

Using English as an International Language in the Local Context

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Using English as an International Language in the Local Context

Abstract

Although textbooks can give students a window on the world, their content is often, at best, irrelevant to students' lives and, at worst, a threat to local traditions and culture. While working with English language teachers from several secondary schools in two rural areas in Thailand, it was found that, despite government policy to include local content, they do not know how to bridge the gap between published materials and their students' lives. However, as this paper demonstrates, when given guidance on how to devise tasks and supplementary materials incorporating local culture, these teachers were highly receptive and enthusiastic.

Introduction

Thailand is a largely monolingual country, where virtually all interaction among Thais is conducted in Thai. In the oral mode, it is only when a non-Thai-speaking foreigner, such as a businessperson or tourist, is present that a language other than Thai needs to be used; that language is usually English. In the written mode, a number of circumstances may arise when knowledge of Thai alone is insufficient; for instance, in this era of globalization, even in rural areas, there are imported products with information written only in English. This is illustrated by Ramphal (1996, cited in Crystal, 2003: 111), who reports on a conversation he had with the prime minister of Sri Lanka that highlights the need for English in the local context.

“Her concern was for development. Farmers in the field, she said, could not read the instructions on bags of imported fertilizer – and manufacturers in the global market were not likely to print them in Sinhalese [the local language]. Sri Lanka was losing its access to the world language of English.”

Such a situation is just as likely to occur in contemporary rural Thailand, thus exposing farmers to the risks inherent in misusing, albeit unwittingly, fertilizers and other products routinely used in farming. Nonetheless, there appears to be a common perception in rural Thailand that English is unnecessary (and possibly even undesirable, as will be discussed further below). Indeed, in an informal conversation that the first researcher had with some Matthayom-level teachers of English in rural Isaan (in the northeast of the country), they reported that they themselves felt motivated to teach English but that the majority of their students were not interested in learning it; further, one of these teachers reported that her school director was also negative about English.

While it is possible that many young students simply do not see the need for English in their daily lives, this is not helped by textbooks which are produced for the international market and often used in Thai schools and which simply do not have content that seems relevant. Indeed, there is growing evidence that, to enhance the chances of engaging students with English, topics in instructional materials should often, though not always, pertain to the local context. Holmes & Celani (2006) attribute the longevity of the Brazilian ESP Project to their uptake of local knowledge. One of the seven ‘crucial decisions’ made at the beginning of the project in 1981 was not to use one “central or national textbook” (p. 112) because local contexts and needs *within* Brazil varied to such an extent that it was felt preferable that individual teams should prepare special materials for local areas. According to Holmes & Celani, this decision led to an increasing emphasis on the professional development of the participating teachers as course designers and materials writers.

Holmes & Celani’s trail-blazing decision, as will be shown in this paper, has implications for another EFL contexts. While Brazil is a vast country, smaller countries such as Thailand also have very distinct regional identities, which, ideally, might call for variation in local content of instructional materials. Even in ESL contexts, however, there are reports of the importance of ensuring that content in materials needs to be relevant to the learners who use them. For instance, in New Zealand, Ashton-Warner (1963) found that the content of conventional commercial textbooks had little relationship to Maori cultural priorities and social realities. However, when she developed reading and writing materials around the concerns and issues that the children themselves had articulated, these children experienced an upsurge of literacy activity, which the researcher attributed to personal investment in her reading and writing tasks.

Indeed, learner-centredness, if not always full learner autonomy (e.g. Littlewood, 1999), is likely to be promoted by materials with local content as such content touches students’ lives. Consonant with a move towards greater learner autonomy in recent years, Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004: 37) note that, over the past decade or so, “there has been a reaction against the type of global coursebook which aims to cater for everyone and often ends up by satisfying nobody”. They go on to observe that “countries, regions and institutions have developed their own coursebooks and/or supplementary materials” (p. 37). Moreover, they know of groups of teachers getting together in several countries, including several in southeast Asia (Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam) to “produce and share supplementary materials for their classes”.

An example of a local project comes from Isaan in northeast Thailand (Harper, n.d.). In order to develop students’ communicative competence, action competence and critical thinking skills, 18 students from Mukdahan High School joined an intensive five-day project. The project challenged the students to use their English while learning how to adapt and implement sustainable business practices in a real-life situation. After studying the operations of a company, the students had to present their findings on the internet so that they could share their ideas with schools in other countries.

