
TEFL Tourism:

*A Phenomenological Examination of the TEFL
Teacher in Thailand*

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requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract

Although there is evidence of linkages between the concepts of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) and tourism, there has to date been little attention paid to this relationship. This thesis amalgamates these two concepts and argues for the introduction of the niche form of tourism, 'TEFL tourism'. The TEFL tourist is defined as a person who travels outside of their usual environment to teach English as a foreign language, whose role shifts between tourist, educator and educatee at various points in their trip. The TEFL tourism phenomenon is explored through the use of a two-phase research approach employing the qualitative examination of blogs (n=36) written by TEFL teachers based in Thailand and quantitative surveys (n=567). Drawing parallels with associated tourism forms including volunteer, philanthropic, package, cultural, education and nightlife tourism, it is concluded that TEFL tourism is an entity in its own right, with unique characteristics, motivations and experiences. Key findings emphasise that the TEFL experience in Thailand differs considerably from teaching experiences in many Western countries, with aspects such as racial discrimination, celebrityism and cultural immersion playing prominent roles in the TEFL teacher's experience. The use of logistic regression facilitated the analysis of TEFL teacher types, enabling the development of a typology of TEFL tourists in Thailand. TEFL tourists were subsequently classified as leisure-minded; philanthropy-minded; career-minded or expatriate-minded. This thesis contributes to knowledge by providing an accurate overview of the TEFL teaching industry in Thailand and its participants. This is first addressed through the examination of the tourism elements and the educational elements within the TEFL experience. The thesis then introduces and justifies the concept of 'TEFL tourism' through the development of a definition of TEFL tourism and a typology of TEFL teachers based upon teacher motivations and experiences. This knowledge can be of use to a number of stakeholders involved including prospective TEFL teachers, their prospective employers post TEFL experience, teacher training providers, TEFL recruitment organisations, the Thai educational system and academics.

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of time in Australia, Jenny has proved to be a dedicated supervisor and I wish her all the best with retirement.

Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis has been composed by myself and has not been presented or accepted in any previous application for a degree. The work, of which this is a record, has been carried out by myself unless otherwise stated and the work is mine, it reflects personal views and values. All quotations have been distinguished by quotation marks and all sources of information have been acknowledged by means of references, including those of the Internet.

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List of Abbreviations

TEFL- Teaching English as a foreign language
WTO- World Trade Organisation
UN- United Nations
ASEAN- Association of Southeast Asian Nations
TESOL- Teaching English as a second language
CELTA- Cambridge certificate in English language teaching to adults
ABTA- Association of British Travel Agents
GDP- Gross domestic product
UNAIDS- United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
TRAM- Tourism Research and Marketing
WTO- World Tourism Organisation
UNESCO- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
ONEC- Office of the National Education Council
CLT- Communicative language teaching
OECD- Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
CEPPE- Centre of Study for Policies and Practices in Education
TALIS- Teaching and Learning International Survey
OFSTED- The Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills
UNICEF- United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
BOS- Bristol Online Surveys
SPSS - Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
 χ^2 - Chi-square
df- Degrees of freedom
p- Significance level
 R^2 - Coefficient of determination
R- Correlation coefficient
B value- Unstandardised coefficients
OR- Odds ratio
AOIR- Association of Internet Researchers

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The burgeoning globalisation of the world economy has seen societal English-speaking capabilities increase in importance throughout many countries (Graddol, 2014; Griffith, 2014). Similar to other associated industries such as volunteer, responsible or sustainable tourism the focus of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) has in many cases shifted away from its traditional altruistic and philanthropic perspective, where education was the priority, to a post-modern commercialised commodity, acting as a resource that can be produced, controlled, distributed and valued (Lavankura, 2013). Whilst it can be argued that this transition has seen the introduction of students as consumers (Kogar, 2014), this research proposes that the teachers are also key players in the commercialisation of the English-teaching sector.

This chapter introduces this notion and justifies the focus of this research. The chapter first sets the research scene through the inclusion of a detailed research context. This section provides a brief background of the scale of the TEFL industry in Thailand and explains the identified links between the two concepts of tourism and TEFL. In rationalising the need for this research the chapter places heavy emphasis on the stakeholders involved with TEFL in Thailand, providing details of the potential benefits arising to them from the data and analysis deriving from this thesis.

2.2 The Research Context

In Thailand, the commercialisation of TEFL presents strong links with tourism, with TEFL agency marketing material frequently invoking notions of the four S's at the forefront of Thailand's tourism industry- sun, sand, sea and sex (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998). Whilst there is a paucity of literature to date conjoining the concepts of TEFL education and tourism, this thesis draws heavily on the TEFL industry's closest comparator, volunteer tourism, together with other relevant tourism forms. A simple Google search for TEFL

opportunities in Thailand demonstrates that, similar to the volunteer tourism sector, the marketplace is in a state of continuous evolution, with new businesses continuously entering the market, ranging from those which claim to be charitable or non-profit organisations (Brown, 2005) to projects funded by large institutions such as the World Bank (Wearing and McGehee, 2013a) and traditional tour operators (Benson and Wearing, 2012). There is now an evident association between TEFL and the traditional 'package' style tours as evidenced by the purchase in 2007 of the volunteering company i to i by the profit maximising organisation First Choice Holidays for approximately £20million (Benson and Wearing, 2012), who now promote paid TEFL opportunities at a cost.

In attempting to conjoin these two concepts and subsequently introduce the phenomenon 'TEFL tourism' through the research undertaken for this thesis, it is imperative to define the two concepts under examination. The global nature of the TEFL phenomenon does not easily facilitate definitional clarity. Fundamentally, teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) is the practice of linguistically educating those for whom English is not their native language. Despite the significant global scale of the practice of teaching English, there is to date no scholarly definition of the term and as such, little clarity of the precise duties of a TEFL teacher, the context in which they teach or the meaning of TEFL teaching itself. In fact, the term is subject to ambiguous interpretation, which is thus liable to lead to misconstrued perceptions of the TEFL experience. To further exacerbate this perplexity, despite TEFL being the most common acronym adopted for the practice of teaching English as a second language (Griffith, 2014), its usage is not universal. The most commonly noted acronyms are outlined in appendix one (page 332). Although TEFL is the operational term used for research purposes throughout this thesis, literature referencing all acronyms was considered within the research.

The nature of TEFL, which continues to evolve as a result of scholarly developments along with the commercialisation of the sector, varies significantly across geographical locations, educational institutions and employers or placement organisers (Griffith, 2014). As such, it can be argued that providing an objective account of the TEFL sector

to facilitate global regulation may be an impossible task as a result of its extreme diversity. It is, however, important to have sufficient comprehension of TEFL industry operations in order to facilitate optimum management and educational attainment in TEFL destinations.

Likewise, tourism is a phenomenon with no universally accepted definition, owing to the complexity and individualism of the travellers themselves and the activities that they choose to undertake. The most widely utilised definition, proposed by the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and United States (UN) Nations Statistics Division (1994), prescribes that in order to qualify as a tourist one must travel and remain in a place outside of their usual residential environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business or other purposes. Matheison and Wall (1982) however, do not impose a timeframe, simply stating that one must travel to a destination temporarily. Leiper (1979) believed that defining tourism is indicated above, proposing that there are three approaches that can be taken. The economic stance focuses on tourism as a business, the technical stance focuses on the tourist in order to provide a common basis by which to collect data and the holistic stance attempts to include the entire essence of the subject.

Whilst such attempts to define the concept may be useful from a generic perspective, the practical application of such definitions is difficult when applied to specific tourism types, such as the TEFL tourism proposed within this thesis. Robinson and Novelli (2007), in their introduction to the niche tourism phenomena, postulate that tourists have developed as consumers, becoming increasingly sophisticated in their needs and preferences as a result of an emergent culture of tourism. Despite such acknowledgements of the progressive and adaptive nature of tourism, particularly evident through the limitless introduction of new and niche tourism forms of a micro and macro nature, there appear to have been no attempts to develop the commonly accepted definitions of tourism in parallel.

This thesis positions the TEFL teacher within the blurred boundaries of the tourist spectrum. There are two fundamental reasons for this association. The first is the

movement of the TEFL teacher from their place of residence in their home country, to their temporary residence in Thailand. It is worth noting that some TEFL teachers may, due to the nature of temporary residency permits and frequent in-country relocation, be in Thailand for periods over one year, a determining criteria of the WTO and UN's (1994) definition of a tourist. The second justification for the association between TEFL and tourism is that many teachers, whilst temporarily residing in Thailand, undertake day-trips or short breaks both within and outside of Thailand and it is thus argued that effectively they are 'tourists within tourists'.

There is no shortage of pedagogical research into teaching English as a foreign language (for example, Abdallah, 2016; Endang, 2008; Richards and Rodgers, 2014) however this sector has scarcely been addressed outside of classroom practices. To date, there appear to be no clear explanations detailing precisely what the practice of TEFL teaching consists of, who the TEFL teachers are, their motivations or employment credentials. To address these unanswered questions on a global scale is beyond the reach of this thesis. It was thus decided to adopt a case-study approach, investigating the characteristics, motivations and experiences of those who choose to travel overseas to become TEFL teachers in Thailand.

The limited academic reference to TEFL in Thailand is surprising given the extent and importance of the industry (Griffith, 2014; Pitsuwin, 2014). The scale is indicated through a simple search using the Google platform for the phrase *TEFL teaching Thailand* which returned a significant 414,000 results in 2015. Despite the size of the TEFL industry specific academic publications are limited not only in approach, with most having a pedagogic or cultural focus, but also geographically, with most participating scholars based in Thailand (e.g. Deveney, 2005; Kogar, 2014; Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015; Methanonpphakkun and Deocampo, 2016; Punthumasen, 2007; Wenjing, 2014). This highlights a significant gap in the existing literature.

1.2 Rationale

The inspiration to undertake this research stemmed from a combination of both personal and scholarly experience. In 2010 the researcher, who was a qualified and

experienced teacher, embarked on a TEFL placement in Thailand. On completion of her placement she was left with two burgeoning questions;

1-Why do they hire so many tourists as teachers in Thailand when they are often under-qualified, under-skilled and under-motivated?

2- Is it fair that many teachers in Thailand think they are doing the same job as teachers in their home country, whilst in reality these are two very different jobs?

The contribution to knowledge facilitated through the production of this research thesis enables various TEFL stakeholders to have a more comprehensive understanding of the TEFL experience in Thailand than current literature facilitates and for academics and industry professionals alike to more accurately manage the TEFL sector. Dominant stakeholders, who can be defined as any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives (Freeman, 1984, p. 46) include the TEFL teachers, TEFL recruitment agencies, future employers or education recruitment teams of the TEFL teacher and the Thai educational system and Government. Rooted in the foundations of this research is the concept of ethnocentrism which occurs when individuals judge other groups or experiences relative to their own ethnic group or cultural practices (Omohundro, 2007). Nominalist ontology (see chapter five, page 74) argues that, by definition, all concepts are formed through subjective interpretations based upon the person's prior knowledge and experiences (Neuman, 2013). Gregory (1970) explains this further through his theory of top down processing. He argues that perception is a constructive process where cognitive information from past experiences or stored knowledge is used to make inferences about what is perceived. Based on this premise, it can be argued that a stakeholder's perceptions of the TEFL teaching experience in Thailand is effectively a hypothesis based upon their prior experiences and understanding. For many people therefore, their perceptions are likely to be rooted according to practices in their own countries or cultures and the educational institutions within which they have studied or worked.

Deveney (2005), in her research, attempted to address the perceptual accuracy of teachers in Thailand, although these were not limited to TEFL. She found that of the

original nine perceptions held about teaching in Thailand, only five were proved to be accurate; misconceptions were largely linked to the negative aspects of teaching in Thailand. Accurate perceptions included students being well-behaved, hard-working, non-egocentric and having a positive working attitude. Unfounded pre-conceptions included gender equality, students being quieter than in the teacher's home country, students pretending to understand instructions and students being overly differential (Deveney, 2005). Although Deveney's data set was limited in size and depth, it does provide an indication that there may be elements, particularly those of a negative nature, that the TEFL teacher may be unaware of.

This is important for a number of reasons. Firstly, it could be deemed unethical, or in extreme circumstances it could potentially be classified as a form of false or inaccurate advertising if there are significant elements of TEFL in Thailand that the prospective teacher is not made aware of by the agency or organisation that they book their placement through. Secondly, retention may be affected if the experience is not as expected as the TEFL teacher may not be happy with their placement and choose to return home, resulting in potential financial, time and educational implications for the stakeholders involved. Thirdly, if the teacher is unhappy as a result of their experience not meeting expectations, they may not perform optimally, thus impacting on aspects such as their students' learning, their colleagues' workloads and their own psychological health.

With regard to student education, it is important to consider the inaccurate perceptual implications that may result from the way that the Thai school or educational system view TEFL in Thailand. In their study of the narratives of foreign teachers, Methanonpphakhun and Deocampo (2016) briefly introduce the concept of 'travel and teach' in Thailand, which has seen a rise in foreigners, with no teaching qualifications, whose primary employment motive is to fund their travels, being recruited in educational institutions throughout the country. Similar studies have emphasised that a lack of teaching qualifications and skills is a cause for the low levels of English in Thailand compared with other Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries

(Kirkpatrick, 2012; Punthumasen, 2007). These studies do not however focus specifically on the foreign TEFL teacher.

If the Thai government are dedicated to improving the nation's English-speaking capabilities, it is important that appropriate teachers are recruited. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to obtain a comprehension as to who the recruited teachers are, their motives and their teaching credentials. The volunteer tourism sector, for example, has been confronted with similar challenges from which the TEFL sector can learn. Research has found that volunteer tourists have been recruited for programmes despite not holding the necessary skills and there is evidence that this factor has served to undermine the positive impacts desired (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Guttentag, 2009). Not only is it important that those working within the Thai education system are aware that hiring unskilled TEFL teachers may not yield optimal educational outcomes, there are also broader implications worthy of consideration. In their study of orphanage tourism Richter and Norman (2010) highlight the psychologically negative impacts on the child when the adult-child bond is broken as a result of the adult leaving, a similar circumstance to the TEFL teacher who will leave their students at the end of their TEFL placement. There is also concern in relation to the reinforcement of conceptualisations of 'the other', which is in this instance the TEFL teacher (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Coren and Gray, 2012; Guttentag, 2009; Persaud, 2014; Raymond and Hall, 2008), exploitation by commercial organisations such as 'TEFL agencies' (Coren and Gray, 2012), undesirable power relations, for example due to differences in pay between foreign and local teachers (Palacios, 2010) or the instigation of cultural changes (Guttentag, 2009). Although these issues are beyond the scope of this PhD thesis, their existence supports the need for Thai educational establishments to have a better understanding of the foreign teachers that they recruit.

The same applies to the post-TEFL recruitment of TEFL teachers upon returning to or commencing a career within the Western educational system. Recent decades have represented a period of dramatic transformation across the education sector in the UK and internationally, with trends of increased control and 'new managerialism' giving rise to an increasingly regulated and efficiency-dominated education sector (Mahony and

Hextall, 2000; Gewirtz *et al*, 2009). Currently, however, this trend does not appear to be reflected within the Thai educational system (Bolton, 2008; Bunnag, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2012; Punthumasen, 2007; Wiriyachitra, 2001). Despite there being a general acknowledgement of the differences between educational systems and their associated teaching standards in different parts of the world (Mahony and Hextall, 2000), it is likely that Western-based recruiters' perceptions will be based on their ethnocentric assumptions. It is therefore suggested that, based on their perceptions of the applicant's TEFL experiences, the Western-based educational establishment may have unrealistic expectations of the teacher's skills and capabilities, thus requiring them to perform duties for which they may not be equipped.

Similarly, this applies to universities who recruit the ex-TEFL teacher on a teacher training programme. Particularly when applying for courses that are competitive, TEFL teaching experience in Thailand may help to secure the teacher a place on a teacher training programme. However, given the current situation, where an accurate perspective of the TEFL experience in Thailand is not portrayed, the university recruitment team may perceive the teacher to have skills and capacity that they do not. As a result of this potential mis-perception, the TEFL teacher offered the university place may not be the best candidate for the position.

1.3 Aims and Objectives

Based on the preceding arguments the overriding aim of this research is to provide the identified stakeholders with an accurate overview of the TEFL teaching industry in Thailand and its participants. In order to achieve this aim the following objectives have been set:

1) To undertake an examination of the TEFL teacher's experiences whilst teaching English in Thailand by;

- Analysing the TEFL experiences outside of the classroom environment, which largely center around tourism-based elements of the experience

- Analysing the TEFL experiences inside the classroom environment, focusing on the duties required of TEFL teachers and teaching practices employed

2) To introduce and justify the concept 'TEFL tourism' through the;

- Creation of a definition of TEFL tourism

- Creation of a typology of TEFL teachers based upon teacher motivations and experiences

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is organised into ten chapters. Chapter two addresses the concept of TEFL teaching. The size and scale of the TEFL industry is emphasised by providing an overview of TEFL teaching both globally and in Thailand. The importance of English development in Thailand is highlighted, further emphasising the need for the contribution to knowledge facilitated through this thesis. Lastly, a brief overview of the tourism industry in Thailand is provided.

Chapter three analyses the associations between TEFL and tourism. It draws upon a broad range of tourism-based literature presenting the conceptual associations with volunteer, philanthropic, package, cultural, education and nightlife tourism. It includes literature relevant to tourist motivations and relevant typological models that have been developed, providing context and background for the development of the TEFL typology in chapter nine.

Chapter four focuses on linking TEFL to teaching in the global context. With the aim of enabling comparability, it first emphasises the challenges in international education prior to comparing the educational system in Thailand with those utilised in Western countries, based on published teaching standards. This examination is based on the top five nationalities from which respondents in research phase two emanated; the UK, Ireland, the USA, Australia and South Africa. This corresponds with the nationalities typically accepted by TEFL agencies.

Chapter five presents the methodological arguments underpinning the research design. It commences with discussion of the philosophical considerations of the research prior to justifying the use of both qualitative and quantitative data. The research design is explained and the use of qualitative blog analysis, as a means of exploratory research (n=37), followed by quantitative surveys (n=567) is justified. The use of descriptive statistics and logic regression in analysing the data is then authenticated. Finally, this chapter addresses the potential ethical implications of the research and how these were managed.

Chapter six focuses predominantly on quantitative data collected. Supporting qualitative data is utilised in evaluating the determining characteristics of TEFL teachers in Thailand. The characteristics of the TEFL teachers, such as demographic criteria are examined. The chapter then analyses respondent's trip characteristics focusing on elements such as TEFL duration, location and school type. The final section analyses the motives of TEFL teachers in choosing to undertake their placement and compares these with existing forms of tourism such as volunteer tourism.

Chapter seven presents details of the tourism element of the TEFL experience obtained through both qualitative and quantitative enquiry. Analysis of the TEFL experience outside of the classroom environment focuses on the importance accorded to weekends and holidays, the cultural tourism aspects of the TEFL experience, the prevalence of sun, sea, sand and nature-based experiences, philanthropic tourism-based activities and nightlife tourism. Lastly, this chapter examines sex and relationships as part of the TEFL experience.

