถามชูนี้

โปรดแสดงความคิดเห็นของท่านในที่ไว้ว่างด้านล่างนี้ ขอบคุณค่ะ
APPENDIX D

English Translation of the Modified Version of BALLI (Final Version)

Part I

**Direction:** The statements below are beliefs that some people have about learning a foreign language, English in particular. After reading each statement, mark “✓” under the column (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which indicates your opinion about the statement. The number on the top of each column means the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Opinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages such as English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statements</td>
<td>Opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. People who speak more than one language are intelligent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Some languages are easier to learn than others.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I believe that I will learn to speak English well.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. In learning English, it is easier to speak than to understand what</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people say.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. In learning English, reading is easier than speaking and listening.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. In learning English, writing is easier than speaking and listening.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. It is difficult for Thai people to learn English because of the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difference in the alphabet system.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. It is necessary to know the customs, the cultures, and the ways</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>of life of English-speaking people (such as the British, Americans,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or Australians) in order to speak English correctly and appropriately</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a particular context.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country such as</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England, the United States, or Australia.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Statements</td>
<td>Opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Learning vocabulary words is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19. Learning the grammar is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Learning how to translate from Thai is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Learning English is different from learning other academic subjects.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Learning English involves a lot of memorization.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. It is important to speak English with a correct pronunciation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. We shouldn’t say anything in English until we can say it correctly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I enjoy practicing English with the foreigners I meet.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. It’s O.K. to guess if we don’t know a word in English.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. In learning English, it is important to practice a lot.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28. I feel timid speaking English with other people.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. In learning English, it is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statements</td>
<td>Opinion</td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. In learning English, it is important to practice by listening to TV</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>or radio programs in English frequently.</td>
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<tr>
<td>32. Thai people feel that it is very important to learn English.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>33. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who speak English (such as the British, Americans, or Australians)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>better.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>34. If I can use English well, I will have better opportunities for a</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>good job.</td>
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<tr>
<td>35. I want to be able to speak English well.</td>
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<tr>
<td>36. I would like to have friends from other countries.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>37. I want to learn English well because it can help me access</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>information from around the world.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. English is important for higher education level, especially</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>graduate programs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Learning English will help me communicate with people from</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other countries because English is an international language.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part II

Directions: Please read each statement and mark √ by the choice that indicates your opinion about the statement.

1. I think English is:
   
a) a very difficult language
   
b) a difficult language
   
c) a language of medium difficulty
   
d) an easy language
   
e) a very easy language

2. If someone spent one hour learning English everyday, how long would it take him or her to speak English well.

   a) less than a year
   
b) 1-2 years
   
c) 3-5 years
   
d) 5-10 years
   
e) You can’t learn a language in 1 hour a day

Thank you for your participation in the survey. Lastly, I’d like to learn about you a little bit before you finish the survey.

Please mark √ by the choice that corresponds to you the best and fill in the blanks as requested.

Name: ________________________    Last Name: ____________________________

Age: ______

Gender:   [ ] Female    [ ] Male
Classification: ______________________

Faculty: __________________________________________________

University: _______________________________________________

Another Major/ Minor (Apart from English): ______________________

When did you start learning English?

☐ Kindergarten  ☐ Primary Level: Grade ________

☐ Secondary Level: Grade _____  ☐ Other, please specify: ____________

Have you had any teaching experience?

☐ No, I have never taught before.  ☐ Yes, I have been an individual tutor.

☐ Yes, I have taught in a tutor center.  ☐ Yes, I have taught both as an

individual tutor and in a tutor center.

☐ Other, please specify: ____________________________

Is there any teacher in your family?

☐ None  ☐ My mother and/or My father

☐ A relative(s) who lives in the same  ☐ A relative(s) who lives in a different

household  household

☐ Other, please specify: ____________________________

Please feel free to give your opinion or suggestions about this questionnaire

in the space below. Thank you!