However, as already mentioned, the spread of English, not least to such remote areas as northeast Thailand, is not universally accepted without question; in particular, there are a number of issues embedded in the concepts of language and culture. Often, the idea is to teach EFL/ESL students the culture, particularly in terms of social usage, of the target language. In the case of English, this can be difficult because of the many

cultures that use English as a first language and because the use of English as a lingua franca in business and science has been considered relatively 'culture free' (e.g. Kaplan, 1986).

Where the target language can seem to overwhelm the native language, however, there is also the issue of struggling to maintain one's own cultural values in a changing world, particularly when there is the push to learn a more dominant language. Although many TESOL training programs address the issues of cultural awareness learning, this does not always allay fears. In Thailand, for example, learning English opens the door to a flood of 'western' culture, which is not always seen as a good thing. Perhaps as a means of forestalling this, and of maintaining local culture and traditions, the Thai Ministry of Education, through its recent curriculum documents (e.g. Basic Education Curriculum, 2001), encourages teachers to design English courses which reflect local traditions and cultural norms and values. However, teachers often have no idea how to do this.

Rationale

Traditional English language teaching in Thailand was based on teacher-centred grammar-translation models. However, from around 1995, there have been a number of changes, including the expansion of English to include all schoolchildren (Wongsothorn, 1999), a significant shift towards student-centred learning (Watson Todd, Taylor, Nilnophkun & Pothiprasart, 2002) and the inclusion of community-relevance in the curriculum. In order to promote English to Thai people, the Ministry of Education has recently launched a policy for students to study English from primary level. Through its Basic Education Curriculum (2001), the ministry asks teachers to try to have their students study English in both foreign and local Thai contexts so they can learn things from other countries while, at the same time, valuing their own local traditions and cultural norms and values. Specifically, this curriculum provides standards and benchmarks for English teachers, including four main goals (or 'substances'):

- 1) language for communication;
- 2) language and culture;
- 3) language and other subjects; and
- 4) language and its relationship with community and the world.

This means that the curriculum also aims to include the community as "a part of language teaching and learning" (Thongsri, Charumanee & Chatupote, 2006, 79). According to this policy, it is teachers' duty to bring the community to the students' attention by additionally adapting or designing activities to help students learn things about their community and be able to use English to explain their culture and to learn about other cultures. However, many English teachers in Thai high schools have problems implementing these goals, for a number of reasons, not the least of which is their own lack of training or experience in, and/or lack time for, designing or adapting materials. Many are in small, under-resourced schools, have little access to networks, and have limited language ability themselves. Furthermore, as these teachers are usually overburdened with heavy teaching loads and other duties, and have not been consulted on the new curriculum content, it is not clear the extent to which they are willing, even if they are able, to implement the ministry's guidelines. Moreover, as already mentioned, even where the teachers themselves are enthusiastic, some have expressed the perception that their students are not interested in English and are therefore difficult to teach, particularly using more learner-centred models (Wall, in press).

Background and research context

As King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT) includes in its vision and mission the promotion of learning not only in technology but also in languages and social life, the university's Faculty of Liberal Arts supports its teachers in training teachers of English in rural schools. As part of a larger research project exploring the viability of engaging teachers and other members of rural Thai communities in designing relevant English language teaching and learning materials, the researchers decided to provide Thai English-language teachers with an in-service workshop.

Titled *Teaching English in the Local Context* (see Appendix 1), the workshop had three objectives: (i) to brush up the teachers' English proficiency; (ii) to elicit or present some teaching techniques; and (iii) to provide practice with hands-on experience of adapting published materials to their students' needs and to local contexts. Overall, it was felt that these objectives would help these teachers link their English knowledge with the local community context so they could effectively serve the Ministry of Education's policy as well as explain their own culture to foreigners.

In this part of the study, workshops were arranged in two different rural districts. Although in different parts of the country, with one being in a mountainous region (District 1) and the other a being coastal one (District 2), both communities are at a distance from Bangkok and other major centres. While the former is arguably more remote than the latter, teachers in both communities see themselves as somewhat isolated. Students in both areas come from predominantly agrarian and/or unskilled households in regions which are relatively undeveloped. Tourism is a small but important source of community revenue in both districts. Although each group included one or more teachers who are designated 'teacher trainers', in practice they receive very little external input, and in particular, have few opportunities to interact with native speakers in general, and native-speaking teacher-trainers in particular. This paper looks at the feedback on the workshops from both these groups of teachers.