Drawing upon the similarities and differences between TEFL teaching in Thailand and Western teaching, chapter eight details the typical duties undertaken by TEFL teachers, highlighting the large number of frustrations experienced, often as a result of cultural differences. This chapter draws upon the Western teaching standards profile created in appendix five (page 339) to examine to what extent TEFL teaching may be representative of, or preparatory for, a teaching career in Western educational systems.

As in the previous chapter, a combination of qualitative and quantitative data are discussed.

Chapter nine synthesises the data discussed in chapters six to eight in order to propose a new form of micro niche tourism 'TEFL tourism'. In doing so it presents a proposed definition based upon the research findings. The chapter then presents the TEFL typology, which examines the typical characteristics associated with those classified leisure-minded, career-minded, philanthropy-minded or expatriate-minded TEFL teachers.

Chapter ten concludes the thesis, summarising the contribution to knowledge facilitated through the research, the limitations of the research and recommendations for future research to be undertaken.

The following chapter sets the scene for the research in further detail by introducing the notion of TEFL in Thailand.

2.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the TEFL industry in Thailand, which forms the case-study for this thesis. To date, there is a dearth of literature addressing TEFL as an industry, with the bulk of references accorded to pedagogical as opposed to phenomenological research. The chapter outlines the fundamental principles of TEFL, providing the context of the size and scope of the industry on a global scale and fuelling the rationale for the research undertaken in this thesis. It then proceeds to provide an overview of both the TEFL and tourism industries in Thailand, critically analysing the limited body of existing literature. Whilst every attempt was made to locate the most current and credible sources throughout the literature review, specific case-study literature was extremely limited. It is therefore acknowledged that some sources utilised in this chapter are not of an academic nature and may have questionable methods of data collection. These sources are thus indicative in nature only. Much of this data is subsequently further explored or verified throughout this thesis.

2.2 The Scope of TEFL Worldwide

In a world of surging globalisation, English is increasingly becoming the dominant medium in every domain of communication within both local and global contexts, resulting in high demand for English speakers (Khamkhien, 2010; Punthumasen, 2007). As of 2014, the number of English language learners worldwide peaked at 1.5 billion with estimates that this figure will increase to over 2 billion by 2020 (British Council, 2014). This has generated an almost insatiable demand for TEFL teachers. The lack of qualified English instructors presents one of the largest challenges to educators and citizens across the globe. It is estimated that 250,000 native English speakers work as English teachers in more than 40,000 schools and language institutes around the world (Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) International Association, 2014), although this figure may be significantly higher as a result of employment unaccounted

for by the state, such as private tuition or those working without the correct visas or documentation.

Training and recruiting such a large number of TEFL teachers across the globe is, in itself, a challenging endeavor. Additionally educators also have to plan for the inevitably high staff turnover. The TESOL International Association (2014) state that approximately 50% of TEFL teachers remain in employment in excess of one year, with 15-20% relocating to an alternative school or country after this time, 30-35% returning home and 10% continuing employment for a third year. This results in the need for global recruitment of over 100,000 TEFL teachers annually.

English has become a centerpiece of educational reform in many countries, often in response to developments in economics, demographics and technology (Graddol, 2014). Improving a nation's English literacy is not only important in terms of business, education and diplomacy, but also to enable the populace to enjoy culture and entertainment. English language has become an integral part of world society (Pitsuwan, 2014) yet, despite this global significance, the TEFL industry has attracted sparse academic attention outside of the realms of pedagogy.

The nature of TEFL varies significantly across geographical locations, educational institutions and employers or placement organisers. Placements may be based either in the teacher's home country or abroad, can involve varying levels of teaching and can include both paid or voluntary work. Placements can be self-sourced or organised through the use of an 'agency', such as a charity or for-profit tour operator (Griffith, 2014). Currently, the industry is predominantly unregulated (Griffith, 2014; Kogar, 2014) and it can be argued that providing an objective account of the TEFL sector to facilitate global regulation may be an impossible task as a result of its extreme diversity. There are a number of ambiguities within the industry that may give rise to confusion for TEFL stakeholders. For example, there is no specific job description for a TEFL teacher, there are no regulations regarding pay and there is no universal person specification or qualification requirements. It is factors such as these that result in the existing grey dynamics of the global TEFL industry.

This hazy comprehension of the industry is further exemplified through the complexity of TEFL qualifications. There is an abundance of qualifications available to prospective TEFL teachers, at vastly different levels and costs ranging from short introductory courses to distance learning and academic programmes (Griffith, 2014). Qualifications can be undertaken prior to departure to the teaching destination (e.g. the Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) course), in an educational institution in the TEFL destination or as part of a 'package style' programme as offered by organisations such as Experience Teaching Abroad (2014). Such packages frequently offer a combined TEFL qualification and in-country training with a guaranteed job, accommodation and assistance in organising flights (Ajarn, 2014). There is a broad range of bodies certified to deliver TEFL qualifications, many differing in size, structure and nature, with little apparent differentiation between the TEFL certificates acquired (Ajarn, 2014). Given the global nature of the TEFL industry and the varying qualifications offered in different countries, the value of TEFL qualifications is both ambiguous and questionable. In effect, many TEFL stakeholders would be unlikely to be able to differentiate between a highly respected qualification that incorporates substantial teaching practice and a number of assessments such as a CELTA, or an online course that can be completed in as little as 40 hours. It can thus be argued that clarity and regulation of such qualifications is imperative.

There exists a similar lack of clarity with regard to who comprises the TEFL teaching population. Research conducted by The Association of British Travel Agents (ABTA) (2013) demonstrates that TEFL is amongst one of the most popular activities undertaken by British tourists undertaking a gap year, however there is no current data demonstrating where these 'gappers' may be based or who else may be working as TEFL teachers in different locations. This further justifies the research undertaken for this thesis as there is a lack of comprehension regarding the current TEFL teacher market.

2.3 TEFL in Thailand

Learning English is a critical component of economic and social development in Thailand (Kirkpatrick, 2012; Punthumasen, 2007). Despite recent government initiatives to

improve the standard of English, Thailand remains significantly below most of its ASEAN counterparts in this regard (Bolton, 2008; Bunnag, 2005; Khamkhien, 2010; Wiriyaichitra, 2001). The only data available at the time of research demonstrates that in 2003 only 27.1% of the Thai population spoke English and whilst there are no more recent statistics, there is little indication of improvement (Ajarn, 2014). It is thus of no surprise that there is considerable demand for TEFL teachers. There are, however, no official statistics accounting for the number of TEFL teachers in Thailand. To cope with the demand the Thai government has been recruiting native English speakers to teach English in a variety of contexts, ranging from the formal state educational system to private tuition establishments. Employment generally consists of three types of TEFL work; state school placements, private school placements and private one to one and group tuition (Ajarn, 2014; Griffith, 2014).

The bulk of TEFL opportunities are situated in Bangkok and there are major divides between the quality of education received in rural areas compared with the capital city (Kirkpatrick, 2012). Internet research conducted in 2016 indicates that prospective TEFL teachers can undertake short-term placements ranging from one week, to long-term placements lasting several months and permanent positions. There are presently no published statistics to provide detail of who teaches and for how long. The TEFL industry in Thailand can be divided into two sectors; paid teachers and voluntary teachers. The voluntary sector frequently enables those without the formal qualifications required for paid work the opportunity to work as a TEFL teacher, whilst the average salaried TEFL teacher earns in the region of 25,000-40,000Baht (£450-£720 based on April 2016 exchange rates) per month. This may differ significantly dependent upon which institution type the teacher is based in, with private schools and independent tuition commonly resulting in higher earnings (Ajarn, 2014; Griffith, 2014). This is above the average wage in Thailand and foreign teachers are often paid more than local teachers (Ajarn, 2014). Class sizes can be up to 55 students in government-run schools although they are normally smaller in private institutions (Ajarn, 2014).

It is a legal requirement for all foreign teachers to obtain the correct Thai visa. To undertake paid employment the TEFL teacher requires a non-immigrant B visa. To be

granted this, the prospective teacher requires certified copies of their degree and TEFL certificates, a criminal record clearance, an official recommendation letter from the education institution in Thailand at which they will be based and information in relation to the contract or term of employment. Similarly, those undertaking voluntary work must obtain a non-immigrant O visa by providing official recommendation from the organisation in Thailand at which they will be based and information on the term of voluntary work. Both visas are single entry valid for ninety days (Royal Thai Embassy, 2016). These visa requirements are a major source of frustration for TEFL teachers. As a result of long visa runs and confusing rules many TEFL teachers feel insecure with regard to their immigration status (Methanonpphakhun and Deocampo, 2016). It is claimed that some teachers obtain visas illegally as a result of obtaining fake qualification certificates that are readily available, particularly in the city of Bangkok (Ajarn, 2014). All teachers must undertake a Government-run Thai culture and language training course before commencing employment, a factor that it may be argued is a governmental method of obtaining data on teachers and monitoring the legitimacy of work permits (Griffith, 2014).

Although hiring foreign teachers may help with the shortage of English teachers in Thailand, this can cause problems. Punthumasen (2007) highlights that most foreign teachers are classified as 'out of field', meaning that they do not hold degrees in teacher training, nor did they major in their specialist subject, which in the instance of TEFL teachers is English. This means that, despite being able to communicate in English, teachers frequently do not have the appropriate subject knowledge or teaching skills. She further suggests that many of the foreign teachers are tourists who generally teach only for short periods, thus creating the need for continuous recruitment. Punthumasen (2007) also emphasises that teachers are often not conscientious about their responsibilities, behave inappropriately and resign from their positions without prior notice, despite their contractual agreements.

Although Punthumasen (2007) does not elaborate on what constitutes 'inappropriate behaviour', this is likely to be the result of cultural differences between the TEFL teacher and the people with whom they come into contact in the Thai TEFL environment.

Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn (2015) suggest that the social fabric of the Thai community is one of the underlying factors inhibiting the pedagogic change needed to increase English-speaking capabilities. Thai people are generally perceived by Westerners as patient, kind, accommodating and willing to please, radiating the kind of acceptance, respect and tolerance rarely found in other cultures. These characteristics permeate, having a profound influence on every aspect of life in Thailand, including education (Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015).

Supporting the notion that TEFL teachers may not accurately perceive the TEFL experience, Deveney's (2005) research demonstrates that foreign teachers do not always perceive the cultural aspects of teaching in Thailand, prior to commencing employment, accurately. She elaborates that many of these cultural differences are often a source of frustration to the teacher who is used to working within the cultural norms of Western society. Komin (1990) found three fundamental discourses to be deeply ingrained within Thai culture: self, social harmony and *sanuk* (fun/merriment). This can be identified through the dominant 'markers' within Thai culture which collectively define its key elements and which are ingrained into every aspect of life in Thailand.

One of the most dominant cultural markers is 'ego orientation', which can be understood in terms of 'face', self-esteem and pride (Komin, 1990). Shyness is a manifestation of 'face', and the Thai people are particularly reluctant to speak out or ask for help, an approach known as *kreng-jai* (Ekachai, 1990). This presents a difficulty that a foreign teacher often struggles to overcome (Deveney, 2005). It is also typical for Thai's to avoid speaking about bad things that may be associated with themselves or their communities such as, for example, disappointing assessment grades (Komin, 1990), which can often lead to 'truth avoidance' (Covey, 2005). This is in stark contrast to Western socio-cultural traditions where people are encouraged to speak out, be truthful and address issues directly (Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015).

Another dominant marker in Thai culture is that of grateful relationship orientation (Komin, 1990). The Thai people tend to have a genuine kindness, generosity,

consideration, and sincere concern for others without expecting anything in return (Komin, 1990; Kitiyadisai, 2005). This is known as *numjai*, meaning 'water from the heart' (Kitiyadisai, 2005). Rooted in the psychological dimension that 'one good turn deserves another' (Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015), the teacher in Thailand is representative of moral goodness, someone who makes a self-sacrifice to bestow the gift of knowledge for the good of the pupils, thus creating a moral debt. This debt is repaid by students being respectful and behaving appropriately (Mulder, 2000). Parents believe that they have no place in the educational system due to the high status of teachers and thus rarely intervene in the child's education (Deveney, 2005), limiting the requirement for events such as parents' evenings or progress reports. It is suggested that this attitude catalyses a 'cultural intervention' within the teacher hierarchy, where teachers are not recruited or promoted based upon their merits, but instead on existing relationships (Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015).

Smooth interpersonal relationship orientation occurs when no action or decision is taken that could cause conflict. Thai people generally believe that in order to create and maintain good relationships with others, face-to-face conflicts and confrontation must be avoided because this can cause either side to 'lose face' (Kitiyadisai, 2005). If Thai's do find themselves in any such situation they tend to take the *chai-yen* approach. This refers to an individual's ability to control themselves emotionally by remaining calm and avoiding a display of feelings or emotions (Komin, 1990; Soontayatron, 2010). The Thai population value harmony, respect and dignity; therefore it is inappropriate to express anger or impoliteness in public (Ekachai, 1990; Kislenko, 2004). An example of the impact of this in the classroom was documented in an article which claimed that in response to being requested, by a parent, to reconsider a student's homework grade, one teacher chose to stop giving homework in order to forestall future criticisms (Brown, 2014). Avoidance of conflictual issues and the hypersensitivity to criticism are factors that foreigners often find difficult to endure (Deveney, 2005; Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015).

Another dominant marker of Thai culture is that of 'flexibility and adjustment orientation'. This relates to uncritical compliance, preservation of harmony, non-

confrontation and the avoidance of giving displeasure (Komin, 1990). In the classroom environment, the most severe implication of this cultural perspective is the erosion of academic rigor, devalued qualifications and the production of students that are ill-prepared for the global realities of competition (Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015). Cheating is rife in Thailand and there is a nation-wide expectation that no student should fail, in order not to 'lose face' (Young, 2013). Cheating such as this is also demonstrated through the cultural marker 'education and competence orientation'. An individual's level of education is generally determinative of social status and respect and therefore many children outsource or plagiarise work from an early age in order to satisfy their ego orientation and to avoid 'losing face' (Komin, 1990; Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015).

These attributes and approaches can be summed up by the term 'mai pen rai' which indirectly translates as 'no worries'. This concept is so deeply engrained within Thai society that it is often the first expression that foreign visitors learn. It also implies the assumption that since problems will eventually become better, worrying about them will achieve nothing (Cai and Shannon, 2010). Moreover, there is the indirect connotation that one must surrender to forces beyond one's control, invoking the idea of karma (McCarty *et al*, 1999).

Embedded within the ego orientation cultural marker of the Thai community (Komin, 1990) and the global dominance of English as a form of linguistic imperialism (Kogar, 2014), TEFL teachers are often subjected to a racial hierarchy within the Thai educational system (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016). Referred to as 'farang', white-skinned English-speaking foreigners are subjected to forms of positive discrimination where, despite being unqualified or having less experience than their fellow applicants, they are often hired or promoted based on racial grounds (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016; Persaud, 2014). This is common practice in Thailand as most educational institutions prefer to hire teachers with white skin in order to promote and enhance their reputation (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016). This could be viewed as an example of 'othering', where the complexity and subjectivity of the individual is ignored in exchange for the objectification of the white foreigner based

upon their physical skin colour (Dervin, 2012). It could be argued that this approach towards white-skinned TEFL teachers reinforces power inequalities between developed and developing countries (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Butcher and Smith, 2010; Palcios, 2010; Raymond and Hall, 2008), representing the neo-colonial construction of the Westerner as racially and culturally superior (Raymond and Hall, 2008).

Mostafanezhad (2013) explores this idea further, where she conceptualises notions of fame and attention as a form of celebrityism. Although her research focuses on the online representations of a volunteer tourist's experience via social media as a means to a pseudo-celebrity status in its own right, it can be argued that this can also be achieved via alternative methods. Wright (2014), for example, found in her research that volunteer tourists in Nepal were viewed through a similar lens as a celebrity by the host population due to their ability to perform duties that the locals were unable to undertake, such as teaching English, along with their often material, social and aesthetic differences. As such, it could be suggested that the preferential treatment 'farang' are subjected to in Thailand (Persaud, 2014) is a form of celebrityism in its own right.

In contrast with the treatment of white-skinned foreign teachers, Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo's (2016) study demonstrated negative discrimination towards those with dark or black skin. Teachers Interviewed demonstrated that they faced prejudice and appearance issues not only from the school, but also from students and their parents. One teacher elaborated that 'I was going to start [teaching] soon but they learned that I was black and I lost the job' (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016, p9). Whilst academic research regarding race discrimination in Thailand is limited, there appear to be a greater number of references to the positive discrimination faced by white-skinned teachers than there are focusing on those with darker skin. This does not imply that this issue is not acknowledged. A simple Internet search on Google in 2016 yielded 497,000 results when searching for the term 'racism in teaching in Thailand', the top hit a published news article titled 'In Thailand black is ugly: Racist, or just misguided?' (Farrell, 2015). Whilst this is heavily debated subject matter, its platform has not received significant academic attention.

2.4 Tourism in Thailand

Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo (2016) in their research found that most TEFL teachers were not motivated to become TEFL teachers in Thailand for their love of teaching; but for many, tourism-based elements were important factors, demonstrating the links between the TEFL and tourism industries. Despite the decline in tourism numbers, resulting from the 2004 tsunami and political unrest the following year, tourism in Thailand has steadily increased. In 2010 the country received just under sixteen million international tourist arrivals. This figure has since increased to 26.5 million in 2013 (World Bank, 2015). The tourism industry has played a pivotal role in the development of Thailand's economy. It has been a major source of foreign exchange earnings and an effective means of creating employment (World Trade Organisation, 2011). In 2013 the tourism industry accounted for 20.2% of gross domestic product (GDP) and supported 15.4% of the nation's employment. It is estimated that these figures will continue to rise (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2015).

The tourism industry in Thailand exemplifies the global travel trend towards the development of a diversity of attractions and activities. For many years the four S's were at the forefront of Thailand's tourism industry- sun, sand, sea and sex (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998), however the industry has continued to diversify, promoting economic growth throughout coastal, rural and urban areas (World Trade Organisation, 2011). The success of Thailand's tourism development can be attributed to a combination of factors including a range of natural resources, location, easy accessibility, unique culture and effective marketing strategies (McDowall and Wang, 2009). Thailand is a destination with considerable appeal to international visitors. Henkel *et al's* (2006) study, examining visitor perceptions of Thailand, indicates that cultural sightseeing, friendly people, food, nightlife and entertainment are significantly important when thinking of Thailand as a tourist destination, whilst research undertaken by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (2012) demonstrated that the majority of tourists visit for the sun, sand, sea and nature.