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX E

An Example of the Consent Form

Oklahoma State University

Institutional Review Board

INFORMED CONSENT SCRIPT

You are being asked to participate in a research study being conducted at this university. The purpose of this study is to obtain information from teacher trainees about what they believe about language learning. Obtaining such information can help us gain a better understanding of how teacher training affects classroom practices.

Your participation will consist of completing a survey of beliefs about language learning at two stages: before and after the practice teaching. The survey consists of two parts. In the first part, you will be asked for your opinions about beliefs about language learning. The second part will be questions about your background information. After the first survey, some of you may be asked to participate in the observation and interview study during your practice teaching.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There are no penalties for refusing to participate. No course privileges will be denied if you decline to participate. Also, if you agree to participate in the study, you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits. However, I would like to ask for consistent participation throughout the study. It is important to have your responses on both surveys for the completeness of data.

Your answers and records will be kept strictly confidential. Please respond to all the surveys completely. Your names are asked only for the purpose of pairing the data from the two surveys but they will not be identified in any record. Instead, you will be assigned a numerical code to be used for recording purposes.

If you have any questions about this study, please let me know. Please sign below if you are willing to participate in the study.

I have read the descriptions above and agree to participate in this study.

______________________________________________________
Participant     Date
### APPENDIX F

**Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude of the Four Pre-service Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Pam</th>
<th>Preeya</th>
<th>Sar</th>
<th>Sinee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.</td>
<td>5\textsuperscript{a}/5\textsuperscript{b}</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>3/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages such as English.</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/3</td>
<td>3/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>4/3</td>
<td>4/2</td>
<td>2/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>3/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>4/3</td>
<td>2/1</td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>4/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. People who speak more than one language are intelligent.</td>
<td>2/4</td>
<td>2/2</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The numbers indicate the participants’ opinions about the statement using a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

\textsuperscript{a} Responses from the pre-practice teaching survey

\textsuperscript{b} Responses from the post-practice teaching survey
### APPENDIX G

Beliefs about the Difficulty of Language Learning of the Four Pre-service Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Pam</th>
<th>Preeya</th>
<th>Sar</th>
<th>Sinee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Part I</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Some languages are easier to learn than others.</td>
<td>5(^a)/4(^b)</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>2/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I believe that I will learn to speak English well.</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>3/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. In learning English, it is easier to speak than to understand what people say.</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>2/4</td>
<td>2/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. In learning English, reading is easier than speaking and listening.</td>
<td>5/3</td>
<td>2/1</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. In learning English, writing is easier than speaking and listening.</td>
<td>4/3</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. It is difficult for Thai people to learn English because of the difference in the alphabet system.</td>
<td>1/1</td>
<td>2/1</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>3/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Part II</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I think English is(^c):</td>
<td>D/M</td>
<td>M/M</td>
<td>D/D</td>
<td>D/D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If someone spent one hour a day learning English, how long would it take him or her to speak English well(^d).</td>
<td>3/1</td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>2/3</td>
<td>3/2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** The numbers indicate the participants’ opinions about the statement using a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

\(^a\) Responses from the pre-practice teaching survey

\(^b\) Responses from the post-practice teaching survey

\(^c\) D = a difficult language, M = a language of medium difficulty

\(^d\) 1 = less than a year, 2 = 1-2 years, 3 = 3-5 years, 4 = 5-10 years, 5 = you can’t learn a language in 1 hour a day
# APPENDIX H

**Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning of the Four Pre-service Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Pam</th>
<th>Preeya</th>
<th>Sar</th>
<th>Sinee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16. It is necessary to know the customs, the cultures, and the ways of life of English-speaking people (such as the British, Americans, or Australians) in order to speak English correctly and appropriately in a particular context.</td>
<td>4/3^a/3^b</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/3</td>
<td>4/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country such as England, the United States, or Australia.</td>
<td>4/1</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Learning vocabulary words is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td>5/4</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Learning the grammar is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Learning how to translate from Thai is an important part of learning English.</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>2/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Learning English is different from learning other academic subjects.</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>1/3</td>
<td>3/4</td>
<td>2/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Learning English involves a lot of memorization.</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>2/3</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>3/3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The numbers indicate the participants’ opinions about the statement using a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