Methodology

Participants

In District 1, there were 22 teachers from five schools while, in District 2, there were 24 teachers from six schools present at the workshops (N=46); not all the teachers attended both days. There was no statistical difference between the two groups on any of the demographic details recorded (see Table 1). All the participants were secondary-level teachers at Matthayom 1-3 (M1-3). All but two of the participants were female (95%), with one male in each group. All the teachers held at least bachelor's degrees, with nine holding master's degrees. Two of the teachers in District 2 were not Thai nationals, with one being a Filipino teacher of English and the other being a Chinese teacher of Mandarin (the only participant who was not a teacher of English). Methodologically, these two teachers' data could not be separated from those of the Thai teachers; however, it should be noted that their data comprises a small proportion of the total and that, in any case, they were working in the same conditions as their Thai counterparts.

The groups comprised a range of ages and experience, with almost half being 35 or older, and more than half having more than five years teaching experience. Even so, 40% (18/46) were teaching in their first school. Of these eleven schools, only two (18%) have over 1,000 students in M1-3; three (27%) have between 500 and 1,000 students at these levels; two (18%) have between 300 and 500; and four schools (36%) have fewer than 300 students at these levels. Thus, over a third of the participating teachers came from very small schools.

Table 1: Participant teachers' biodata

		District 1	District 2	(Count)	(Percent)
Age	<25	2	3	5	10.9%
	25-34	8	11	19	41.3%
	35-45	5	5	10	21.7%
	45+	7	5	12	26.1%
		22	24	46	100.0%
(Pearson chi-square)		.922	3	.820	

		District 1	District 2	(Count)	(Percent)
Teaching experience	0-2	4	3	7	15.2%
	3-5	4	5	9	19.6%
	6-10	4	8	12	26.1%
	11+	9	8	17	37.0%
		21	24	45	97.8%
		* One missing			
(Pearson chi-square)		1.453	3	.693	

		District 1	District 2	(Count)	(Percent)
Education	BA/BE	16	21	37	80.4%
	d				
	MA/ME	6	3	9	19.6%
	d				
		22	24	46	100.0%
(Pearson chi-square)		1.592	1	.207	

Instrument

This was a workshop evaluation form (see Appendix 2). The participants were asked to rate five elements of the workshop (speed and timing, the trainers, the materials and handouts, the clarity of instructions, and the actual content). The form included three open-ended sentence stems ('Today, the most useful idea for me was ...', 'I liked ...' and 'I didn't like ...') as well as a blank section headed 'Comments'.

Procedures

Two-day workshops were given in each of the two locations (for an outline of the workshops, see Appendix 1). In both cases, the participants had to come in their own time (a public holiday in District 1 and a weekend in District 2). All three researchers conducted the workshop in District 1, with the third researcher summarizing each session in Thai. The workshop in District 2, however, was conducted by the first and second researchers only; the summaries there were conducted in English by the local Head Teacher/Teacher Trainer. Although she is a Thai speaker, she believed the participant teachers to have sufficient English ability to preclude the need for summaries in Thai.

The workshops focused on the students' learning objectives and the activities the teachers use to achieve them. Of particular relevance to this study is the session called 'Unit Focus 2' on Day 2 (see Appendix 1) on adapting one or more of the textbooks they use with their students. In District 1, the participants chose to work with Level 2 of *Super Goal* (dos Santos, 2003) while, in District 2, several textbooks were used.

Although there was a clear outline for the workshop at the outset of each session, the process was intended to be learner-centred and to build on the teachers' own strengths and background knowledge. Therefore, the workshop sessions were collaborative and participatory, and the materials were adapted as required in 'real time'. The intention was to model some of the processes discussed – some of the processes the teachers themselves are expected to incorporate into their classrooms but often have not been taught how. The teachers were given the workshop evaluation forms at the end of each of the two days.

Results

Likert Scale responses

The overall response from the participants was very positive (see Figure 1) in spite of their having to attend in their own time and, in some cases, travel long distances (as some of them noted in their evaluative feedback). All five factors listed on the workshop evaluation forms, for both days and in both districts, were rated between 4.5 and 5.0, well within the 'very happy' range (4.21-5.00). Two of these factors are of particular relevance to this study, handouts and materials, and content and topics. These and additional factors will now be further investigated from the data yielded by the three open-ended sentence stems and the 'comments' section on the workshop evaluation forms.