Thailand also hosts a variety of alternative tourism forms. After the initial explosion in tourist arrivals, the industry began to disperse across the country resulting in a north-south 'tourism axis' stretching from Phuket in the South to Chaing Mai in the north and eventually to more remote areas of the country (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998). With this expansion came the heterogeneisation of tourism types leading to the diverse tourism industry that the country hosts today. Sustainable, responsible, cultural and eco-tourism are now prominent holiday themes across the country, in which key considerations include the distribution of economic benefits, environmental protection and social responsibility. This is evident in the National Tourism Development Plan 2012-2016, which promotes host community participation in tourism development, the development and rehabilitation of tourist destinations for sustainability, and fair distribution of the economic benefits of tourism (World Trade Organisation, 2011). Thailand is the number one destination for gap year travelers and backpackers according to the ABTA (2013). Backpackers are found throughout all areas of Thailand. Tour operators such as STA Travel or i to i offer paid or volunteering experiences such as TEFL teaching (see table 3.1) alongside a variety of trips ranging from cultural immersion in remote hill tribes and villages, to religious pilgrimages and temple visits, historical excursions, jungle treks, adventure tourism such as white water rafting, zip lining or rock climbing, beach visits and diving courses and party opportunities including the infamous full moon party held on the island of Koh Pangang.

However, drug and alcohol tourism, often associated with backpackers and package tourists, has been deemed problematic in the country. Despite there, to date, being no scholarly papers specifically addressing these issues in Thailand, the widespread concern is evident through the frequently published Internet media and news coverage addressing it. It has been reported that tourists in Thailand can easily obtain cheap alcohol, often in large quantities, and a range of illegal substances such as hallucinogenic mushrooms, cannabis and opium. These drugs may be sold on their own or they may be disguised within food or drink. The unsociable behaviour demonstrated at various parties and social events has unfavorable impacts on the health systems, the local environment and community and is dangerous for the tourists themselves (Turow,

2012). Many tourists are unaware of the severe punishments for consuming drugs in Thailand, with penalties including imprisonment of up to five years and fines of up to £2000 for possession and the risk of the death penalty if caught with drugs at a border crossing (UK Government, 2016).

Such negative connotations are also demonstrated within the sex trade. Locating reliable statistics confirming the scale of sex tourism within Thailand is a challenging task due to the often 'discreet' nature of the trade, and the likelihood that not all employment is publically accounted for. However the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) (2014) estimated the total population of sex workers in Thailand to be 123,530. The sex tourism industry in Thailand consists predominantly of prostitution and sexual entertainment such as sex shows. It can be suggested that Thailand's sex industry has become a tourist attraction in itself, with red light districts being recommended in several reputable guidebooks (Kusy, 1991). There are different levels of tourist involvement in the sex trade in Thailand, ranging from seeking long-term romantic relationships in search of a 'Thai bride' (Ruenkaew, 1999; Sims, 2012), to undertaking casual sexual encounters (Green, 2001) and encountering sex tourism as entertainment (Kelley, 2015).

Variously termed a religion and philosophy, Buddhism occupies a significant part of the Thai social fabric (Komin, 1990), which is evident in many tourism forms and experiences. There are approximately 30,000 Buddhist temples across the country and at least one in every village (Parkay *et al*, 1999). Thai people are extremely appreciative of their land and it is common for tourists to join with the locals to celebrate various ceremonies and rituals such as *Loy Krathong*, and *Songkran*, symbolising the coming of water and emphasising the extremes of deprivation and plenty as a result of the wet and dry seasons. Although Thailand is in the process of becoming a Newly Industrialised Country, the great majority of its people still live in rural areas and as a result, festivities such as these are very important to many Thai people (Forman, 2005).

2.5 Conclusion

This brief explanation and overview of the TEFL industry, in both generic and Thai terms, emphasises that, outside of the pedagogical realms, there is a distinct lack of academic literature addressing the concept of TEFL. There is evidence that the TEFL industry is both expansive and vitally important within a global and Thai context. Literature addressing the TEFL industry in Thailand, used as a basis for this chapter, whilst providing insight is limited in approach, size and in some cases academic rigour. These shortcomings underpin the need for further research in respect of the TEFL industry in Thailand. The following chapter further explores the notions of TEFL teaching in Thailand, presenting a critical analysis of the associated tourism forms and justifying the amalgamation of the concepts of TEFL and tourism.

3.1 Introduction

In order to justify the introduction of TEFL tourism as a micro niche tourism form, this chapter analyses the literature pertaining to the different tourism types that link with the practice of TEFL teaching in Thailand. Whilst the noted associations are by no means exhaustive, this review provides the foundation for an enhanced comprehension of the TEFL experience, providing context and enabling the first research objective to be addressed through the examination of the tourism-based elements of the TEFL experience. The most frequent references to TEFL teaching as a phenomenon fall within the literature addressing volunteer tourism and literature relevant to the research objectives is discussed throughout this chapter. Additionally, this chapter addresses the concept of philanthropy in tourism relevant to this research when examining whether the TEFL teacher's experiences and motivations may be altruistic or otherwise. It then addresses the mass tourism market, with particular focus on the notion of package holidays and evidence of the TEFL package. Cultural and educational tourism are presented as fundamental elements of the TEFL experience, whether this be intentional or circumstantial. Lastly, the concept of nightlife tourism in Thailand is addressed.

3.2 The Conceptual Links between Volunteer Tourism and TEFL

Volunteer tourism, also known as voluntourism or a volunteer vacation, is often discursively constructed overlapping a number of research fields, including those of tourism research, volunteering and leisure studies, in addition to incorporating a variety of forms of tourism within its realms (Lyons and Wearing, 2012; Mostafanezhad, 2013). Fundamentally, the concept comprises both volunteerism and tourism and can today be found in virtually every sector, even in the extremes of mass tourism (Butcher, 2011; Wearing and McGehee, 2013a). In line with the general perspective taken towards niche tourism, volunteer tourism plays on the pejorative connotations that have accompanied the evolution of mass and package tourism and their negative impacts which frequently

relate to environmental degradation and socio-cultural disturbance (Robinson and Novelli, 2007). This is demonstrated through Wearing's (2001, p1) definition; '[Volunteer tourists are] those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organised way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment.'

Although frequently used, this definition is no longer contemporary (Lyons and Wearing, 2012; Wearing and McGehee, 2013a), since it fails to address the ever-expanding limits of volunteer tourism, its manifestation in a range of contexts and its progressive movement away from being a micro to a macro niche (Stainton, 2016; Wearing and McGehee, 2013a). It has been suggested that, as a result of the continually growing and evolving industry, scholars should take a more specific approach analysing the different types of volunteering individually in order to facilitate in-depth analysis that is specific to that particular activity (Stainton, 2016). One such example is the study of TEFL teaching. This phenomenon may, in some instances, fall under volunteer tourism, in others it may not (Stainton, 2016). This is particularly relevant to paid TEFL teaching. Traditionally volunteer tourism has been associated with those who receive no monetary compensation for their efforts (Brudney, 2000; Wearing, 2001; Ellis, 2003). However, the blurring of paid and voluntary work has become commonplace (Lyons, 2003; Lyons and Wearing, 2012) with many organisations providing incentives such as reimbursements, cash and qualifications as part of the volunteering experience (Ellis, 1997). Conversely, Tomazos and Butler (2009) claim that volunteer tourism projects are not 'true' opportunities if they are internships or paid employment. Whilst some researchers may thus classify a teaching placement as a form of volunteer tourism, others may not (Stainton, 2016).

The last decade has seen a steady increase in the scholarship of volunteer tourism, with the phenomenon moving from the periphery towards the centre of tourism research (Wearing and McGehee, 2013a). The sector has experienced exponential growth in recent years (Coghlan and Fennel, 2009; Wearing and McGehee, 2013b), with the latest

available statistics putting the value of the volunteer tourism industry at £77.2 million and volunteer tourist spend at £832m-£1.3bn per year (Tourism Research and Marketing (TRAM), 2008). Volunteers typically pay for the privilege of volunteering (Broad and Jenkins, 2008; Keese, 2011; Wearing, 2001). This payment frequently covers housing, meals, project materials, administration and on-site staff support (Keese, 2011; Tomazos and Butler, 2009). Volunteer destinations range from local to long-haul (Brown, 2005), with the average volunteer trip costing the participant approximately £2000 (TRAM, 2008). With the prolific commercial growth of the industry and developments in the world economy these costs are likely to have increased since the time of publication (Tomazos and Butler, 2009). The average volunteer tourist is aged 18-25 years (Broad and Jenkins, 2008; TRAM, 2008; Tomazos and Butler, 2009; Wearing, 2001), the majority are female (Brown, 2005; TRAM, 2008), majority single (Gecko *et al*, 2009; Tomazos and Butler, 2009) and of a white ethnicity (Birdwell, 2011). Volunteer tourists tend to be educated to university level (Birdwell, 2011; Brown, 2005; Tomazos and Butler, 2009) and most tend to be continuing students or those undertaking a gap year (Gecko *et al*, 2009) with the average placement lasting two to four weeks in duration (Callanan and Thomas, 2005; Gecko *et al*, 2009; Keese, 2011).

Initial research into the volunteer tourism phenomenon largely focused around motivations benefiting the host community such as altruism, giving something back and helping others (e.g. Brown, 2005; Chen and Chen, 2011; Coghlan, 2006; Gecko *et al*, 2009; Leonard and Onyx, 2009; Lo and Lee, 2011; Sin, 2009; Soderman and Snead, 2008; Wearing, 2001; Wickens, 2011). Studies have, however, also demonstrated the significance of a number of motivational factors beneficial to the volunteer tourist such as developing skills and experience to aid career progression (e.g. Coghlan, 2006; Coghlan and Fennel, 2009; Daldeniz and Hampton, 2011; Soderman and Snead, 2008), personal development (e.g. Benson and Seibert, 2009; Coghlan, 2006; Gecko *et al*, 2009; Soderman and Snead, 2008; Wearing, 2001, Wickens, 2011), cultural immersion (e.g. Benson and Seibert, 2009; Brown, 2005; Chen and Chen, 2011; Coghlan, 2006; Gecko *et al*, 2009; Lo and Lee, 2011; Sin, 2009; Taillon and Jamal, 2013; Wickens, 2011) and the desire to do 'something meaningful' (e.g. Coghlan, 2006; Gecko *et al*, 2009).

However, as research into volunteer tourism has progressed, academics have begun to express the need for a more cautionary approach; highlighting that not all the motivations previously identified are primary reasons for participating in volunteer tourism projects (Benson and Seibert, 2009; Broad and Jenkins, 2008; Chen and Chen, 2011; Coghlan, 2006; Daldeniz and Hampton, 2011; Sin, 2009; Soderman and Snead, 2008; Wickens, 2011). A number of external influences may be important factors. These include, for example, the desire to learn the local language (Soderman and Snead, 2008) or to live in another country (Benson and Seibert, 2009; Wickens, 2011); the influence of family or peers (Chen and Chen, 2011; Soderman and Snead, 2008); religion (Brown, 2005; Taillon and Jamal, 2013) and cost (Chen and Chen, 2011; Coghlan and Fennel, 2009; Gecko *et al*, 2009; Sin, 2009). The reputation of the volunteer tourism organiser sometimes plays a role in motivation (Lo and Lee, 2011) along with the structure of the programme offered (Soderman and Snead, 2008; Wearing, 2001) and whether the placement is part of a course requirement (Daldeniz and Hampton, 2011; Lyons, 2003; Lyons and Wearing, 2008). Education is a frequently noted motivation (Benson and Seibert, 2009; Brown, 2005; Coghlan, 2006; Gecko *et al*, 2009; Leonard and Onyx, 2009; Lo and Lee, 2011; Wearing, 2001). There are additionally some motivations, such as sex tourism, which have seldom been researched (Wright, 2014).

Early research suggested that volunteers would fit into one of two motivational categories; those who are primarily volunteer-minded and those who are primarily vacation-minded (Brown and Morrison, 2003). Volunteer-minded individuals tend to devote the majority of their time to volunteer activities at the destination (Brown, 2005), emphasising their altruistic motivations. The antithesis of this type is the vacation-minded tourist, who is likely to spend only a short amount of time volunteering during their trip and a considerable amount of their time focused on the hedonistic elements (Brown, 2005). Similarly, Daldeniz and Hampton's (2011) typology classes volunteer tourists as VOLUNtourists and volunTOURISTS. Here the VOLUNtourist is one that is predominantly motivated by prospects of helping those less fortunate, whereas the volunTOURIST is primarily motivated by their desire to travel and explore. While a VOLUNtourist would immerse him/herself within the local culture, a volunTOURIST

would see him/herself as an outsider or a traveller. Although these classifications are simplistic and based on early and broad comprehension of the sector, they can be utilised as a means of basic categorisation of TEFL teachers in determining whether they are motivated predominantly by teaching or by tourism. This differentiation is utilised as a basis for the TEFL teacher typology proposed in chapter nine.

A more comprehensive typology of volunteer tourists that can be used to inform the development of the TEFL teacher typology is that of Callanan and Thomas (2005), who propose that volunteer tourists are best categorised by motivation based on their choice of destination, duration of project, focus on experience (self-interest versus altruism), qualifications, active versus passive participation, and level of contribution to local people. Shallow volunteers are classified as those who are dominated by personal interest, preferring short trips (normally a few weeks), demonstrating few skills, experiencing low levels of direct contribution to locals and tending to be more passive in participation (Chen and Chen, 2011), consequently impacting on their ability to contribute significantly to the local environment or community (Holmes and Smith, 2012). These volunteer tourists are focused on self-interest and self-development and demonstrate motives such as CV and ego enhancement (Holmes and Smith, 2012). At the other end of the continuum, those volunteers who tend to have greater consideration for the community are classified as 'deep' tourists. These tourists typically participate in projects that are longer in duration (at least six months) and possess specific skills and qualifications. For these tourists, the project and the impact on the environment and community are key to the volunteer experience.

Volunteers are driven by a mix of motivations and motivation factors are complex and multifaceted (Wearing, 2004). Soderman and Snead (2008) and McGehee *et al* (2009) separate volunteer tourists into three categories; the Vanguardists, the Pragmatists and the Questers. The most motivated group are the Vanguardists who demonstrate interest in aspects such as skills building and seek the most physically and mentally intense volunteer tourism experiences. This is the smallest of the three categories and tends to comprise the youngest participants. The largest group are the Pragmatists. These tend

to be middle-aged volunteers that are motivated by the prospects of developing relationships with locals and demonstrate a desire for human connection. The third group, the Questers, tend to be the oldest and demonstrate a lack of awareness of their motivations. However, in contrast to the Vanguard, who tend to demonstrate self-interest motivations, they gravitate towards the altruistic (McGehee *et al*, 2009).

The volunteer tourist has long been a challenge to define (Gecko *et al*, 2009) and the lack of clarity about the role of a volunteer tourist has created what has been described as 'role ambiguity' (Lyons and Wearing, 2008). Many volunteers do not perceive themselves as tourists (Wearing, 2001; Stoddart and Rogerson, 2004; Lepp, 2008) and some actively promote an anti-tourist theme (Lepp, 2008). By contrast, some volunteers perceive themselves as a tourist at various points during their trips (for example when they have completed their volunteering duties) and as a volunteer at others (Sin, 2009). Mustonen (2005) similarly identifies the shifting roles of volunteer tourists, who may go from being tourists seeking pleasure, relaxation and stimulation during part of their trip to altruistically helping the community or environment at other times.

Proponents of typological research argue that this provides a valuable foundation for understanding and acting within the respective market (Lyons and Wearing, 2008). However, it can be argued that the models discussed are simplistic since they do not take the different segments of the volunteer tourism industry, such as the TEFL sector, into account (Stainton, 2016). Furthermore, the way in which tourists are classified is largely based on opinion as opposed to systematic evidence. It is also worth noting that the existing research surrounding volunteer tourism motivation is not entirely representative. Firstly, the industry is now emerging into the Asian and African markets (Alexander, 2012; Lo and Lee, 2011), meaning that the majority of existing research does not account for tourists from these backgrounds. Secondly, research into the motivations of volunteer tourists within a particular sector of the industry, such as TEFL, are limited, thus questioning the value of research taking a broad approach (Stainton, 2016).

3.3 The Conceptual Links between Philanthropic Tourism and TEFL

Travel philanthropy is an evolving phenomenon (Novelli *et al*, 2015), yet despite having strong foundations within many forms of tourism (for example disaster, volunteer and eco-tourism), it remains significantly under-researched. It has been argued that philanthropy is a niche in tourism, but to a similar extent tourism is a niche in philanthropy (Bergman, 2013). Existing research largely focuses on corporate philanthropy or the sustainable practicalities of philanthropic travel but, to date, there appears to be little examination of philanthropic tourists themselves. With philanthropic or altruistic motivations forming an integral part of relevant academic debates, most notably in the volunteer tourism literature, this thesis contributes to the currently under-developed body of literature addressing philanthropy in tourism.

Philanthropic behaviour broadly refers to all activity which promotes human well-being, for example blood donations, voluntary work or financial contributions (Reddy, 1980). In the context of tourism, Goodwin *et al* (2009) posit this as the donating of money, in-kind resources, or time occasioned by or facilitated by travel. Similarly, such practices are also frequently referred to in the relevant literature as altruism. Novelli *et al* (2015) outline the three dominant types of philanthropy in today's post-modern society: strategic-corporate, social-entrepreneurship and social-justice philanthropy. As previously stated, the corporate market monopolises much of the academic literature addressing travel philanthropy and, although there are some organisations which are involved with TEFL projects through corporate donations or staff volunteering schemes such as PepsiCo for example (Pepsico, 2016), these are neither widely known nor are they the focus of this research. Instead, it is proposed that understanding strategic philanthropy undertaken by corporations may aid in the comprehension of individuals with possible philanthropic intentions, including TEFL teachers.

Also termed philanthrocapitalism (Edwards, 2009), strategic corporate philanthropy is frequently utilised as a means to enhancing competitive identity and social engagement (McAlister, and Ferrell, 2002; Hero, 2001). Although organisations may have benevolent intentions, at the heart of their motivations is frequently the potential for enhanced

commercial prospects, such as promotion of their brand image or increased potential to work with sponsors, as opposed to the cause they are claiming to support (Porter and Kramer, 2002). This same notion could be applied to tourists who exhibit motives such as career development (Coghlan, 2006; Coghlan and Fennel, 2009; Daldeniz and Hampton, 2011; Soderman and Snead, 2008) or who undertake philanthropic endeavours as part of a course requirement (Daldeniz and Hampton, 2011; Lyons, 2003; Lyons and Wearing, 2008), where helping others is secondary to the personal benefits they receive. Social entrepreneurship is the attempt to draw upon business techniques and private sector approaches to find solutions to social, cultural, or environmental problems and whilst this approach may differ from traditional businesses due to the increased focus on improving society, it is still liable to these aspects of self-enhancement, particularly where there is a lack of accountability (Wagner, 2002).

Social-justice, or social change philanthropy, focuses on building a broad progressive movement that aims to address the root causes of social and economic inequalities (Goldberg, 2002). It could be argued that the Thai government's attempts at improving the nation's English-speaking capabilities and the ensuing recruitment of TEFL teachers could fall within this category, although it appears that commercial prospects are the dominant motivation behind the government's endeavours in this regard (Kirkpatrick, 2012; Punthumasen, 2007). It could be argued that this thesis, in fact, takes a social-justice approach with the intention of increasing awareness of who the TEFL teachers in Thailand are, which can subsequently facilitate better management and recruitment of teachers, in turn enhancing the educational prospects for students.