- Responses from the pre-practice teaching survey
- Responses from the post-practice teaching survey
**APPENDIX I**

**Beliefs about Learning and Communication Strategies**

*of the Four Pre-service Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Pam</th>
<th>Preeya</th>
<th>Sar</th>
<th>Sinee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23. It is important to speak English with a correct pronunciation.</td>
<td>5(^a)/4(^b)</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. We shouldn’t say anything in English until we can say it correctly.</td>
<td>1/1</td>
<td>1/1</td>
<td>1/1</td>
<td>5/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I enjoy practicing English with the foreigners I meet.</td>
<td>2/1</td>
<td>3/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>3/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. It’s O.K. to guess if we don’t know a word in English.</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>5/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. In learning English, it is important to practice a lot.</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>5/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I feel timid speaking English with other people.</td>
<td>5/3</td>
<td>4/3</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>3/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>3/3</td>
<td>4/2</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. In learning English, it is important to practice with cassettes or tapes.</td>
<td>4/2</td>
<td>2/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>4/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. In learning English, it is important to practice by listening to TV or radio programs in English frequently.</td>
<td>5/4</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>5/4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The numbers indicate the participants’ opinions about the statement using a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

\(^a\) Responses from the pre-practice teaching survey

\(^b\) Responses from the post-practice teaching survey
# APPENDIX J

**Beliefs about Motivation and Expectations of the Four Pre-service Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Pam</th>
<th>Preeya</th>
<th>Sar</th>
<th>Sinee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32. Thai people feel that it is very important to learn English.</td>
<td>5#/5b</td>
<td>5/3</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>2/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know people who speak English (such as the British, Americans, or Australians) better.</td>
<td>5/4</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>4/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. If I can use English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.</td>
<td>5/3</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. I want to be able to speak English well.</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I would like to have friends from other countries.</td>
<td>5/2</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/3</td>
<td>5/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. I want to learn English well because it can help me access information from around the world.</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. English is important for higher education level, especially graduate programs.</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>5/4</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Learning English will help me communicate with people from other countries because English is an international language.</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>4/5</td>
<td>5/5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The numbers indicate the participants’ opinions about the statement using a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

  a Responses from the pre-practice teaching survey
  b Responses from the post-practice teaching survey
APPENDIX K
Symbols for Transcription

Speakers

Speaker identity/ turn start : 

Speech overlap [ ]

Transitional Continuity

Final .

Continuing ,

Appeal ?

Vocal noises

Laughter (@@)

Transcriber perspective

Transcriber perspective, Descriptive information ( )

Uncertain hearing (XX)

Omitted words or sentences ...
APPENDIX L

IRB Forms
Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 9/15/2004

Date: Tuesday, September 16, 2003
IRB Application No AS0222

Proposal Title: A STUDY OF BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING OF PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS IN THAILAND DURING THE PRACTICE TEACHING

Principal Investigator(s):
Jitarat Vibulphol  Carol Moder
74 S. University #10  309 C Morrill
Stillwater, OK 74075  Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt
Continuation

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Signature: Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance

Tuesday, September 16, 2003

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modifications to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval with the advisor’s signature. The IRB office MUST be notified in writing when a project is complete. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.
Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 10/31/2003

Date: Friday, November 01, 2002
IRB Application No AS0222

Proposal Title: A STUDY OF BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING OF PRE-SERVICE EFL
TEACHERS IN THAILAND DURING THE PRACTICE TEACHING

Principal Investigator(s):

Jutarat Vibulphol
74 S. University #10
Stillwater, OK 74075

Carol Moder
309 C Morrill
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Continuation