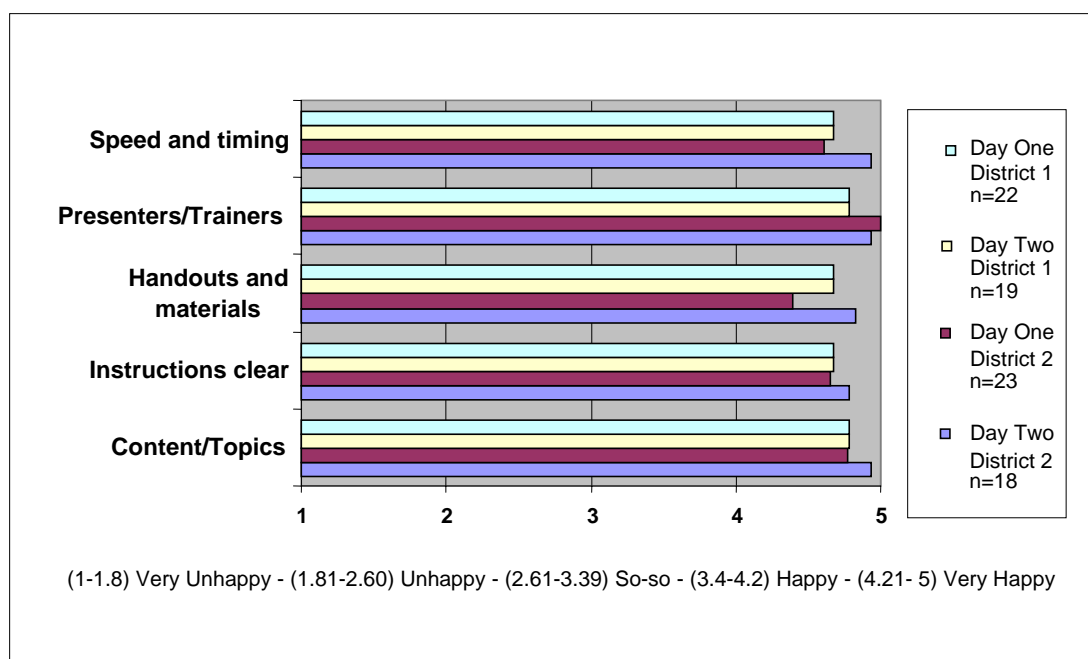


Figure 1: Responses on a Likert Scale averaged across teachers

Open-ended sentence stems

As can be seen from Table 2, the overall amount of writing that the participants did on the forms was extensive. This was surprising, considering it was the end of the day, and they would have been quite tired after operating in English all day, which they are not accustomed to doing outside their classrooms. What was also gratifying was their positive response to the central ideas being conveyed. Table 2 shows that there were far more positive responses (100% for useful ideas and 95% for aspects they liked) than negative responses (17%); in addition, more than a third (29%) wrote further comments. Since the data yielded by two of the sentence stems ('Today, the most useful idea for me was ...' and 'I liked ...') overlapped considerably, these results are now presented together. The negative feedback will then be considered, followed by the feedback from the 'comments' section of the evaluation forms.

Table 2: Workshop evaluations (open-ended sentence stems)

Sentence stems	Day 1/Day 2	District 1	District 2	Total (%)
The most useful idea ...	1	22/22	23/23	100
	2	19/19	18/18	
I liked ...	1	*20/22	*22/23	95
	2	*18/19	18/18	
I didn't like ...	1	*6/22	*5/23	17
	2	*0/19	*2/18	
Comments	1	*11/22	*7/23	29
	2	*5/19	*5/18	

*Responses including “nothing”, “no” or “-”, were counted as zero.

The most useful idea was ... / I liked ...

Positive themes that emerged were that the participants appreciated the opportunity to practise using English (the first objective of the workshop) and that they liked applying their existing knowledge of English and of pedagogy to teaching activities and techniques (the second objective), some or many of which were new to them. These themes are now illustrated (data extracts are unedited):

“I can speaking, listening, writing, know a new idea about teaching and technique.” (District 1, Day 1)

“Get the new tips to teach the students at my school, and practice my English skills, listening and speaking.” (District 1, Day 1)

An interesting aspect to the findings is that there was sometimes considerable variation between the two districts. Over the two days, in District 1, 11/22 (50%) of the participants expressed appreciation for the chance to use English whereas, in District 2, only 3/24 (12.5%) of the participants mentioned this. This disparity may be a reflection of the varying English proficiency levels of the participating teachers. This would echo the perceived need, mentioned above, to include regular summaries of the workshop activities in Thai in District 1 and, in contrast, the perceived opportunity to conduct them in English in District 2.