Goodwin *et al* (2009) suggest the use of 'travel philanthropy' as an umbrella term for the three practices of individual giving (either directly or via an intermediary) and corporate and/or personal fundraising and volunteering. Building on the debates in section 3.2, volunteer tourism has typically been associated with selfless activities or behaviours concerned with the well-being of others (Lyons, 2003; Mustonen, 2005; Wearing and McGehee, 2013b). Scholars, have however, now begun to question its role (Wearing, 2001, Callanan and Thomas, 2005; Coghlan and Fennel, 2009), highlighting

that while volunteer tourism will almost always consist of elements of helping others, it is not necessarily indicative of the volunteer tourist's primary motivations (Lyons and Wearing, 2012). Wearing and McGehee (2013a) advance this debate arguing that there may not be such a thing as an unselfish volunteer and that many volunteers will in fact disguise their search for self-discovery behind their altruistic façade.

Stebbins (2000) further suggests that altruism and self-serving needs should be placed side by side, indicating that one does not come at the expense of the other. Other researchers propose that volunteers can adopt any position on the continuum between pure altruism and pure egotism and can possess multiple motivations simultaneously (Hustinx, 2001; Tomazos and Butler, 2010). Lyons (2003) however argues that taking a general approach to the extent to which altruism plays the role of a key motivator for volunteer tourism is a fallacy, since volunteers are not a homogenous entity. This thus supports Stainton's (2016) contention that the current research approach to volunteer tourism is too broad to facilitate true understanding of the specific types of volunteering available, for example TEFL teaching.

3.4 The Conceptual Links between Package Tourism and TEFL

The mass tourist industry is generally perceived as the antithesis of philanthropic tourism. Holiday packages, an integral part of the mass tourism sector, are commonly facilitated through the use of third party agents, often referred to as tour operators, whose function is to purchase and assemble a number of components in the transportation, accommodation and other travel sectors before selling these as a commodified holiday package (Holloway, 1992; Fletcher *et al*, 2013). Although this fundamental purpose has remained the same for the past twenty-five years, the nature of packages has evolved in situ with the dynamicity of the tourism industry (Vainikka, 2014). Often considered a manifestation of mass tourism, package holidays have traditionally been associated with sea, sun and sand motivations and destinations, along with the homogenous and standardised nature of Fordist mass (Fletcher *et al*, 2013; Poon, 1993). Despite the progressive move away from this association, mass and alternative forms of tourism largely remain dialectically polarised (Weaver, 2007) and

have been described as hierarchical (Vainikka, 2014), with mass tourism associated with negative connotations and alternative or sustainable tourism forms viewed as ‘good’ or ‘better’.

Weaver (2007) argues that alternative forms of tourism (for example TEFL tourism as proposed in this thesis) have begun to converge with the mass market, but the process is asymmetrical and heavily skewed towards mass tourism. This is demonstrated through the significant increases in the number of commercial operators that have subsequently changed the face of the volunteer tourism industry (Wearing and McGehee, 2013b). As such, the ideological foundations of early volunteer tourism are now threatened in exchange for a profit-driven industry (Mostafanezhad, 2013). Although there do not yet appear to be any academic studies focusing on the fiscal nature of the TEFL industry in Thailand, the commercial presence of the industry in the market is indisputable. A 2016 Google Internet search conducted by the author for the term *TEFL teaching in Thailand* revealed 454,000 results, demonstrating the significance of this sector. To examine all opportunities available to the consumer however is far beyond the reach of this thesis; table 3.1 therefore provides a summary of the opportunities presented on the first page of results, providing an overview of the TEFL opportunities advertised and highlighting the commercialisation of the TEFL sector in Thailand.

Table 3.1: TEFL Opportunities in Thailand

TEFL Organisation	Placement Details	Cost to TEFL Teacher	Monthly Salary in Country	Person Specification	Programme Synopsis
i to i (Owned by First Choice Holidays)	-5 months teaching -Orientation and full support throughout -120 hours online TEFL training and 2 days classroom training	£1095	£315* + accommodation and weekday meals	-Must hold a university degree -Must be a native English speaker -No experience required -Must be aged between 21-45 -Must have a passport from the UK, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia or New Zealand	‘...discover the ins and outs of laid-back Thai life, by living as an English teacher in the local community. Explore lively cities, chill out on idyllic white sand beaches, visit serene temples and get to grips with teaching English in a friendly host school. You’ll earn a generous monthly allowance and be able to live very comfortably, and you’ll receive great support throughout.’
TEFL Heaven	-6 months+ teaching -3-4 weeks face-to-face TEFL training -Guaranteed placement hosted via Media Kids	£1095	£600* + accommodation during TEFL training	-Must hold a university degree -Must be a native English speaker -No experience required -Must have a passport from the UK, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand or South Africa	‘Join a face-to-face TEFL course with around 20 or so like-minded individuals, train in TEFL, with complimentary holiday resort accommodation in a paradise location in Thailand – and receive a guaranteed paid teaching job afterwards for 6 months or more! Get 3 times more than the average local salary and enjoy a country that is known internationally as “The Land of Smiles!”’
International TEFL Academy	-6-12 months teaching	£935-£1450*	£350-£500*	-Programme open to worldwide participants	‘Teaching English overseas not just an opportunity to work abroad, it is the chance to truly immerse

(Promoted via Goabroad.com)	-180 hour TEFL course + 20 hours practical training -Lifetime job placement assistance			-Must possess excellent native-level English -No experience necessary	yourself in a new culture, experience a different way of life, build friendships that will last a lifetime and discover your own potential... you'll have the opportunity to experience a land, its people, and culture firsthand, see the sights and sample the local cuisine, and make friends you'll have for a lifetime... International TEFL Academy can be the gateway to making your travel dreams a reality.'
Teach English ESL	-5-10 months+ teaching -120 hour TEFL course -Lifetime TEFL support	£1660*	Salary dependent on qualifications	-Must be able to read, write and speak English fluently (no need to be a native speaker) -No experience necessary -No qualifications necessary	'If the limestone karst formations of Thailand's southern coast have you beaming with delight, our Krabi TEFL Course is just for you. A long-time favorite destination for beach goers and rock climbers alike, with stunning sunsets, island hopping and great nightlife, Krabi has all the charm of a beach city and none of the unwanted fluff. With our three-week, internationally accredited TESOL / TEFL course in Thailand , you can live your dream of teaching English abroad. And the best part of all? It comes with ESL job placement in Thailand!'
SEE TEFL	-4-5 months teaching -2 weeks teaching essentials training -SEE TEFL Certification awarded on completion of semester one + 2000 word essay	£900*	£500*+ accommodation during training	-Must hold a university degree -Must be a native English speaker -Must be aged 21-50 -Must have a passport from the UK, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia or New Zealand -Must possess police clearance from their home country	'The SEE TEFL Paid Internship is an ideal way for people who wish to experience living and working in Thailand as a paid English language teacher, but who are not ready to commit to a 4-week training course, or a teaching commitment longer than 5 months... with a salary of not less than 25,000 Thai Baht (THB) per month...It is possible to save money from this salary during the internship period, and afford at the end of the teaching placement a few months traveling Thailand and Southeast Asia and/or sitting on a beach under a palm tree, or trekking in the jungles... There will be other foreigners in the

				-No experience necessary	internship placement town, but these are likely to be other teachers, adventurous travellers or expats.'
Teach Away (2016)	-12 months teaching -Online TEFL qualification available separately	Not stated on website	£300-£600*	-Must have a university degree -Must have a TEFL certificate -Usually will have previous ESL teaching experience	'For those who are interested in teaching English in Thailand, Teach Away offers a variety of teaching jobs ranging from ESL instructors in private language institutes to English teachers at private international schools. These positions are ideal for teachers looking to advance their professional careers, or for social, active individuals looking to travel and explore new employment opportunities in a dream location.'
Gap 360	-6-12 months teaching -120 hour TEFL/TESOL course -1week Thai language and culture orientation	£999	Up to £830*	-Must be aged 21-35 -Must be a native English speaker -Must have a passport from the UK, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand or South Africa -No experience necessary -No qualifications necessary	'This programme is unique as it offers a whole week of exciting cultural immersion, where you can discover all about Thai culture, see the sights, learn a little of the Thai language and have fun trying Thai cooking or visiting temples! Get a paid teaching job in Thailand after training and earn up to USD1200 per month in a teaching placement. Train directly in a Thai school environment, gain practical classroom experience and study at our beach front training centre with views of the sea in beautiful, laid-back Hua Hin! Meet like-minded mates and bond with teaching buddies as you train. Make a real difference to the lives of Thai kids as a school teacher, plus volunteer for 2 days teaching at a kids camp during your TEFL training!'

Based on- i to i (2016), TEFL Heaven (2016), Goabroad (2016), Teach English ESL (2016), SEE TEFL (2016), Teach Away (2016), Gap 360 (2016)

*Based on May 2016 exchange rates

It can be argued that the organisations listed in Table 3.1 act as post-modern tour operators that have moved beyond the traditional stereotype of the package holiday (Vanikka, 2014). Many programmes offer travel advice and orientation prior to departure, in-country transportation, accommodation and visa assistance (Griffith, 2014). In addition, some programmes offer optional excursions such as orphanage tours (TEFL Heaven, 2016). Whilst, in essence, an inclusive package such as this may replicate the essential components of a modern package holiday, the nature of TEFL teaching is very different from the typical sea, sun and sand holidays. Despite this fundamental difference, the websites of the organisations listed promote a strong theme of tourism, with images and rhetoric of exotic beaches, cultural tourism, camaraderie and parties (as represented through the programme synopsis in Table 3.1). This factor highlights the need for the conceptual amalgamation of package tourism and TEFL and gives rise to the question as to why the two research areas have not yet been combined by scholars, despite the strong associations as presented to the consumer.

There are a range of TEFL organisation types, as outlined in chapter one, ranging from charitable, governmental or non-profit organisations to commercial ventures (Griffith, 2014). However, table 3.1, which represents all links found on the first page of Google when searching for the term *Teaching in Thailand*, emphasises the prominence of commercial organisations. The prolific nature of the industry is demonstrated, for example, through the company i to i who offer TEFL placements as part of their provision and, despite their individual branding, are owned by the profit-maximising organisation First Choice Holidays (Benson and Wearing, 2012) who are typically associated with modern package holidays. It is, therefore no surprise that TEFL teaching opportunities provided by such agents have strong associations with the traditional package tourism model.

The monetary exchange for doing good poses several philosophical and ethical questions and it is argued that monetary gain is not appropriate in a world of benevolent intentions (Tomazos and Cooper, 2012). Some researchers have argued that organisations are tapping into demand and are actively exploiting niches, such as TEFL

teaching, with high prices charged (Keese, 2011; Tomazos and Butler, 2009) and benefits to the hosts questionable (Benson and Wearing, 2012). Although it is not the intention of this thesis to analyse the commercial enterprises involved with the TEFL industry, it can be argued that TEFL stakeholders, most importantly the TEFL teachers, have a moral right to understand the ethos and intentions of the organisation that they are choosing to commit to. To date, there is no clear distinction between the types of agents offering TEFL placements and the differences in their services and values. This is akin to the volunteer tourism industry, where it is argued that the ever-evolving marketplace contributes to an ambiguous industry. With such variations in terms of size, ethos and business there are concerns with regard to the value of projects promoted by these agents (Tomazos and Butler, 2009). Some agents have a broader knowledge and understanding of tourism and development (and by extension TEFL teaching) than others (Wearing and McGehee, 2013b). However the current lack of regulation of the industry leaves the door open for opportunists (Tomazos and Butler, 2009). This is an area worthy of additional examination.

The ambiguous nature of TEFL organisations, coupled with the lack of regulation of the wider TEFL industry (Griffith, 2014; Kogar, 2014), gives rise to the question of whether those organisations with predominantly financial motivations will recruit the best teachers to help enhance Thailand's social and economic development and train them in the best way, with the potential for exploitation by profit-focussed organisations (Keese, 2011; Tomazos and Butler, 2009). Table 3.1 demonstrates that many organisations provide a TEFL or teacher training course as part of the package. However, there are no details of the awarding bodies or level of qualification acquired and some organisations do not specify whether training takes place online or face-to-face. This further supports the claims (see chapter one page 14) made regarding the ambiguity of qualifications held by TEFL teachers (Ajarn, 2014). Akin to this are the essential criteria for TEFL applicants. Similar to the volunteer tourism industry, many packages have minimal or no requirements regarding the skills set needed to participate (Brown and Morrison, 2003; Guttentag, 2009), a factor which can subsequently negatively impact

on the quality of work undertaken (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Guttentag, 2009), and undermine the positive impacts desired for the host.

3.5 The Conceptual Links between Cultural Tourism and TEFL

Chapter two outlined some key elements of Thai culture, many of which are clearly ingrained in Thailand's tourism industry, whilst other cultural elements may be less noticeable to the average tourist. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (2000) broadly define cultural tourism as the movements of persons who satisfy the human need for diversity, tending to raise the cultural level of the individual and giving rise to new knowledge, experience and encounters. Cultural tourism is commonly associated with education in this respect, with some researchers describing it more narrowly as educational cultural tourism (for example Buhalis and Costa, 2006; Horner and Swarbrooke, 2007; Richards, 2005). The inherent link between cultural tourism and education emphasises the relevance of this form of tourism to the examination of TEFL tourism, with education being at the core of the experience.

Although a common, more specific definition has not been agreed amongst academics due to the complexity and subjectivity of the term cultural tourism, there do appear to be two distinct viewpoints. The first focuses on the consumption of cultural products such as sites or monuments (Bonink, 1992; Munsters, 1994). The second comprises all aspects of travel, where travellers learn about the history and heritage of others or about their contemporary ways of life or thought (MacIntosh and Goeldner, 1986). TEFL teaching provides access to culture in two spheres, firstly through undertaking excursions to cultural sites such as temples or museums and secondly through community engagement whilst working in a Thai educational establishment. Csapo (2012) contends that the umbrella term 'cultural tourism' can encompass a number of tourism forms including heritage (material for example historic buildings and non-material, for example literature, arts); cultural thematic routes (for example spiritual, gastronomic, linguistic); cultural city tourism; traditions/ethnic tourism; events and festivals; religious tourism and creative culture (for example performing arts, crafts). Whilst TEFL teaching can be argued to constitute a cultural thematic route in its own

right as a result of inherent interactions with the local community and their culture, the TEFL experience also integrates other aspects of cultural tourism identified by Csapo (2012).

In an attempt to understand the scope of cultural tourism within the TEFL experience, relevant typologies can be examined, which are generally based on the tourist's level of motivation. Bywater (1993), for example, differentiated tourists according to whether they were culturally interested, motivated or inspired. Culturally-interested tourists demonstrate a general interest in culture and consume cultural attractions casually as part of a holiday rather than consciously planning to do so. Culturally-motivated tourists consume culture as a major part of their trip, but do not choose their destination on the basis of specific cultural experiences, whereas, for culturally-inspired tourists, culture is the main goal of their holiday.

A more complex typology was proposed by McKercher and Du Cros (2002), who grouped tourists based on the depth of the cultural experience sought, separating them into one of five hierarchical categories. The first is the purposeful cultural tourist for whom cultural tourism is their primary motive for travel. These tourists have a very deep cultural experience. The second category comprises the sightseeing cultural tourist for whom cultural tourism is a primary reason for visiting a destination, but the experience is more shallow in nature. Thirdly the serendipitous cultural tourist does not travel for cultural reasons but, after participating in cultural activities, ends up having a deep cultural tourism experience. The fourth category, the casual cultural tourist, is weakly motivated by culture and subsequently has a shallow experience. Lastly, the incidental cultural tourist is one who does not travel for cultural tourism reasons, but nonetheless participates in some cultural activities and has shallow experiences.

Adapting this typology, Petroman *et al* (2013) segment tourists based on their preferred cultural activities. The purposeful cultural tourist, identified by McKercher and Du Cros (2002), enjoys learning experiences that challenge them intellectually and visits history museums, art galleries, temples and heritage sites that are less well known. The tour-amateur cultural tourist is akin to McKercher and Du Cros' (2002) sightseeing cultural

tourist. These tourists often travel long distances, visit remote areas and enjoy tours and wandering through the streets. For the occasional cultural tourist, culture plays a moderate role in the travel decision. This tourist enjoys an insignificant cultural experience, their preferred activities being to visit attractions and temples that are easy to reach and explore, although not to the extent that the tour-amateur cultural tourist does. For the incidental cultural tourist, culture plays a small or no role in the decision to travel. They enjoy an insignificant cultural experience whilst visiting attractions that are within easy reach or are heritage theme parks. Petroman *et al*'s (2013) final segment is the accidental cultural tourist. Culture plays a small or no role in the decision to travel, yet the accidental cultural tourist enjoys a deep cultural experience. This tourist type is diverse and as such has no preferred activities attributed to it. Whilst these typologies are somewhat vague and subjective in nature, they can be utilised as a means to understanding the extent to which cultural tourism plays a key role in the TEFL experience.

3.6 The Conceptual Links between Educational Tourism and TEFL

As noted in section 3.5, cultural and educational tourism are often inherently linked, yet to date research focusing on cultural educational tourism remains largely under-developed. Education is fundamentally at the core of the TEFL experience, most notably the education provided by the teacher to the students, which is discussed at length in chapter four. This section focuses on the educational associations with tourism, where the ability to either receive or provide educational elements are important parts of the TEFL teacher's experience. The progressive development of the tourism sector and the introduction of new alternative tourism forms, such as TEFL tourism as proposed in this thesis, coupled with changes in education have seen the convergence of the tourism and education industries (Ritchie *et al*, 2003). Despite the significant size and scope of both industries, there has been little academic regard for the educational tourism phenomenon and meagre discussion on its conceptual foundations and definition (Falk *et al*, 2012; Ritchie *et al*, 2003; Stone and Petrick, 2013; van't Klooster *et al*, 2008). Surprisingly, Ritchie *et al* (2003) are the only scholars who appear to have attempted to

define the educational tourist, drawing upon definitions of tourism and the parameters of educational tourism. Accordingly, an educational tourist is 'a person who is away from their home town or country overnight, where education and learning are either the main reason for their trip or where education and learning are secondary reasons but are perceived as an important way of using leisure time' (Ritchie *et al*, 2003, p18).

Ritchie *et al*'s (2003) definition is nonetheless limited in its approach since it does not account for the type of education, reasons for the education undertaken or who the education is for. The TEFL teaching experience has two educational spheres; the education provided by the tourist and the education the tourist receives. To date, the limited research addressing educational tourism focuses on the tourist's cognitive development, as opposed to the persons that the tourist may educate, in this case their TEFL students. This thesis addresses this gap in the literature.