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Signature

Carol Olson, Director of University Research Compliance

Friday, November 01, 2002

Approvals are valid for one calendar year, after which time a request for continuation must be submitted. Any modifications to the research project approved by the IRB must be submitted for approval with the advisor’s signature. The IRB office MUST be notified in writing when a project is complete. Approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. Expedited and exempt projects may be reviewed by the full Institutional Review Board.
Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 11/13/02

Date: Wednesday, November 14, 2001
IRB Application No AS0222

Proposal Title: A STUDY OF BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING OF PRE-SERVICE EFL
TEACHERS IN THAILAND DURING THE PRACTICE TEACHING

Principal Investigator(s):
Jutarat Vibulphol
74 S. University #10
Stillwater, OK 74075

Carol Moder
309 C Morrill
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Dear PI:

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of the expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Sharon Bacher, the Executive Secretary to the IRB, in 203 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, sbacher@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Carol Olson, Chair
Institutional Review Board
VITA

Jutarat Vibulphol

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING APPROACHES OF PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS IN THAILAND

Major Field: English (Teaching English as a Second Language)

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Bangkok, Thailand, on August 14, 1970, a daughter of Vibul Vibulphol and Mukda Thamakosol

Education: Graduated from Ampornpaisarn School, Nontaburi, Thailand, in March 1988. Received Bachelor of Education degree in Secondary Education with a first-class honor and Master of Education degree with a major in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand, in March 1992 and October 1996, respectively. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in English with a specialization in Teaching English as a Second Language at Oklahoma State University in July 2004.

Professional Experience: Taught at Chulalongkorn University Demonstration School (Secondary), 1992-1996. Employed as an instructor in the TEFL program at the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, 1997-present.

Conference Presentations:
- What do pre-service EFL teachers believe about language learning? OKTESOL Conference, 2002
- How is Communicative Language Teaching adopted in EFL classrooms in Thailand? AAAL Conference, 2004

Professional Memberships: AAAL (American Association of Applied Linguistics), TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages)
Name: Jutarat Vibulphol         Date of Degree: July, 2004

Institution: Oklahoma State University           Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING APPROACHES OF PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS IN THAILAND

Pages in Study: Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major Field: English (Teaching English as a second language)

Scope and Method of Study: To investigate Thai pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning during their practice teaching and the relationships between their beliefs and teaching approaches, two study phases were conducted. In the survey phase, forty-two pre-service EFL teachers from two universities in Thailand completed a modified, Thai version of the BALLI (Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory) before and after their practice teaching. Four surveyed participants were selected for the qualitative study phase. Each was interviewed twice and observed five or six times. Data from surveys, interviews, and observations were used to examine the four pre-service teachers’ beliefs about language learning and the relationships between their beliefs and their teaching approaches.

Findings and Conclusion: The survey findings reveal most Thai pre-service EFL teachers shared similar beliefs about language learning and most beliefs did not change much after their practice teaching. The majority reported that: foreign language aptitude existed and they had the aptitude but everyone had the potential to learn foreign languages; English was a medium difficulty language that anyone could learn to speak well within five years and some skills were more difficult than others; learning grammar rules, vocabulary, and cultural knowledge was important and language immersion was beneficial but learning how to translate from Thai was unnecessary; practice was important as was accuracy; and English was important for both integrative and instrumental reasons. Three reported beliefs showed significant changes after practice teaching: more participants reported beliefs in their own foreign language aptitude; fewer participants reported their concerns about correct pronunciation; and fewer participants believed that English was important for higher education. From the qualitative study phase, relationships between teaching approaches in regard to focusing on form or meaning and three beliefs: self efficacy, the importance of grammar, and the difficulty of English skills were found. In addition, some beliefs did not appear to influence language learning when they conflicted with others or when the learning circumstances did not accommodate. Lastly, some inconsistency was found among the three data sources raising questions about the validity and/or applicability of some BALLI items, such as those concerning translation and time required to study English.

Advisor’s Approval: __________________________________________________