Often, specific activities were nominated as having been particularly appreciated. For instance, for Day 1, eight mentioned the postcard activity and six mentioned the warm-up activity (‘Find someone who ...’); and, for Day 2, ten mentioned the running dictation and five mentioned the vocabulary games (see Appendix 1 for where these activities appear in the workshop timetable). What these activities have in common is the need for active communication among participants; sometimes, they also require participants to move round the classroom (e.g. ‘Find someone who ...’, running dictation).

It should be noted that, over both days, in District 1, there were 37 references to teaching tips in general as well as to specific tips but a full 77 such references in District 2. One interpretation of this difference is that it is linked to the disparity, mentioned above, concerning language proficiency level. While the participants in District 1 may have been focusing more on using and improving their English, those in District 2 may have felt sufficiently confident with their English and thus have had the cognitive capacity to move on from a focus on language to a focus on teaching techniques.

Group and pair work maximize learners’ chances for such active communication, and many of the participants mentioned a new or raised awareness of the value of learner collaboration through group and pair work. In District 1 on Day 1, 12 of the 22

participants (54.55%) mentioned this awareness, as shown in the following data extracts:

“Group work because many people speak out and share idea.”

“The group idea ... show idea.”

“The way how to do the work in a group.”

“Think and share opinion.”

In contrast to District 1, only 6 of the 23 participants (26.09%) in District 2 on Day 1 referred to group work. There are a number of possible reasons for this disparity between these two rural districts. It may be that group work is more widely utilized in English-language classrooms in District 2 (which, as already noted, is less remote than District 1) and therefore not a novelty worth mentioning. It may also be that the Thai summaries, provided in District 1 only, helped to crystallize those participants' awareness of group work as a tool. In addition to simple recognition of grouping students as part of class management, what the above extracts about group work seem to indicate is an awareness that it allows or might even encourage learners both to think and to express ideas (though the term 'learner-centredness', much used during the workshops, was only mentioned by two participants, one in each district on the second day).

The question of what ideas or topics students might want to talk about in groups or pairs then arises. As mentioned earlier, the workshops reported in this study, reflecting MoE policy, included the notion of bringing local content into the language classroom (the third objective of the workshop). In District 1 on Day 2, 14 of the 19 participants (73.68%) expressed support for this idea, e.g.:

“Local community and I can applies to my English class.”

“The activities to teach student and the project to make with the community.”

“Adapting to context that can be use in community: pre-tas [sic] – while task – post task.”

“How to apply content from textbook to local text to teach students.”

Interestingly, in contrast, only three of the 18 (16.67%) participants in District 2 on Day 2 specifically mentioned the inclusion of the local context in the English classroom, though four of these (22.22%) referred to adapting textbooks or to designing activities. A possible interpretation of the difference between the two districts on this point is that District 1 (mountainous and relatively remote) may have a greater sense of community than District 2 (coastal and constituting a route to other parts of Thailand). Another possibility is that the summaries in Thai, which only took place in District 1, were instrumental in raising those participants' awareness of this issue.

I didn't like ...

The open-ended sentence stem that sought to elicit what the participants did not like yielded very few responses. In District 1, there were only six responses from the 22 participants on the first day (27.27%) and none on the second day (0%); similarly, in

District 2, there were five responses from the 23 participants on the first day (21.74%) and only two responses from the 18 participants on the second day (11.11%) (see Table 2).