Drawing on the broad literature addressing the volunteer tourism industry as a means of beginning to understand the TEFL teaching phenomena, it is apparent that education is a common participant motivation (for example Benson and Seibert, 2009; Brown, 2005; Coghlan, 2006; Gecko *et al*, 2009; Leonard and Onyx, 2009; Lo and Lee, 2011; Wearing, 2001). References generally refer to the volunteer's cognitive development and greater awareness of 'self' (Lepp, 2008; Guttentag, 2009; Matthews, 2008; Sin, 2009; Wearing, 2002; Wearing and McGehee, 2013a; Wickens, 2011). Pertaining to the notion of learning through experience and self-development, there is evidence that volunteer tourism can help participants to exhibit philanthropic behaviour (Coren and Gray, 2012; Lo and Lee, 2011) and foster self-reflection and developments in personality traits and behaviours (for example Alexander, 2012; Benson and Wearing, 2012; Broad and Jenkins, 2008; Gray and Campbell, 2007; Sin, 2009; Soderman and Snead, 2008; Wickens, 2011). Similar to TEFL teaching, many volunteer tourism projects provide participants with the opportunity to have a 'grass roots' experience (e.g. Coren and Gray, 2012; Lo and Lee, 2011; Grabowski, 2013; McIntosh and Zahra, 2005; Palacios, 2010; Wickens, 2011), enabling greater educational attainment with regards to the host country and community (Raymond and Hall, 2008).

Self-development is not restricted to the experience itself and has been known to permeate beyond the trip, often transferring into the tourists' everyday lives (Brown, 2005; Grabowski, 2013; Lepp, 2008; Wearing and McGehee, 2013a). Broad and Jenkins (2008), for example, identified that volunteer tourists in Kenya developed a new perspective on life once they returned home, coupled with an intrinsic need for meaning and purpose in their lives. It has also been known for those involved with international travel to develop skills such as problem-solving, time-management and communication (Scarini and Pearce, 2012). Although the 'curriculum' of such informal learning may not be well organised, there is plenty of information to process and travelers are likely to acquire new skills and perspectives as a result (Pearce and Foster, 2007).

Despite the frequent references to the educational benefits of volunteer tourism, there is little known of how or specifically what the tourists learn. Within the TEFL experience there are two clear distinctions between the types of TEFL teacher learning that takes place; formal (TEFL courses, teacher training) and informal (learning through travel or cultural immersion). Accordingly, Ritchie *et al* (2003) suggest that the educational tourism industry should be segmented. The first proposed segment is university, college and school tourism, in which the tourist experience is secondary to formal learning and can be described as *education first*. The second is edu-tourism, defined as general travel for education and known as *tourist first* (Ritchie *et al*, 2003). Although such categorisation does not appear to have taken place within the broad body of literature addressing the educational aspects of volunteer tourism, despite some programmes forming part of a formal study abroad course (Lyons and Wearing, 2008), this is a useful categorisation for TEFL teachers, with many undertaking formal courses as part of their TEFL experience.

Although such segmentation may facilitate differentiation between tourists, it is difficult to measure whether educational benefits are the results of travel, interaction with other cultures, classroom study or a combination of these. Abrams (1979) states that study abroad is better defined as 'learning through experience abroad'. There is an increasing body of research providing evidence that most learning takes place outside of the

formalities of the education system (Falk and Dierking, 2010; Falk *et al*, 2007), although to date there is little reference to how, what or why such learning takes place (Falk *et al*, 2012). Pearce and Foster (2007) describe travelling as its own kind of educational institution, with the experiences and knowledge gained representing a parallel to formal education. Travel, it is argued, offers one of the few opportunities outside of formal education where non-vocational learning about other times, places and people takes place (Werry, 2008).

In order to demonstrate the relationship between travel and learning some scholars have applied fundamental theories used in learning and education analysis to tourism research (for example Boydell, 1976; Broomhall *et al*, 2010; Coghlan and Gooch, 2011; Falk *et al*, 2012; Stone and Petrick, 2013). It is the intention of this thesis to provide an overview of the TEFL experience, of which one element is learning; however, it is beyond the scope of this research to undertake in-depth theoretical analysis of the way in which learning occurs. As such the following discussion is included merely to facilitate this overview. The first theoretical connection is with existential learning. This is in essence a form of education that takes place as a result of learners uncovering knowledge by themselves, usually as a result of personal experiences and can be defined as 'meaningful discovery' (Boydell, 1976, p19). Stone and Petrick (2013) contend that this factor can be used as a model for explaining how people learn by travelling. This can be particularly useful in the case of TEFL teachers who will inevitably learn from their experiences both inside and outside of the classroom (see appendix two). Kolb's (1984) model essentially outlines the way in which a person will have a concrete experience, reflect on their experience, conceptualise or conclude what has happened and then experiment or try out what they have learnt before having a new concrete experience. This is a continuous cycle and is a useful way to attempt to understanding learning as a result of travel.

Building on the pedagogy of existential learning and, in particular the reflective aspect, Coghlan and Gooch (2011) propose that volunteer tourism organisations should utilise Mezirow's (1991) theory of transformative learning to inform their operational plans.

This theory describes a shift in one's assumptions and world beliefs through a series of steps and highlights that the individual experiences a deep, structural shift in the basic premises of thought, feelings and actions as a result of the learning experience (O'Sullivan, 2002). It is possible to apply such transformative learning to the practice of TEFL teaching (see appendix three). Scholars have identified educational tourism as being a form of lifelong learning, fostering the continuous development and improvement of the knowledge and skills needed for employment and personal fulfilment throughout life (Broomhall *et al*, 2010; Falk *et al*, 2012). This theoretical association is particularly relevant to the examination of TEFL teaching in that the experience consists of formal and informal learning, whether this be in a classroom environment, 'on the job' learning, or education acquired through living and travelling in another country enabling the teacher to acquire transferrable skills and experience to aid in their future development on both a personal and professional level. Furthermore, this concept of lifelong learning is a critical component of the Thai educational system. This is discussed further in chapter four.

3.7 The Conceptual Links between Nightlife Tourism and TEFL

At a distance from the sphere of educational tourism is nightlife tourism, also referred to as the late night economy (Calafat *et al*, 2010). Popular predominantly with young people, the nightlife tourism generally consists of all-night parties, alcohol, illegal substances and sex (Calafat *et al*, 2010). There are, particularly in Thailand, many resorts dedicated to the nightlife scene, which are regarded as hedonistic havens free from censure, where tourists can indulge in playful deviance without fear of condemnation (Diken and Laustsen, 2005; Hobbs *et al*, 2000). It has been argued that holidays in nightlife destinations are an extension of the tourists' normal weekend activities as opposed to a break (Carr, 2002; Uriely and Belhassen, 2005). This is particularly relevant to the examination of TEFL teachers in Thailand. Based on Tutenges' (2013) description of nightlife tourism, TEFL teachers participating in such activities are transported away from the restraints of everyday life in their educational establishment and local community into festive states of abandon.

The literature paints a picture of nightlife tourists as pleasure-seekers who wish to move away from everyday routines into states of excitement, abandon and some degree of (self) destruction (Tutenges, 2013). Such hedonistic pursuits do not come without their problems providing the perfect medium for tourists to create chaos fuelled by alcohol and/or drugs and leading to high risk behaviours such as dangerous or offensive behaviour, sexual promiscuity and ill-health (Calafat *et al*, 2010). Researchers have argued that tourists tend to behave differently from how they usually behave at home. This phenomenon, known as behavioural inversion, contributes to the suppression of personal limits, whilst favouring the abuse of alcohol and/or drugs (de Oliveira and Paiva, 2007; Lomba *et al*, 2009). Differences in behaviour may in part be due to individuals being far from home and therefore not being confined by the constraints of family and duties which normally moderate their behaviour (Redmon, 2003). Other contributing factors may be that alcohol and drugs purchased abroad may differ in strength from tourists' home countries and hotter climates enhance the risk of dehydration and disorientation (Bellis *et al*, 2009). Some view this type of tourism as a form of risk taking (Uriely and Belhassen, 2005), with tourists perceiving such holiday activities as a 'license for thrill' (Wickens, 1997).

Some scholars have associated drug tourism with Cohen's (1972) tourist typology. Broad in nature, Cohen classifies tourists based on the degree to which they seek familiarity and novelty. The organised mass tourist gravitates towards the highly familiar and tends to follow a fixed itinerary and a tour guide. Similarly the individual mass tourist also likes familiarity but, although they are often controlled by time and itinerary, are not bound to a particular group. By contrast, the explorer seeks to avoid the familiar and typically travels alone, but continues to seek comfortable and reliable transportation, whilst the drifter is highly adventurous and lives within the local community seeking the lowest level of familiarity and the highest level of novelty. Whilst section 3.4 suggested that TEFL organisations frequently replicate the traditional tour operator models associated with mass organised tourism, by contrast the literature on drug tourism typically associates TEFL tourists who may participate in drug tourism with Cohen's drifter model (Cohen, 1973; Westerhausen, 2002), thus placing the tourists in polar situ. Traditionally

known as ‘...the phenomenon by which persons become attracted to a particular location because of the accessibility of licit or illicit drugs and related services’ (Valdez and Sifaneck , 1997, p880), the definition of drug tourism is limited in scope, restricted only to those who conform to two characteristics: drug consumption as a dominant motivation for travel and previous knowledge of the drug scene in the destination (Uriely and Belhassen, 2005).

Malam (2004) states that identities change across space and context, supporting the notion that the role of a volunteer tourist shifts from seeking out pleasure, relaxation and stimulation during part of their trip to altruistically helping the community or environment at other times (Mustonen, 2005). Based upon this premise, it can be argued that a drug tourist may not necessarily undertake their trip based on motives to take drugs; instead this may comprise only one element of their trip (Uriely and Belhassen, 2005). Furthermore, tourists may not necessarily have pre-planned consumption of these substances as suggested by Valdez and Sifaneck (1997). Instead, Uriely and Belhassen (2005) claim that tourists who are attracted to a destination through awareness of drug accessibility and those who only become aware of this during their visit both classify as drug tourists.

Similar criticisms have been made regarding the notion of a sex tourist, who also tends to be defined according to their predominant motivation, which in this instance is to seek commercial sexual relations whilst on holiday (Graburn, 1983). Whilst this may be true for some, it is rarely the tourist’s sole purpose and activity (Opperman, 1999) thus excluding a number of tourists choosing to undertake such activities from this classification. For many, sex tourism invokes connotations of commodification and prostitution, but it is not simply about sexual activities. Sex tourism is a response to the complex interaction of gender, class and cultural, sexual and power relations in the society in which both the tourist and the person offering sex live (Hall, 1996).

There are frequent references to sex within the literature addressing nightlife tourism (Bellis *et al*, 2009; Calafat *et al*, 2010; Hesse and Tutenges, 2011; Wickens, 1997) although tourists involved with sexual activities are not always categorised as sex

tourists. This is arguably due to ambiguities in the definition and the common perceptual parameters limiting a sex tourist to one who directly pays for sex. Bandyopadhyay (2013) takes a more modern perspective, identifying that there has been a paradigm shift away from the typical association with commercial sex, to a more diverse and multi-dimensional perspective. Although scholars have now begun to take a less judgmental approach to the complex relationship of sex and tourism as recommended by Opperman (1999), the sex tourism industry remains under-researched.

Emerging research has demonstrated that in contrast to the usual evoked image of (frequently older) men traveling to developing countries for sexual pleasures (O'Connell Davidson 1996), there are also destinations such as Kenya, The Gambia, and several Caribbean islands that attract female sex tourists (Brown, 1992; Herold *et al*, 2001; Taylor, 2001). More recently, Bandyopadhyay (2013) has questioned whether there could be a female sex-tourist presence in Asian markets, with a widely held belief in Asia that white women love to have sex with 'exotic' Asian men. Furthermore, it has been suggested that tourists may be in search of more than the physical act of sex, wanting a relationship or even marriage (Cohen, 1982; Herold *et al*, 2001; Taylor, 2001). This is particularly prominent in Thailand where it is common for 'farang' men to marry native Thai women who may or may not have listed themselves in some form of catalogue (online or otherwise), thus classifying themselves as a 'mail bride' (Cohen, 1982; Ryan, 2000; Sarker *et al*, 2013).

Ryan (2000) depicts sex tourism as having several paradigms that can be placed anywhere along the spectrum from non-commercial to commercial and voluntary to exploited sex. The largest segments constitute prostitution and mail brides, whilst smaller paradigms include sex slavery, casual encounters and romance. Opperman (1999) questions the nature of sexual encounters, suggesting that this be expanded to include sex attractions such as strip clubs or peep shows. Although Opperman continues to define this as sex tourism only when there is opportunity to partake in some form of physical sexual act, it could be argued that simply watching such forms of entertainment constitutes a form of sex tourism. Whilst there are many debates surrounding the moral

and ethical implications of sex tourism, a detailed examination of these is beyond the scope of this research. Instead, its relevance lies in the scale of the nightlife and sex tourism industries in Thailand.

3.8 Typologies in Tourism

Throughout the history of academia in tourism, tourists have been categorised based upon their different psychological characteristics. As demonstrated through the respective sections of this literature review, scholars have attempted such categorisations with regards to particular tourism types such as volunteer, cultural and educational tourism, but it is also important to consider the generic typologies available in the literature also.

Cohen (1972) suggested that all tourists seek some element of novelty while at the same time requiring elements of the familiar. He identified four types of tourists. The organisational mass tourist tends to purchase holiday packages in order to visit traditional mass tourism destinations. In this case all the package components are predetermined, requiring a low level of participation and involvement by the tourist in undertaking travel research. Similarly, the individual mass tourist strongly depends on the tourism industry but also wants some new experiences beyond the inclusions in the predetermined packages. Cohen's (1972) explorer tends to be more adventurous and plays an active role in their travel decision making. This tourist tends to organise most of the elements of the travel by himself/herself. Sometimes, however, he/she is obliged to seek the assistance of a travel agent or tourism professional to ensure a level of comfort or security. Finally, Cohen's (1972) drifter seeks intensive experiences and immersion in local communities. These tourists completely abandon a relations with the institutions of tourism , undertaking all planning themselves.

Plog (1987) developed a similar typology designed to explain tourists' destination preference based on their psychographic characteristics. Plog suggests that, based on their respective personalities, tourists can be classified as allocentric, psychocentric or mid-centric. An allocentric tourist is a person who seeks new experiences and adventure

in a variety of activities. They are outgoing and self-confident and enjoy exploring new and unusual areas before others do so. Allocentrics enjoy meeting people from foreign or different cultures. Psychocentrics are more conservatively oriented. They tend to be inhibited and non-adventuresome. They prefer to return to familiar travel destinations where they can relax comfortable in the knowledge of what types of food or activities to expect. Numerous tourists however fall between the allocentric and psychocentric categories. This type of tourist is known as mid-centric. Mid-centric tourists are not particularly adventurous but are nonetheless receptive to new experiences.

Following Cohen (1972) and Plog (1987), researchers (for example, Daley, 1989; Smith, 1989 and Urey (2002) attempted to create new typologies based on their respective fields of research. Such typologies are, however, highly criticised for their generic approach and for failing to take into account the factors which determine the different types of tourists (Sharpley, 1999; Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007). Plog (2001) later argued that no person is a perfect exemplar of any personality type and that over time peoples' motivations and characteristics continuously change meaning that the typology in which they are defined by is also continuously changing.

Despite criticisms of the use of typologies in tourism, these remain an integral and frequently cited element of the body of tourism literature. They also provide indication of tourist types which can then be examined explicitly in specific contexts. The prominent use of typologies in both the tourism literature and in particular niches such as volunteer, cultural and educational tourism, support the development of the TEFL tourist typology (chapter nine) in helping to achieve a broad understanding of the TEFL tourism industry and the tourists within it.

3.9 Conclusion

It can be seen throughout this chapter that tourism is a multi-faceted industry, with many different shapes and forms, some relatively clear-cut and others rather ambiguous in nature. In this thesis, the TEFL teacher is considered a tourist firstly on the basis that they are away from their home country for a temporary period of time (whether this be defined by the tourist themselves or visa restrictions), and secondly as a result of the

day, weekend or out-of-term excursions or trips that they may undertake outside of their educational commitments.

As this thesis proposes the concept of TEFL tourism, there is no literature directly addressing this phenomenon to date. It was therefore deemed necessary to draw upon existing research focusing on the various forms of tourism encompassed within the TEFL experience. The most developed body of literature focuses on the volunteer tourism industry, and whilst it is argued here that existing research is generally too broad in approach, there are many academic debates regarding motivations, typologies, commercialisation and education that can be used as a foundation for the examination of TEFL tourism. With philanthropy, education and nightlife all presented as dominant motives for TEFL teachers in Thailand, these also form an integral part of the literature review; critical analysis of the limited literature available contributes to the comprehension of the TEFL tourist. Finally, the concept of package tourism is important due to the commercial nature of many TEFL operators. Whilst the various forms of tourism encompassed within a TEFL teachers experience in Thailand may be limitless, this chapter has highlighted the areas most prominently identified. The following chapter examines the associated literature addressing TEFL further through the introduction of TEFL in the context of the global teaching arena.

4.1 Introduction

Following on from chapter three, this chapter continues to address the first research objective, focusing on the examination of the educational element of the TEFL experience from a teaching perspective. The concept of international education is by no means simple, with doctrines, ideologies and practices varying according to geographic location and culture. With this comes a number of inherent subjectivities, making it difficult to define and measure aspects such as effective teaching. To begin, this chapter addresses these subjectivities, emphasising the role played by ethnocentric perceptions. The chapter then outlines the teaching standards and expectations according to the Thai educational system in comparison with Western education systems. The intention of this chapter is to facilitate enhanced comprehension of the TEFL experience and the similarities and differences that this may present in relation to stakeholders' perceptions based on the concept of ethnocentrism.

4.2 Perceptual Considerations in International Education

There are a number of examples that indicate that the TEFL teaching experience in Thailand may not be consistent with stakeholder expectations. In their study of volunteer teachers in Thailand, Coren and Gray (2012), for example, found that participants believed they would gain the invaluable experience required in order to become a teacher in their home country. At the end of the experience, however, they did not feel that this expectation had been fulfilled, thus identifying discrepancies between perceived and actual teaching experiences in Thailand. Similarly, the volunteer teachers in Palacios' (2010) research found that they were unexpectedly treated as 'experts', despite not necessarily being qualified, with local teachers asking for their help and use of their resources. This in turn subjected them to unequal power relations, with which they felt uncomfortable. Thirdly, Mostafanezhad (2013) found that foreign teachers experience a culture shock as a result of the differences between the education systems in the destination in which they are located compared with their home country.

Whilst studies addressing the differences between perceptual and actual TEFL experiences in Thailand are limited, there is a body of literature emphasising the notion of subjectivity.

In response to the postmodern globalisation era, characterised by increasingly non-restrictive geographical boundaries, many educational institutions across the world have developed strategies for internationalising their educational programs (Marlina, 2013), including TEFL. In Thailand, this has been undertaken through 'copying' the West, with educational reforms strongly influenced by Western doctrines, ideologies and practices (Wilkinson, 2016). It is likely that this internationalisation is further enhanced through the extensive recruitment of foreign teachers, including TEFL teachers, although it has not been possible to locate literature in this regard. It can, however, be argued that this globalisation is a soft form of imperialism, imposing Western ways of thinking, doing and acting (Marginson, 1999), and failing to take interculturality and the subjectivities associated with this into account (Liddicoat, 2003).