Some of the negative comments did not pertain directly to the workshops; for instance, two participants mentioned the weather, one mentioned the food provided for lunch and coffee breaks, another mentioned that she was short-sighted, one complained about working on holidays and yet another mentioned that the workshop was held very far from her home. The substantive comments related, among other things, to the strain of having to operate for extended periods in English:

“To use English languages.” (District 1, Day 1)

“Because I don’t understand sometimes any you speak quickly.” (District 2, Day 1)

Two particular tasks in the workshop (arguably, ones that were relatively cognitively demanding) were singled out for negative comment:

“Teaching strategies because it’s so serious.” (District 2, Day 1)

“Dictionary task.” (District 2, Day 2)

Finally, something that one of the participants did not like could actually be interpreted as positive:

“The short time to study with the speakers.” (District 2, Day 2)

Comments

Lastly, the workshop evaluation forms offered participants a chance to add comments. Over the two days, there were totals of 11 comments from District 1 (50%) and 12 from District 2 (50%). Most of these were expressions of appreciation for the provision of the workshops; however, there were also the following comments (which have been paraphrased):

- need more handouts (2, in Districts 1 & 2, Day 1)
- not everything was clear (2, in District 1)
- useful summaries in Thai (1, in District 1)
- more time needed to practise English (1, in District 1)
- more time (a week) to learn more on the theme of the workshops (1, in District 2)
- enjoyed exchanging ideas (1, in District 1)
- exchanging ideas about teaching (1, in District 1)

It is interesting that the two comments about insufficient handouts were made on the first day. One reason the researchers as trainers distributed many of the handouts at the end of the second day was because they wanted to pursue a moderately inductive approach and get the participants to think rather than be deductively spoon-fed. As already shown, there was a general appreciation among the workshop participants of the focus on thinking skills through group interaction, and this is further borne out by the two comments above on exchanging ideas. These comments are very encouraging as they predicate the notion that these participants feel that, as communities of teachers, they have knowledge and experience that is of value and worthy of exchange. That these teachers already have plenty of local and professional expertise, albeit often unrecognized either by themselves or by society at large, was an

underlying theme of the workshops. As for the two comments about lack of clarity, both came from District 1, where the participants' English proficiency was appreciably lower than in District 2 and is the reason for the provision there of regular summaries in Thai.

Limitations

Three limitations should be mentioned. First, it is inevitable with this kind of research that response bias may have occurred. On occasions, the participants may have given particularly positive feedback simply because of their overall feeling of appreciation that the workshops were being provided; nonetheless, the unexpectedly large quantity of feedback, particularly to the open-ended sentence stems, as well as its content does suggest a genuinely positive feeling overall, a feeling that included their own engagement with the whole process of the workshops. Second, the participants' generally positive attitudes to the content of the workshops does not ensure uptake of the ideas in their future teaching; however, these positive attitudes seem likely to lead to at least some uptake. Third, the workshop evaluation forms were designed as evaluation tools, not research instruments; it was the overwhelming response both in terms of quantity and quality that precipitated the writing of this paper.

Recommendations

The findings indicate that the teachers from two rural districts of Thailand who participated in this study were very receptive to training – training whose objectives are consonant with government policy. Specifically, this includes opportunities for them, through the use of English, to consider teaching techniques that are learner-centred and, related, relevant to the lives of the students in their respective localities. However, in order for government policy to be implemented throughout in rural Thailand, there needs to be an extensive boost in the provision of teacher education. At the very least, this teacher education needs to include (i) language proficiency work; (ii) induction in teaching techniques, including an understanding of how to foster learner-centredness; and (iii) hands-on experience in adapting and/or developing materials so that content in English classes has some local culture and context. Furthermore, as this study has clearly shown, to optimize such teacher education, it needs to be tailored to varying regional or local needs.

Such teacher education can have several forms and take place both in the teachers' own contexts as well as further afield. Workshops such as those described in this study can be conducted regionally and/or locally and provide teachers with access to fluent speakers of English, who could act as mentors, consultants and resource people. Teachers could also take short courses either within Thailand or abroad. In addition, they could participate in study tours, visiting institutions that have facilities such as self-access centres. However, with regard to the internet, whose potential in education is currently much vaunted, it may be unrealistic in the short run to expect that there will be sufficient funding not only for the necessary hardware to equip schools nationwide but also to provide the necessary ongoing training and maintenance. Overall, teachers need a chance to develop their thinking skills; further, good team work is needed (Richards, 1998), requiring interpersonal skills as well as creative and critical thinking; such team work can be achieved at regional and local levels (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004).

Given that these are daunting recommendations that need to be achieved at grassroots level nationwide and ones that, at the same time, reflect government policy, funding from central government is needed in order to make even a modest beginning to implementation of this policy with pilot projects in a few locations at selected

Pratomsuka or Matthayom school levels. Additionally, further research is needed to study and evaluate some of these early pilot projects in action.