The term 'international education' is an ambiguous one, playing a significant role in the TEFL industry due to the global variety of the TEFL teachers involved and the varying educational experiences and training that they have had. Hayden (2006) explains that the term international education is used within three dominant spheres; teaching international-based subjects such as development, the integration of educational systems beyond national boundaries and the comparison of educational practices between different countries. UNESCO (2012) understand international education as a process resulting from international understanding, cooperation and peace. Whilst this thesis addresses international education through the third lens identified by Hayden (2006) by facilitating comparisons between the educational practices in Thailand and in Western destinations, it also acknowledges the complexity of international understanding.

This is demonstrated, for example, through the subjective notion of what constitutes a teacher and, on a more complex level, a 'good' teacher. In its broadest sense, a teacher is an educator, a facilitator of knowledge transition from one person to another, but

defining an effective teacher permeates beyond this (Clark, 1993). There have been a number of attempts at defining effective teaching, however, the majority take a generic approach thereby failing to take into account that individual classrooms within different cultures can vary greatly in terms of the expectations of teachers and students (McKay, 2002). It can therefore be argued that what one TEFL teacher may perceive as being good teaching in one country may not be classified as good in another, thus emphasising the complexities of the international education sector.

Whilst it is beyond the scope of this research to examine whether TEFL teachers in Thailand are 'good' teachers or otherwise, the rationale for this thesis is rooted in the concept of ethnocentrism, where it is suggested that all stakeholders involved are likely to perceive the TEFL experience in Thailand based upon their previous experiences, which for many will have taken place in their home country and within their own culture. Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn (2015) support the notion of ethnocentrism in their study addressing the cultural implications of foreign teachers in Thailand, concluding that there is an entrenched ethnocentric problem that has subsequent negative repercussions on student education (as outlined in chapter two, page 17). In order to facilitate further exploration of this issue, the following sections outline teaching standards and expectations in Thailand compared with those in Western nations.

4.3 The Thai Education System and Standards

It is evident that there is substantial variation between education systems in different countries (Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir, 2004; Ho, 2003; Hu, 2002; Kaper, 2009; Djigunovic, 2009), making a general comprehension of the global TEFL industry a very difficult task. In Thailand, the school year differs from Western countries. The year starts in May through to early October and then recommences in late October until March. There are no breaks mid-term except for public holidays which usually constitute a three-day weekend (Ajarn, 2014). This differs from many other education systems where, for example, in the UK, teachers tend to have a break roughly every six weeks (Gov.UK, 2016). Thai citizens are entitled to twelve years free education, with a minimum of nine years mandatory school attendance. Education is provided through

four key stages. The first three years of elementary school, known as “Anuban”, represent stage 1; stage 2 covers Prathom 1–6; while stage 3 covers Matthayom 1–3 (lower secondary), Matthayom 4–6 (upper secondary) and vocational streams. In addition, stage 4 covers university and college education (Office of the National Education Council (ONEC), 2004). On completion of each level, students are required to pass NET (National Educational Test) examinations such as O-NET (Ordinary) and A-NET (Advanced). The private sector is well developed and aids significantly in the provision of education in Thailand (International Council for Open and Distance Education, 2015). In 2013 96% of children completed their primary level education, a decrease from 99% in 2004 (World Bank, 2012).

There have been a number of studies undertaken focusing on the English language abilities of Thai students in government education, all have reached the conclusion that the level of English amongst Thai students is well below that of their neighbouring Southeast Asian counterparts (e.g. English-First, 2015; Noom-Ura, 2013). In 2001, the curriculum was revised to meet the needs of an increasingly globalised world and the concept of communicative language teaching (CLT) was introduced (Khamkhien, 2010; Prapassit de Segovi and Hardison, 2008; Wongsothorn *et al*, 2003). Despite Thailand aspiring to replicate a Western educational approach in this way (Wilkinson, 2016), it is important to note that CLT is not necessarily compatible with local and Thai educational cultures (Baker, 2008; Hu, 2002; Littlewood, 2007), or with the classrooms and resources available (Hu, 2002; McKay, 2003). There is a particular clash evident with the social fabric of Thai culture demonstrating strong notions of ego orientation (Komin, 1990) (see chapter 2, page 17), which is likely to result in students being shy and unwilling to participate in the communicative way prescribed by Western systems. Deveney (2005) found this to be a particular frustration amongst the foreign teachers examined as part of her research focusing on the impacts of culture in Thai education.

According to the National Education Council (2005), the ideals of education include provision of lifelong learning and transforming Thai society into a knowledge society. The ambition is to enhance the quality of life and create a society with balanced and harmonious integration of wisdom, morality and culture through lifelong education. In

an attempt to achieve this, the Government has put in place educational standards, which prescribe the desirable characteristics, quality and requisites for all educational institutions. Likewise, there are published professional standards for teachers (Teachers Council of Thailand, 2005). These standards (see appendix 4) serve as benchmarks for the purposes of promoting and monitoring, auditing, evaluation and educational quality assurance, although it is important to note that they are liable to a significant level of subjectivity.

Appendix four provides a broad outline of the formal teaching standards in Thailand, although it is noteworthy that no reference is made to foreign teachers. Limited existing research indicates that the Thai government may not enforce strict adherence to these guidelines by foreign teachers. For example, many foreign teachers do not hold any teaching qualifications (Khamkhien, 2010; Yunibandhu, 2004), and some TEFL agencies state that no formal experience or qualifications are necessary (see table 3.1, page 35). It is clear that Thai culture forms an integral element of the nation's teaching philosophy, with the frequent inclusion of concepts such as harmony and peace which are fundamental aspects of Thai society (Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015). This exacerbates the possibility that ethnocentric TEFL teachers may find it difficult to fully comprehend the Thai education system, within which they are working, due to their potential lack of knowledge and experience of Thai culture.

Despite strong efforts to enhance English-speaking abilities in the country, levels of English remain below the desired level. Foley (2005) outlines the contributing factors responsible for the limited success of English-speaking development in Thailand. These include the lack of proper curricula, dry teaching styles that overly focus on grammatical details, the learning media available, inappropriate texts used, the nature and culture of the students and methods of testing and evaluation. The lack of exposure which students have to English speakers further limits their success in achieving high levels of spoken English. Furthermore, many teachers are not qualified teachers and their skills are thus often limited (Khamkhien, 2010; Yunibandhu, 2004).

There is evidence that teachers' proficiency in English is often too low to facilitate optimum learning (Baker, 2008; Biyaem, 1997; Littlewood, 2007; Prapasit de Segovia and Hardison, 2008); however, this research tends to focus on native as opposed to foreign teachers. Although a TEFL teacher may speak English fluently, this does not necessarily mean that they are able to teach spelling and grammar correctly. There are a number of other aspects that hinder the ability to teach well. Methanopphakhun and Deocampo (2016) highlight problems caused as a result of foreign teachers not speaking the local language and thus finding it difficult to communicate with their colleagues and students, whilst Biyaem (1997) and Methanopphakhun and Deocampo (2016) found that teaching efficiency in Thailand is hindered as a result of heavy teaching loads, large class sizes (often 45-60 students per class) and inadequately equipped classrooms and educational technology. With almost twenty years between the research cited, outcomes are unchanged implying that there have been few developments aimed at improving this situation in the past two decades.

Large class sizes, combined with CLT and learner-centered teaching make it difficult for teachers to manage behavior in the classroom (Littlewood, 2007); this is referred to as 'classroom harmonization' (Butler, 2005). Rather than adopting long-term strategies for behavioural management, Thai teachers traditionally used physical control that can cause the student pain. Examples of such practices included caning, scolding, flogging and pinching (Pumwaree, 1986). In an attempt to minimise these unethical practices, caning was banned and there was a call for alternative methods more in line with Western practices, such as assigning punitive activities, probation or suspension (Walker *et al*, 2004). Physical punishment of children in Thailand today is nevertheless socially accepted and is commonly practiced in many Thai families as well as educational institutions, where staff continue to mete out physical punishment despite the existence of the ban. This was evidenced by Jampian (2012) who demonstrated through his research that 72.5% of Thai children were subjected to corporal punishment in 2011. Martin and Pear (2003) found the use of such punishments problematic as a result of the emotional impacts on the student. There are, however, no studies on the emotional effects of such practices on the teacher, particularly if they are from a culture, such as

the UK, Ireland or Australia, where such approaches are often deemed unacceptable and unethical.

Thailand conforms to a collectivist society as a result of the strong community bond and value of group as opposed to individual achievements (Kiddle, 2014). As a result, there is little evidence in the literature where differences between student types, or aspects such as learning styles or difficulties, are taken into account. Although Thailand has recently taken a step in the right direction in terms of inclusiveness by integrating disabled students into mainstream schools (ONEC, 2004; Traiwicha, 2016), there is little evidence of differentiated practices in the classroom in order to cope with the range of differences in needs and demands. Disparities are also prevalent in terms of location. The World Bank (2012) highlights that students based in Bangkok generally have higher success rates than those based in rural areas. There is also a considerable achievement gap between the richest and the poorest students, although the extent to which this prevails is beginning to decrease. It is important to note that these claims are based on educational attainment generally and do not provide specific information regarding TEFL.

Although pedagogic literature with regard to TEFL teaching is abundant, there is little known about the teaching methods actually employed by TEFL teachers in Thailand. The agencies selling TEFL teaching as a commoditised package (see table 3.1), offer no clear description of the day-to-day duties or classroom expectations of the TEFL teacher. Similarly, there is a little known about who the foreign TEFL teachers are or why they are in Thailand. It is known that thousands of people, often referred to as expatriates, choose to move either permanently or temporarily to Thailand each year (Howard, 2009). The focus of this research is not on those working as TEFL teachers necessarily, however there is limited research on the broad nature of the expatriate community in Thailand which this thesis can draw on. Howard's (2009) research found that half of all expatriates have Thai spouses, that they intend remaining in Thailand indefinitely and that many are retired or semi-retired. He also identified Thai lifestyle and culture, low living costs, warm climate, and readily available, attractive sexual partners as common motives to relocate to Thailand. In addition, Clegg and Gray (2002) found that many

expatriates are work-driven and highly educated. These expatriates commonly do not speak the local language, are quite young, earn high wages and socialise in enclave expatriate communities (Clegg and Gray, 2002).

4.4 Western Education Systems and Standards

Although there is limited information as to who the TEFL teachers in Thailand are, there is abundant information on the educational systems from which their ethnocentric perceptions of TEFL in Thailand may derive. In accordance with the most common nationalities of TEFL teacher applicants accepted by agencies noted in table 3.1, this section provides a brief overview of the British, Irish, Australian and South African education systems. Whilst this section is by no means exhaustive, it provides fertile ground for the comparison between teaching standards and expectations amongst these nations compared to those in Thailand.

In all these countries, government-provided schooling lasts approximately twelve years and is structured according to the traditional primary and secondary format, until the student is aged fifteen- sixteen years. Optional educational provision is then provided until eighteen years of age at which stage the student can choose whether or not to proceed to university (Department of Education, South Africa, 2016; Department of Education and Skills, Ireland, 2016; Department for Education and Training, Australia, 2016; UK Government, 2016; United States Department of State Education, 2016). Based on individual country data such as literacy and graduation rates, Pearson assigns a global ranking to these education systems: UK-six; Ireland-nine; USA-fourteen; Australia-fifteen. Thailand is ranked considerably lower at thirty-five (Pearson, 2014). Pearson's list comprises only forty countries based on available data at the time of publication, this excludes South Africa. Despite this omission, it is clear that South Africa is lagging behind the other TEFL teacher-originating countries considered with regard to their education provision, largely due to a history of political instability and the wide gap between the rich and poor in society (Department of Education, South Africa, 2016; Smuts, 2014).

In contrast to the limited literature regarding teaching standards in Thailand, it is widely recognised in Western countries that teaching quality is the single most important factor affecting student learning outcomes, and many countries have consequently put standards in place in order to define what is expected of teachers (Ingvarson and Kleinhenz, 2007). The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) presupposes four objectives for defining standards for teachers: to support the improvement of teacher performance, to certify teachers who are new to the profession, to assess performance and to evaluate and accredit teacher-training institutions (Centre of Study for Policies and Practices in Education (CEPPE), 2013). Standards for teachers generally address similar content across different formats, ranging from specific to generic. Appendix five presents an overview of the teaching standards in the selected destinations.

There is an abundance of concepts encapsulated within the holistic teaching approach in the previously named nations. These are by no means exhaustive. This is in stark contrast to the Thai standards presented in appendix 4, many of which are considerably vague and less prescriptive. Whilst pedagogically these are important issues, it is not the intention of this thesis to examine teaching practices per se, but rather to identify the extent to which TEFL teaching in Thailand may be representative of teaching in the TEFL teacher's home country. It is important to note that this data is based upon available literature at the time of research, which was limited particularly in respect of teaching standards in Ireland and South Africa where the focus appears to be on ethical practice rather than pedagogy. Teaching standards in different nations are not always directly comparable (CEPPE, 2013), as some take a more general approach than others. As such, the data provided is indicative as opposed to descriptive, accounting only for explicit evidence available for each of the presented teaching expectations and standards.

Despite the positive intentions underpinning the imposition of teaching standards, these are not without critique. Sachs (2003) questions whose interests are served by these standards and what the effects of the imposition of such standards on teachers are, both individually and collectively. Furlong (2005) argues that the introduction of standards means taking a step away from seeing the individual teacher as an essential actor to one

where he/she is not free to make his/her own judgments, but instead is instructed by the state with regards to what to teach, how to teach and how to assess. Teaching standards can also be deemed problematic as a result of their commonly subjective nature. This subjectivity is particularly relevant when considering the global nature of the TEFL industry, where aspects may be perceived differently in different parts of the world. Finally, there is the issue of monitoring and regulation: it is extremely difficult to measure whether all teachers are meeting the required standards at all times.

As discussed in chapter two, there are no clear teaching standards for the global TEFL industry, thus contributing to the lack of comprehension of the TEFL phenomenon. The lack of regulation of professional standards within TEFL has been deemed of particular concern. Industry professionals have successfully discussed aspects of minimum educational requirements; however establishing a pay scale related to experience or standardised recognition of skills or exam-specific preparation, amongst others, has yet to achieve a global consensus (Sciberras, 2012). Instead, different countries appear to have their own approaches with regard to standardisation, some with heavier regulatory requirements and enforcements than others (Sciberras, 2012).

Although not specific to TEFL, such differences are evident when comparing the teacher expectations in Thailand with those in other countries. The theme of culture, for example, is heavily woven into the teaching expectations in Thailand (see appendix four), but there is little evidence of this in the UK, Ireland, USA, Australia or South Africa, indicating that TEFL teachers from these countries may not be accustomed to this approach. Another significant difference is the notion of individualism. Appendix five indicates strong themes of differentiation and individualised approaches throughout teaching ranging from flexibility according to student abilities, to incorporating a variety of assessment techniques to suit different learners, adaptation according to cultures and backgrounds of individual students and teacher self-assessment of practice and development needs. There is however little evidence of such practices in Thailand.

There has been considerable controversy in recent years regarding the workload of teachers in developed countries. Whilst there is to an extent evidence in the media of

this in all TEFL teacher-originating countries in this research (Comins, 2016; General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland, 2007; News Limited, 2015), the problem appears most prominent in the UK. The OECD found in their Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) (2014) that the international average number of contact teaching hours per week was 19.6. However, after accounting for other tasks such as marking, planning and administration, British teachers worked a total of forty-six hours per week, eight hours above the international average (TALIS, 2014). The study also found that only thirty-five percent of teachers in developed countries felt valued compared to two-thirds of teachers in South-East Asian countries. Although current teacher workloads are not specifically addressed in the academic literature, largely owing to frequent changes in policy and process, the significance of this, demonstrated through large-scale media coverage, is indisputable. Pells (2015) claims that this additional strain causes up to four in ten new teachers to resign within a year of qualifying. This attrition is largely attributed to political bureaucracy, arbitrary administration duties, financial pressures, The Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (OFSTED) requirements and pressure to achieve particular grades.

In addition, there are concerns over the pressure placed on schools by increasing class sizes, with the average UK (primary) class size of twenty-seven, six above the OECD average. This differs significantly for those in private educational institutions where the UK average is twelve and the OECD average is twenty (OECD, 2015). The class size debate is one frequently referred to in pedagogic literature, with the frequent conclusion being that smaller classes facilitate better teaching (Mishel *et al*, 2002). Reduced class sizes lend themselves well to the post-modern approach to teaching typically adopted in developed countries, where the focus is on encouraging critical thinking, internal motivation, active involvement and individualism (Valiente, 2008). Learning styles presented within the Thai educational institutions are the antithesis, where memorization and rote learning, external motivation, passive involvement and group learning are central tenets of the education philosophy (Noom-ura, 2013).

The most notable difference regarding educational systems in Thailand and the five countries examined in this research is that of behaviour management. Historically,

Western responses to students with behavioural difficulties have been to use medical or psychological approaches of assessment to collectively justify such student's support within or withdrawal from the mainstream system (Wearmouth and Glynn, 2013). Whilst there are any number of disciplinary approaches available to the teacher, Western educational systems traditionally employed punishment-based methods where fear and power were central to curbing undesirable behaviour (Sailor, 2010). In many instances forms of punishment included physical actions, considered a societal norm, with physical punishment constituting a strong part of European American religious and legal tradition (Straus, 1991). Punishment-based methods such as this are seen as counterproductive as bad behaviour is usually only stopped temporarily, student-teacher relationships are impaired and emotions such as anger, guilt, resentment and deceit are often elicited (Sailor, 2010). This historical approach is akin with current practices in Thailand (see page 57).

Societal, legal and ethical perspectives have all contributed to the modern approach to behaviour management seen in developed countries today. In support of the individualist notion evident throughout contemporary Western educational systems, schools and educational institutions now operate on a more inclusive basis (Wearmouth and Glynn, 2013), often utilising positive disciplinary approaches such as guiding and teaching, encouraging the student to understand the consequences of their actions, teaching students to problem-solve and develop self-image, self-control and co-operation (Sailor, 2010). Physical punishment was made illegal in public education in the UK in 1987 (Singleton, 2010) and in Ireland in 1996 (Global Initiative to End all Corporal Punishment of Children, 2016). More recently, it has been banned in most, but not all, Australian states (1997-2015), although in practice it is rarely used (Australian Institute of Family Studies, 2014). As of 2015, thirty-one US states have banned corporal punishment in public schools, whilst in nineteen states it remains lawful (Global Initiative to End all Corporal Punishment of Children, 2016). South Africa outlawed corporal punishment in 1996, although it has been suggested that whilst this has been successful in white European-heritage based schools, it is still employed as a popular form of punishment in deprived, township schools (Morrell, 2001; Veriava, 2013), in a

manner similar to that adopted in Thailand (page 57). There are ongoing campaigns to end corporal punishment, which is commonly viewed as a violation of human rights and respect for dignity and physical integrity, both in and outside educational institutions (Global Initiative to End all Corporal Punishment of Children, 2016; United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), 2016).

4.6 Conclusion

It can be concluded that the published teaching expectations and standards in Thailand are less comprehensive than those in the UK, Ireland, the USA, Australia and South Africa. It is also noted that there are fundamental differences between education systems, particularly in terms of cultural integration, differentiation, teaching styles and behaviour management. Although these differences have been highlighted, the lack of literature addressing the educational systems in Thailand, Ireland and South Africa was a particular issue. This chapter is viewed as an integral part of this thesis, providing the background and context to the educational system that the TEFL teacher works within and the systems from which their ethnocentric perceptions of TEFL in Thailand may derive.