Conclusion

The findings from this small study provide clear evidence that, given a chance to develop professionally through training workshops, rural teachers in Thailand appeared very keen to engage with the process of delivering lessons that not only comply with recent government directives but are also more likely to motivate learners than more traditional lessons. One way to motivate young EFL learners, perhaps particularly those in rural areas, is to make the tasks they are given seem relevant. For that to happen, as recognized by the Ministry of Education, at least some of those tasks should draw on learners' lives through the inclusion of localization and/or personalization. However, to achieve this, teachers need ongoing professional development to build their confidence and skills in order to adapt existing materials and/or develop their own materials, use them in their teaching and then follow up reflectively with an evaluation and review process.

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Teaching English in the Local Context

English activation
 “Teaching tips” (Methodology)
 Adapting materials + curriculum design practice

Task	Purpose	Process
Introductions	Set the tone – demonstrate simple activities - Make underlying principles explicit	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) “Find someone who...” activity 2) Nametags – Two ‘important’ things 3) Session Summary: What? How? Why?
Group-work “Rules”.	Set the working parameters – “Classroom Management”	Whole group brainstorm: ⇒ “What will make it easier for you to feel comfortable for the workshop?”
“SWOT”	Informal needs assessment + Acknowledgement of difficulties	Small group (cross-schools) discussions: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) good things about working in your school/community? strengths? 2) the not-so-good things - the issues you face implementing the book/curriculum in your school? weaknesses 3) Why have you come today? threats 4) What would you like to get ?
“Getting to know you”	Affect & Personalization	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) How can people spend their free time? What do people do in their free time? 2) Write a question about one activity: e.g. What is your favourite kind of movie/ sport/ music, etc. Survey. 3) Session Summary: What? How? Why?
Postcards	Warmer	Semi-structured speaking exercise
“Hot Potato” Strategies and activities – the 4 skills + thinking	Eliciting , reviewing, acknowledging and building on prior learning	brain-storm /discusses /rotate “How do you teach reading? What reading activities do you use? (activities) “What do you teach? What do you want students to learn? “(skills, strategies)
Unit Focus 1	Learning/Reviewing how to “read” the textbook – step one in adapting... Make working practices of the day explicit	Small groups working with the same texts: What are the grammar points? vocabulary? strategies? Session Summary T-Ss, S-S, G, S-T Structure: Whole group – pair work – small groups Process: Think => write => talk => write => share
Reflection:	Personalization and adaptation	The most useful idea...

Teaching English in the Local Context
Day 2

Task	Purpose	Process
Welcome, Warmer + Outline	Set the tone – demonstrate simple games - Make underlying principles explicit - Model inclusion	“Simon Says” Please/____ “From me, to ____” Outline
“Community” is part of the curriculum – (MOE)	Informal assessment of understanding, acknowledgement of local expertise, and building on existing strengths	Small Group Task “What are you currently doing in English which relates to the community?” “What would you like to do?”
Running Dictation	Model process – review content	“Student-centred learning” Session Summary: What? How? Why? Classroom practice
Unit Focus 2	Model the “Teaching Learning Cycle” – guide teachers’ adaptation and ideas.	❖ “Model” - an example of relating a unit to the local community. ❖ Small Group Task (By book) – Pick a unit to focus on: How can it be personalized? How can it be related to the local community? What do you need to cover? What is examinable?
Jazz Chants and Raps	Pronunciation practice	Shh! Shh! Activity Rap
Vocabulary Games	Teaching various vocabulary strategies Teacher focus: test construction – Student focus: dictionary use	Guess the word Word BINGO Multiple choice definitions
Review and Wrap	Making the relationships with classroom practice explicit	What? Activity names How? Activity process Why? Activity purpose
“Note to me”	Self-directed learning	Private plan for the new teaching year...
Evaluation	Feedback	
Certificates	Recognition	

Appendix 2: Workshop evaluation form

Teaching English in the Local Context
Reflections – Day One

Please complete the sentences:

"Today, the most useful idea for me was

....."

"I liked"

"I didn't like"

Please tick the answer that matches your opinion:

	Very happy ☺	Happy	So-so ☹	Unhappy	Very unhappy ☹
Content/Topics	5	4	3	2	1
Instructions clear	5	4	3	2	1
Handouts and materials	5	4	3	2	1
Presenters/Trainers	5	4	3	2	1
Speed and timing	5	4	3	2	1

Any comments?

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Thank you very much!