As discussed, there are a number of inherent subjectivities encompassed within the perceptions of TEFL teaching. This ranges from what the duty of a TEFL teacher is and how they operate to what constitutes effective teaching. Whilst it is worth noting the sociological, psychological and pedagogical complexities of many of the issues discussed within this chapter, many of which present scope for further investigation, this chapter presents a broad overview of the relevant areas necessary to facilitate the examination of the motivations and behaviours of TEFL teachers and to facilitate comparison of these based upon the ethnocentric perceptions that stakeholders may hold.

The following chapter introduces the methodology adopted in undertaking the primary research required for the achievement of the objectives of this thesis.

5.1 Introduction

Primary research undertaken for this thesis takes the form of a phenomenological enquiry, which meets the following objectives:

1) To undertake an examination of the TEFL teacher's experiences whilst teaching English in Thailand by;

- Analysing the TEFL experiences outside of the classroom environment, which largely center around tourism-based elements of the experience

- Analysing the TEFL experiences inside the classroom environment, focusing on the duties required of TEFL teachers and teaching practices employed

2) To introduce and justify the concept 'TEFL tourism' through the;

- Creation of a definition of TEFL tourism

- Creation of a typology of TEFL teachers based upon teacher motivations and experiences

This research takes the form of an empirical study, whilst simultaneously encompassing aspects of phenomenological enquiry which places peoples' lives and lived experiences as central to understanding what 'being in their world' is like (Seale, 2012). Empirical research is based on observed and measured phenomena and derives knowledge from actual experience, which in this instance is of the experience of the TEFL teacher, rather than from theory or belief. According to Punch (2014) there are some key characteristics associated with empirical research, which closely align with the aims and objectives of this study. This includes defining a population, behaviour, or phenomena and providing a description of the process used to study this population or phenomena, including selection criteria, controls, and testing instruments. This is evidenced throughout the results and discussion, where a definition of TEFL tourism and a typology of tourists is

presented, where statistical tests are adopted to demonstrate relationships between variables associated with characteristics and behaviours of the tourists.

From a qualitative perspective, this research takes an idiographic approach. Idiographic research is typical for the humanities and tends to describe the effort to understand the meaning of contingent, unique and often subjective phenomena (Punch, 2014). In the case of this research it takes into account the specific and subjective nature of TEFL experiences in Thailand in order to reach conclusions. Based on the premise of interpretative phenomenological analysis, this thesis begins by inductively interpreting the TEFL experience through a qualitative blog analysis, which is then followed by quantitative survey data (Stainton, 2017). This chapter begins by presenting an analysis of the philosophical and methodological justifications for the research, before providing detailed explanation of the methods employed, their benefits and limitations. Sampling for each research phase is addressed, together with associated ethical considerations.

5.2 Philosophical Paradigms

A paradigm is a set of beliefs or metaphysics that represent the researcher's world-view; the nature of 'the world', the individual's place in it and the range of possible relationships to that world (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Kumar, 2011; Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014). Paradigms can be conceptually scientific or philosophical in nature. Scientific paradigms aim to produce explanatory results and are often deemed 'testable'. By contrast, although a more philosophical approach can provide explanations, these tend to be justificatory and commonly lack 'testable' assertions (Burns, 2000; Seale, 2012).

5.2.1 Ontology

Research methodology rests on a foundation of ontological and epistemological assumptions (Bryman, 2012; Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014; Seale, 2012). Ontology is an area of philosophy that deals with the nature of being, or what exists (Neuman, 2013); it is concerned with reality (Bryman, 2012) and is often presented with questions such as 'what is the meaning of being?' or 'what can be said to exist?'. There are two dominant positions within ontology; the realist views the world as existing separately

from humans and their interpretations of it, whereas the nominalist believes that their interpretations of the world are based on their inner subjectivity and the personal 'lens' through which they are viewing. Researchers can sit anywhere along the continuum, from the extreme realist to the moderate nominalist (Neuman, 2013; Seale, 2012). For the purpose of this research, a nominalist stance is adopted. The researcher in this instance is aware of her subjective view of the TEFL industry in Thailand based on her own experiences and her interpretations of the research data collected. However, it is important to recognise that the presence of some level of subjectivity is unavoidable (Humberstone, 2004). The researcher strove to reduce any limitations that could result from taking a nominalist research perspective through critical self-awareness.

5.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is an area of philosophy that is concerned with the creation of knowledge, focusing on how knowledge is obtained and investigating the most valid ways to reach the truth (Bryman, 2012; Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014; Seale, 2012). Epistemology essentially determines the relationship between the researcher and reality and is rooted in the ontological assumptions (Punch, 2014; Neuman, 2013). There are three significant branches within epistemology; empiricism, rationalism and transcendental philosophy. An empirical researcher assigns cognition a passive role, indicating that the object of study is recorded by the brain, but is not produced by the brain. This image is then associated with similar objects, thus requiring the use of a concept. This concept is formed through a logical process known as induction (Seale, 2012). Induction is a process of reasoning; initial data or specific observations are used to logically reach generalised conclusions (Bryman, 2012; Seale, 2012). Inductive reasoning moves from specific observations to broader generalisations and theories, and although the results may suggest the truth, they do not ensure it (Trochim, 2006).

The antithesis of the empirical researcher is one who subscribes to a rationalist epistemology. Rationalists regard logical reasoning as the active producer of concepts *ex nihilo* (out of nothing), and thus adopt a deductive logical reasoning process (Seale, 2012). Deduction occurs when an initial premise that is assumed to be true, is used to

determine what else must be true. This is the opposite of inductive logic, as it begins with initial theories or ideas that are then narrowed down to reach hypotheses. Providing the initial premise is correct, deductive logic can provide absolute proof of conclusions reached (Trochin, 2006).

Empiricism and rationalism can be synthesised within transcendental philosophy, where the role of reason in the construction of knowledge is questioned (Punch, 2014; Seale, 2012). Grounded in the belief that concepts and objects are not fixed, but are constantly evolving, transcendentalists maintain the rationalist claim that objects are deduced from a general concept, whilst rejecting the claim that the concept is a product of *ex nihilo*. Instead they argue that concepts are formed in one's consciousness through a combination of previous existing empty templates of reason, also known as a priori categories, and the raw material of the object under study (Punch, 2014; Seale, 2012). In effect, transcendentalists believe that the templates of reason and the data acquired from the human senses transform and retransform each other reciprocally and continuously (Bryman, 2012; Seale, 2012).

The research at hand adopted an empiricist approach. This epistemological branch was deemed most suitable for the study, predominantly as a result of the inductive logic that it employed. Through the analysis of specific data collected, the research explored the concept of TEFL teaching, the TEFL industry and its participants. In doing so, the research employed an interpretive paradigm: the justifications for this decision follows.

5.2.3 Positivism Versus Interpretivism

Positivism and interpretivism are epistemological positions adopted by the researcher, dependent upon the aims and objectives of the research. Positivism advocates application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and is associated with deductive logical reasoning. Incorporating a realist ontological approach and rationalist epistemological perspective, positivism utilises only research data that is verifiable and is collected in a value-free manner, enabling objective results to be generated and general scientific laws to be created (Bryman, 2012; Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011). In line with the underlying ontological and epistemological assumptions,

a positivist views reality as separate from the individual who observes it; both the researcher and the object being viewed as dualistic in nature (Weber, 2004).

Positivism is a philosophical system that rejects metaphysics, the branch of philosophy that addresses the fundamental nature of being (Bryman, 2012; Seale, 2012). However the very nature of this study relating to TEFL teaching rests on the premise of metaphysics. The social aspects examined, such as motivations, experiences and typologies suggest therefore that, despite its advantages, a positivist approach was not suited to this research. Dennett (1996, p21) argues that ‘there is no such thing as philosophy-free science; there is only science whose philosophical baggage is taken on board without examination’, thus indicating potential weaknesses in those methodologies solely relying on positivist premises, providing further justification for this decision.

Interpretivists share the view that the subject matter of the social sciences, such as people and their institutions, is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences (Bryman, 2012). An interpretivist concentrates on the meanings that people bring to situations and behaviour and the ways that they use this to interpret the world (O’Donoghue, 2007). They believe that reality and the individual who observes it are inseparable as a result of a person’s perceptions of the world being inextricably linked to their life experiences (Weber, 2004). These views are underpinned by the nominalist ontological approach and empiricist epistemological approaches previously discussed.

There are benefits and limitations to both research paradigms. A positivist study enables control and precision and returns verifiable data, whereas interpretive studies are unable to produce generalised laws in the way that positivist research can since the data cannot be guaranteed as objective and true (Bryman, 2012; Seale, 2012; Trochin, 2006; Weber, 2004). However, a positivist approach is limited in that the data that it produces can be inflexible and fails to address aspects such as personal beliefs, experiences and motivations, which were key areas in this research. Interpretivist studies aim to understand phenomena, as opposed to the rigid explanations that a positivist may seek (Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014; Weber, 2004). Despite their ability to provide in-depth

and valuable results, interpretative studies can be criticised for the researcher's subjectivity that they inevitably entail throughout the data collection and analysis (Weber, 2004).

In his report on the rhetoric of positivism versus interpretivism, Weber (2004) suggests that rather than the two paradigms being of polar situ, it is the methods adopted that differentiate the research, as opposed to any differences at a metatheoretical level. It can be argued that there are substantial overlaps between the two paradigms, such as the need to consider subjectivity within the research in both approaches, or the similarity of methods chosen within the research approach. This is demonstrated within the research at hand. Although an interpretivist approach was primarily adopted, due to the social and qualitative nature of examination of the TEFL industry, the research also incorporated the use of surveys, typically associated with positivist enquiries.

5.3 Methods of Data Collection and Analysis

The philosophical approaches to research are embedded within the methodological design, which can take a qualitative, quantitative or multi-paradigm mixed methods approach. Qualitative research is underpinned by the interpretative and quantitative research by the positivist paradigm (Bryman, 2012). Despite this research taking an interpretivist perspective, the mixed methods approach employed the use of both qualitative and quantitative data collection tools in an attempt to counteract the limitations of both approaches whilst optimising their advantages. The following pages provide detailed analysis of the associated benefits, limitations and justification for the research approach adopted.

5.3.1 Qualitative Research

Research phase one employed qualitative data collection to facilitate initial exploration of the TEFL phenomenon. Qualitative research is a complex, changing and contested field, with multiple methodologies and research practices. As such, it is not an entity, but an umbrella term encompassing substantial variety (Punch, 2014). Qualitative forms of investigation tend to be based on recognition of the importance of the subjective, experiential 'life-world' of humans (Burns, 2000), often taking an interpretative stance.

Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimacy of researcher-research relationships, and the situational constraints that shape enquiry. These researchers seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Qualitative research is construed as a research strategy that usually emphasises words, rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data (Bryman, 2012). It presents the researcher with a range of data collection methods, with all meaningful human actions or artefacts and all social practices being legitimate research sources (Yates, 2004). Some methods are clearly qualitative, such as interviews or ethnography, whereas other methods, such as surveys, can be utilised by both quantitative and qualitative researchers (Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011).

Grounded in its philosophical assumptions, qualitative research typically enables a holistic overview to be achieved, arriving at indicative theories and assumptions (Bryman, 2012; Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014; Trochin, 2006). This was particularly useful for the phenomenological examination of TEFL tourism, with little prior existing research to draw on. This process was previously identified as a form of inductive reasoning, however it is argued that this may be better described as abductive reasoning (Bryman, 2012). Abduction is differentiated from induction by virtue of its reliance on explanation and understanding of the respondent's world-views, as opposed to the researcher's own views. As such, the researcher grounds a theoretical understanding based upon the data gathered from the respondent. Having then understood the respondent's perspectives the researcher is able to extract a social scientific account as seen from those perspectives (Bryman, 2012).

Most qualitative analysis revolves around words, enabling these to be assembled, sub-grouped and broken down into clusters where necessary (Punch, 2014). Typically associated within prolonged contact with a 'field' or life situation, reflecting the everyday lives of individuals, groups, societies and organisations, it also provides the opportunity to 'see through the research participant's eyes' (Bryman, 2012), who in the case of this research were the TEFL teachers. The aim of qualitative research is not to reduce complexity by breaking it down into variables, but to increase complexity by

including context (Flick, 2009). Qualitative research avoids the linear approach taken by quantitative researchers; rather it gives priority to the data and the field under study over theoretical assumptions. As such, themes were not applied to the examination of TEFL tourism, but were 'discovered' and formulated.

There are many reasons for adopting the use of qualitative research within social studies, such as the examination of the TEFL industry in Thailand. Perhaps the most fundamental benefit is the ability to gather detailed data allowing for an understanding of the phenomenon to be achieved (Bryman, 2004a; Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011), rather than merely obtaining a distant panoramic view through quantitative channels (Brown, 2005). Qualitative research allows for the exploration of people's images, thoughts, feelings and meanings (Bryman, 2004a). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) describe the way in which qualitative investigators can get closer to the 'actors' perspective', arguing that quantitative researchers are seldom able to capture their subjects' perspectives as a result of the remote, inferential empirical methods and materials used. Through obtaining a closer perspective, researchers are able to achieve in-depth understandings or obtain detailed descriptions of the research subject, and are often able to uncover the reasoning for social situations (Yates, 2004). Qualitative research approaches are promoted for their ability to acknowledge subtleties or complexities about the research topic or subject that may be missed through a more rigid positivist enquiry (Seale, 2012), and the vast array of methodological options open to the researcher allows for avenues to be opened that may be otherwise unexposed through quantitative channels (Punch, 2014).

Despite its advantages, qualitative research is not without limitations. The researcher is the main 'instrument' throughout the qualitative research process (Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011) and as such brings complications. Not only is it the role of the researcher to design the research material, they may also have personal involvement in the data extraction, through, for example, the use of coding, and they are then primarily responsible for the quality of analysis (Punch, 2014; Seale, 2012). It is therefore essential that the researcher possesses a number of key skills required to undertake the above responsibilities. For the purpose of this study, the researcher undertook training courses

focusing on the use of NVIVO and SPSS software and statistical analysis. Furthermore, the extensive range of methodological tools that can be used to undertake qualitative studies, many of which rely on the skills of the researcher as the main 'instrument', are subject to little standardisation (Punch, 2014). This may make it difficult to determine the credibility of data collection techniques, although it does allow the researcher flexibility in undertaking their research which can enhance the quality of data obtained.

In line with the nominalist ontological underpinning of qualitative approaches, Bryman (2012) and Punch (2014) emphasise the importance of acknowledging the researcher's perceptions and personal experiences that could subsequently influence the data collection and analysis. Examining qualitative issues, such as why people choose to become TEFL teachers or how their experiences are shaped, enables unique opportunities to construct understanding from the perspective of the informant. However they also mark an inherently subjective endeavour (Tufford and Newman, 2010). As such, it is the researcher's role to interpret and analyse the data with as little bias or subjectivity as possible (Punch, 2014). As outlined briefly in chapter one, the researcher had personal experience of TEFL teaching in Thailand prior to commencement of this thesis. It was therefore acknowledged that this prior experience might result in the formation of pre-conceived notions of TEFL tourism as a result of personal experience. In order to mitigate this problem, the researcher took a self-critical approach throughout the process of coding and analysis to suspend judgement, focusing only on the data at hand, otherwise known as bracketing (Tufford and Neuman, 2010). Although effort was made to avoid researcher subjectivity where possible, nominalist ontology argues that all concepts are formed through inevitable subjective interpretations. As such, it can be construed that research constructed through methods incorporating elements of subjectivity are not less valid, but rather they are representative of the social world (Humberstone, 2004).

A major critique of qualitative research is the typically small sample sizes (Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011). The nature of qualitative approaches enables the researcher to collect and analyse a wealth of in-depth data, however this can be very time consuming and may not necessarily achieve constructive conclusions. As such,

qualitative sample sizes are generally smaller than those deriving from quantitative studies and are therefore not representative of larger populations (Burns, 2000; Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011). This was viewed as a particular limitation in this research, as a reliable typology of TEFL teachers could not be produced based on a small data set. This provided the primary reason for adopting a quantitative approach within research phase two in an attempt to counteract this limitation.

5.3.2 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research can be considered the antithesis of qualitative research. It aims to explain phenomena by collecting numerical data that is analysed using mathematically-based methods, often in the form of statistics (Aliaga and Gunderson, 2000). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) depict the contrast between the two research methods, stating that quantitative studies emphasise the measurement and analysis of casual relationships between variables as opposed to the analysis of processes that qualitative research supports. Underpinned with positivist groundings, quantitative researchers claim that their work is done from within a value-free framework. Due to its focus on constructing concepts and measuring variables, it aims to present objective accounts of the subject studied and to develop nomothetic knowledge which enables the construction of general scientific laws (Punch, 2014). The quantitative route essentially follows the same research path as researchers in the 'natural' sciences (Robson, 2011), and consists of deductive research processes (Yates, 2004).

In order to undertake quantitative research within social science, researchers attempt to utilise 'closed systems'. Essentially, closed systems are ones where no external factors can influence the research. This is normally achieved through one of three methods of closure; experimental, theoretical or statistical. Experimental closure is achieved through the control of specific experiences, where the differences in experience between informants are then 'measured'. Alternatively, theoretical closure adopts the use of 'modelling'. The researcher creates the design and inputs of the model, such as a computer model, and then maps this to experiences in the 'real world' (Yates, 2004). Many researchers will adopt quantitative methodologies through the use of statistics.

Statistical closure enables analysis of relationships between numerical measures and aspects of the social world that can then be used to produce representative and generalisable data (Yates, 2004); this was the process adopted within the quantitative phase of this research. The use of statistical data is beneficial as it allows for the use of computerised analysis. There are a range of statistical software packages that can be utilised, reducing the time taken for analysis and minimising human error (Burns, 2000). Specific methods of data analysis utilised in this research are discussed on page 92.

Quantitative approaches are often favoured for their ability to obtain large amounts of data, as such making the research more representative of a larger population (Burns, 2000; Robson, 2011; Punch, 2014). This was the dominant motivation for employing the method of data collection in this research. Measurement, quantification and deductive reasoning lie inherently at the centre of the research focus (Burns, 2000; Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011), which allows for findings to be applied to alternative situations within the same realm in preparation for further research incorporating experimental closure (Punch, 2014). This is demonstrated through the proposed typology of TEFL teachers in Thailand that has potential to be developed to reflect TEFL teachers in alternative destinations.

Despite arguments that the ability to produce objective research is a benefit of quantitative data collection (Flick, 2009; Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011), Burns (2000) states that research cannot be entirely objective since there is a matter of subjectivity in the very choice of the research problem and the interpretation of the results. Therefore, the objectivity of a study primarily undertaken via quantitative means may be questionable, albeit to a lesser extent than findings deriving from qualitative studies. It is also claimed that large-scale data collected via quantitative means may be too general and abstract for direct application to specific situations, contexts and individuals (Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011). As the intention of this thesis is to understand the TEFL experience in Thailand, this limitation was particularly important, thus warranting the complementary qualitative research phase.

Quantitative research findings alone do not easily facilitate the examination of social studies such as TEFL tourism. Human beings are far more complex than the inert matter that is studied in the physical sciences and as such, the social science researcher cannot sufficiently operate in the controlled environments available to the positivist scientist (Burns, 2000). Quantitative data collection is potentially very successful at proving or disproving a theory or hypothesis, but this is not generally exploratory in nature and may result in phenomena being missed (Flick, 2009). Furthermore, quantification fails to take into account that people have a unique ability to interpret their experiences, construct their own meanings and subsequently act on these, often leading to assumptions that facts are true and the same for all people all of the time (Burns, 2000). Understanding qualitative aspects such as experiences and motives is central to social studies, including the study of the TEFL industry. In order to mitigate the limitations identified, the quantitative research phase was designed to follow the initial exploratory phase, in order to further explore the themes arising from research phase one in order to develop the TEFL teacher typology.

5.3.3 Mixed Methods Research

In attempt to counteract the advantages and disadvantages of both approaches, many researchers choose to use a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, commonly known as a mixed method approach. Such approaches are frequently used and confidently justified by researchers (Robson, 2011), although some academics argue that qualitative and quantitative approaches should not be combined due to the incompatibility of the two antithetical underpinning paradigms (for example, Guba, 1987; Sale *et al*, 2002). This is known as the paradigm war (Punch, 2014; Robson, 2011). Many researchers have nonetheless completed successful mixed method studies and thus disputed incompatibility arguments (Robson, 2011). These researchers tend to be pragmatists, whose philosophical position rejects the either/or choices and the metaphysical concepts associated with the paradigm wars, focusing instead on the best approach to take in addressing the aims and objectives of the research (Punch, 2014).

Adopting a mixed methods approach can be a complex task with a wide range of research designs that can be utilised (Punch, 2014). Table 5.1 presents examples of the common mixed method designs, which are employed variously dependant on the philosophy and scope of the research (Creswell, 2003). The research undertaken for this thesis followed the sequential exploratory design, where the interpretative phenomenological analysis was primarily qualitative in nature. The research began with an explorative qualitative phase, which was then followed by the collection and analysis of quantitative data. All data were then integrated and analysed in combination throughout the results and discussion chapters.

Table 5.1: Typology of Mixed Method Research Designs

Mixed Method Research Design	Description
Sequential Explanatory Design	The collection and analysis of quantitative data, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data. Priority is typically given to the quantitative data and the two methods are integrated during interpretation. The qualitative aspect aims to explain and interpret findings of a predominantly qualitative study.
Sequential Exploratory Design	The collection and analysis of qualitative data, followed by the collection and analysis of quantitative data. Priority is typically given to the qualitative data and the two methods are integrated during interpretation. The focus of this design is to explore a phenomenon.
Sequential Transformative Design	One method precedes the other. Priority may be given to either method and results are integrated during interpretation. The design is predominantly guided by the conceptual framework.
Concurrent Triangulation Design	Quantitative and qualitative methods are used independently and concurrently. Results are compared to assess their convergence.
Concurrent Nested Design.	A secondary method is nested within a study with one primary method.
Concurrent Transformative Design	Guided primarily by the researcher's conceptual framework, similarly to sequential transformative design.

*Adapted from Cresswell (2003)

There are a range of justifications for adopting a mixed methods approach. Firstly, a mixed methods study offers greater validity, with the two research approaches allowing for a corroboration of the data collected (Bryman, 2006; Cresswell, 2003; Robson, 2011). Secondly, adopting a mixed methods approach allows for the weaknesses of each method to be offset by the other (Bryman, 2006). Mixed methods studies are often seen as being more 'complete', as the researcher is able to collate a comprehensive account of the area of inquiry (Bryman, 2006), in this case the TEFL industry.

Bryman (2004b) however highlights that the skills and training of the researcher can be seen as problematic, as it is common for researchers to feel more at ease with one approach over the other. Mason (2006) similarly argues that mixed method approaches can severely test the capabilities of the researcher. For instance they may require more training, which could increase the length of time needed to undertake the research. Lack of research skills could also result in the quality of data collected, and its analysis, being less conclusive than if the researcher had focussed solely on the research approach with which they are familiar (Mason, 2006; Punch, 2014). To overcome this, the researcher was allocated supervision specialising in both qualitative and quantitative research. She additionally participated in a number of training courses, in the first two years of study, specific to each methodological approach, which helped enhance her research skills.

Mixed method approaches are particularly valuable when undertaking research in a 'real world' setting due to the complex nature of the phenomena and the range of perspectives that are required to understand them (Robson, 2011). Quantitative research tends to provide an account of structures in social life, whereas qualitative research provides a sense of process (Bryman, 2006). Therefore, adopting a mixed method approach for this study enabled an overall perspective of the TEFL industry to be achieved. Furthermore, a mixed method approach allowed for greater flexibility within the research. Research questions were developed during the qualitative research phase and tested throughout the quantitative phase (Bryman, 2006; Robson, 2011).

Overall it can be concluded that social studies, such as the phenomenological analysis of TEFL teaching in Thailand, are complemented by a qualitative approach. This is due to the focus on humanistic elements such as experiences, motivations and typologies. However a qualitative approach alone would provide a small set of data due to the time-consuming nature of qualitative research, which may not have facilitated the development of an accurate TEFL typology. Therefore, in order to ensure that the research was as representative as possible, within the research time and resource limits, a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches allowed for greater complementarity. The qualitative research phase facilitated an understanding of the TEFL industry to be achieved, rather than merely obtaining a distant panoramic view through quantitative channels (Brown, 2005), whilst the quantitative element of this study enabled the verification of data collected during the qualitative phase, allowing for a more accurate TEFL typology to be developed. By having a combination of methods the weaknesses, as previously identified, of each research phase were largely offset (Bryman, 2006), thus enhancing the value of the research.

Based on Creswell's (2003) sequential exploratory mixed-method design therefore, the research conformed to a two-phase process. As the TEFL sector thus far has been subjected to little academic attention, it was necessary to commence the research with a qualitative exploratory stage. Exploration was facilitated through the netnographic examination of blogs written by past and present TEFL teachers in Thailand and coding was utilised to identify key themes. These themes were then verified and further explored through the use of a quantitative survey. The results of both research phases were integrated throughout the results and discussion sections and differentiated through the labels 'research phase one' and 'research phase two' where research participants are labelled 'bloggers' and 'respondents' respectively. The following pages provide elucidation of the techniques employed.

5.4. Research Phase One

5.4.1 Netnography

In recent years the Internet and online social networking have become an integral part of society. This is demonstrated within the tourism and TEFL industries, with the Internet providing information on tourism products and services, facilitating tourism transactions and offering new ways to learn about tourism products and services directly from other consumers (Hookway, 2008; Pan *et al*, 2007; Mack *et al*, 2008). As a result of the importance and reliance placed on online presence, researchers have begun to turn to Internet sources, such as blogs, as valuable materials of data collection (Carson and Schmallegger, 2008; Hookway, 2008; Punch, 2014). Netnography can be undertaken through analysis of a number of online means including Facebook updates, tweets, recommendations on Trip Advisor, discussions on specialised online forums and blogs (Mered *et al*, 2014). These online means fall within the realms of what is collectively known as Web 2.0. This is seen as the second stage of Internet development, whereby generators have stepped away from traditional statically designed web pages, towards user generated content (UGC) and peer-to-peer applications (Carson, 2005).

Conceptually parallel with the progressive societal movement away from traditional face-to-face interaction towards a virtual communicative era, the notion of netnography is derived from traditional ethnographic research approaches. Ethnography is the examination of culture-sharing groups, with the purpose of uncovering shared patterns or beliefs, values and behaviours amongst its members (Creswell, 2007). Ethnographers study peoples' everyday lives and cultures, yet this has inherently been subject to geographical boundaries. Modern day technologies have however provided ethnographic researchers with an entirely new research realm, whereby geography is no longer the defining framework for culture (Boyd, 2009). Research based on the premise of the examination of online cultures extends the traditional notions of ethnographic study from the observation of co-located, face-to-face interactions, to technologically mediated interactions in online networks and communities, and the culture or cyberculture shared amongst them (Kozinets, 2010).

Netnography can be defined as ‘a specific set of related data collection, analysis, ethical and representational research practices, where a significant amount of the data collected and participant-observational research conducted originates in and manifests through the data shared freely on the Internet’ (Kozinets, 2015 p80). Some scholars have, however, questioned the innate nature of netnography by definition, specifically its correlations with ethnographic fieldwork. One such argument is that netnographic research undermines the central tenets of ‘good’ ethnography such as holism, reflexivity and contextual sensitivity, and instead it is suggested that netnography should be aligned more closely with traditional content or discourse analysis (Blichfeldt and Marabese, 2014). For Hine (2000, p10), the notion of holism is fundamental in unbundling the concepts of ethnography and netnography. She states that ‘a holistic description of any informant, location or culture is impossible to achieve’, and as such, virtual ethnography is by its very nature inevitably ‘wholeheartedly partial’.

Despite these arguments, which pose some valid questions regarding the ethnographic identity within Internet research, it can be argued that a *de facto* perfect ethnography does not exist, neither within nor outside of the Internet sphere (Kozinets, 2015). In fact, it can be questioned whether arguments such as this are progressing at a pace fast enough to keep up with the constantly and rapidly evolving technological and social developments. Analogising the netnographer with Old World biologists discovering the New World, Kozinets (2015) suggests that as researchers traverse the technoculture terrain in search of answers, technology shifts so quickly that despite the many benefits netnographic research has to offer, there is a risk that theories and tests may not keep pace.

Netnography faithfully exports anthropology’s set of ontological, epistemological and axiological commitments to the study of social experiences within an Internet context (Kozinets, 2015). Netnographic research is unique in that it is neither observational of a life lived, nor told in a research situation, but is instead posted online (Blichfeldt and Marabese, 2014). It can provide research scope that traditional ethnography cannot. In the case of this research it allowed the researcher access to TEFL teachers in Thailand without the inherent geographical boundaries. Whereas traditional ethnography may

have limited the researcher to a small number of locations and only to teachers operating at the time of research, netnography allowed for these boundaries to be overcome. Despite the benefits of overcoming geographical boundaries, this method is surprisingly under-utilised to date with the bulk of existing Internet-based tourism research focusing on the concept of marketing or consumer behaviour (for example, Cantalops and Salvi, 2014; Chan and Guillet, 2011; Hays *et al*, 2013; Hudson and Thai, 2012; Seunghyun *et al*, 2015; Yu-Lun, 2012).

Building further on Hine's (2000) suggestion that netnography is 'wholeheartedly partial', concerns have been raised regarding the quality of data obtained via this research approach. The textuality of much online content may for example yield some useful data, but one can question whether this may be abstracted and analysed too far beyond the material conditions of life in order to be representative for an ethnographic style study (Blichfeldt and Marabese, 2014; Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). Blichfeldt and Marabese (2014) dispute Kozinet's (2002 p62) claim that netnography facilitates 'a window into naturally occurring behaviours', arguing that this cannot possibly be obtained by static-word analysis and that the researcher has simply gained access to specific communicative acts, as opposed to the individual being studied in a holistic sense. Blichfeldt and Marabese (2014) emphasise that there are two fundamental acts in play here; 'being' and 'communicating'. They suggest that rather than netnography facilitating the examination of 'tourist-being', researchers are instead exposed to the act of communicating about 'being'. Although the content posted online may resemble the former, this may not always be true for all instances, and there is little opportunity for the researcher to determine data validity. Whilst the limitations noted here may be a major concern for researchers concentrating solely on data collected via the Internet, the mixed method approach employed within this research allowed for these limitations to be overcome.

5.4.2 Blog Analysis

Blogs are considered to be 'the next evolution of the web-based experience' (Kahn and Kellner, 2004, p91), and have demonstrated rapid growth in recent years (Hookway,

2008; Mack *et al*, 2008; Pan *et al*, 2007). The forms and appearances of blogs are manifold and cover a vast array of subject matter (Carson and Schmallegger, 2008; Gaille, 2013; Technorati, 2013). In 2013 there were over 152 million blogs accounted for on the Internet (Gaille, 2013). When conducting a Google search for 'English teaching Thailand blogs' in 2016, 1,150,000 results were returned. Although such a search will bring up an array of related web links that may not all be in the form of blogs, it does indicate the significant scale of blogs surrounding the TEFL industry in Thailand, thus confirming that there is a wealth of valuable online data, sufficient for the initial exploratory research phase (Stainton, 2017).

Travel blogs, within which category TEFL teaching in Thailand often falls, can be data-rich and valuable sources of information (Banyai and Glover, 2012) and can be broadly defined as individual entries which relate to planned, current or past travel. They are the equivalent of personal online diaries and are made up from one or more individual entries strung together by a common theme, for instance TEFL teaching. Travel blogs are commonly written by tourists to report back to friends and families about their activities and experiences during trips (Puhlinger and Taylor, 2008). Carson and Schmallegger (2008) point out that blogs are frequently updated and displayed in reverse chronological order. A particular benefit of the examination of blogs for this research was the researcher's level of experience in this field. A frequent travel blogger herself, who spends a considerable amount of time reading fellow travellers' blogs, meant that she was familiar with popular blogging styles and approaches. It is worth noting that most blogs contain primarily textual information, although uploading audio and video files is becoming more popular. They also tend to be interactive in nature, allowing readers to post comments (Carson and Schmallegger, 2008). With an overwhelming wealth of information available for examination it was decided that for the purposes of this research, only textual information would be considered for analysis owing to time and word-count restraints.

According to Technorati's (2013) Digital Influence Report, blogs rank among the top five 'most trustworthy' sources with consumers for information on the Internet. However, despite the popularity of blogs as a method of research amongst consumers, this has

not to date been echoed within scholarly practice (Snee, 2010). It can therefore be argued that there is potentially valuable information in the form of blogs that is yet to be explored by academics, including those undertaking studies on the TEFL industry. The limited studies on travel blogging undertaken have largely focussed on travel blogs as a type of research data that can inform marketing and management strategies (for example, Bosangit *et al*, 2012; Carson, 2008; Magnini *et al*, 2012; Pan *et al*, 2007). This study differed in that it used TEFL-based travel blogs as a means of gaining an initial understanding of the TEFL industry in Thailand. Few studies to date appear to have used travel blogs for such a purpose and little has been written in terms of how they might be used in social research (Snee, 2010; Stainton, 2017).

In order to ensure that data collected via blogs is verifiable, it is first important to understand the motivations for writing TEFL-based travel blogs. Many blogs are created and written by organisations for marketing purposes; their credibility is questionable as their aim is frequently to attract business, meaning that their portrayal of the industry could be romanticised and thus not entirely reflective of the TEFL industry in its entirety (Mack *et al*, 2008; Stainton, 2017). Therefore, in order to ensure optimum reliability within the research, only blogs written by past or present TEFL teachers themselves were examined (sampling is discussed further on page 86). Bosangit (2011) outlines the main motivations for a traveller to produce a blog. These include documenting travel experiences, updating family and friends, social networking, sharing information, communication and entertainment and financial rewards. Huang *et al* (2007) separate these motivations into two types of blogging behaviour; those that are interaction-orientated such as self-expression and documenting travel experiences, and those that are information-orientated which could include posts seeking information and discussion forums. All blogs analysed for this research represented the former. There are three common actions behind travel blogging, which Bosangit *et al* (2012) describe as representing places, acts of self-presentation and 'othering'. 'Othering' is particularly relevant to the study of the TEFL industry as the experience inevitably involves significant contact with 'others', which, in this instance, were the students and local community in which the TEFL teacher was based.

The method of analysis employed when analysing travel blogs tends to align most closely to that of content analysis (Banyai, 2010; Carson, 2007; Choi *et al*, 2007; Enoch and Grossman, 2010; Law and Cheung, 2010; Pan *et al*, 2007; Wenger, 2008). Content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts and is particularly useful in increasing a researcher's understanding of particular phenomena (Krippendorff, 2013), which in this instance is the TEFL industry. This method allowed for the researcher to systematically review qualitative, unstructured data presented in the blogs and to classify them according to themes, characteristics and patterns relevant to the research aims (Crano *et al*, 2015; Stainton, 2017). Although content analysis is often used as a means of quantifying data (Bryman, 2012; Crano *et al*, 2015; Krippendorff, 2013; Robson, 2011), quantification was not applied in this research owing to the exploratory nature of this research phase.

The first stage of the content analysis process was to find the body of content (Crano *et al*, 2015); in this instance the relevant blogs (see page 86 for sampling techniques). The researcher familiarised herself with this content before uploading the web pages to the computer analysis software Nvivo using the NCapture add-on. Using this programme, the researcher organised the data according to key themes, trends and concepts. Codes and sub-codes were created which formed the basis for the survey structure. Content analysis was inductive, allowing for coding categories and units to emerge empirically whilst continuously revising and updating the coding system (Crano *et al*, 2015; Stainton, 2017).

Codes were, at first, derived from the two major concepts identified in the initial literature review draft: volunteer tourism and education. However, the coding system was revised when it was evident that many key themes emerged which did not fit within the two mentioned concepts. Consequently, all themes were coded and then grouped to consist of the areas of volunteering, philanthropy, culture, education, nightlife and expatriatism which subsequently formed the basis for the conceptual framework of the thesis and guided the formation of questions for research phase two. Analysis of the data consequentially facilitated the development of the four major themes identified of leisure, career, philanthropy and expatriatism which are represented through the

development of the TEFL teacher typology in chapter nine. Nvivo was a useful tool as it facilitated quicker analysis and safe storage of the data whilst limiting the possibilities for errors to be made (Bryman, 2012; Stainton, 2017). Crano *et al* (2015) state that data-driven strategies such as this are particularly valuable when there is little pre-existing knowledge on the subject, thus further justifying the process adopted.

There are a number of advantages of using blog analysis in this way. Hookway (2008, p91), for example, describes this contemporary research method as 'the new guardians of democracy, a revolutionary form of bottom-up news production'. Bloggers are free to upload a range of content of their choice, making this data source unique in that it is not in any way influenced by the researcher. Data from blogs derives from naturally occurring, communal, cross-consumer interaction that is not found in alternative research methods (Meged *et al*, 2014). Furthermore, the content analysis method employed was unobtrusive, meaning that data was untainted as it was not produced specifically for research (Krippendorff, 2004). Blogs were able to provide the researcher with TEFL teachers' interpretations of experiences, together with their impressions, perceptions, thoughts, feelings and other issues that may otherwise not have been accounted for in a research-constrained environment (Banyai and Glover, 2012; Stainton, 2017). This notion of value-free data can, however, disadvantage the researcher since there is no opportunity to ask the blogger for clarification or elaboration of any of the topics discussed (Snee, 2010).

Although TEFL blog content analysis may not answer specific questions, it was a valuable source from which to undertake the preliminary exploratory research phase of the TEFL industry. Blog analysis helped to understand the previously unexplored phenomena of the TEFL industry through the narratives provided (Snee, 2010; Stainton, 2017). The blogs provided easy access to data and spanned wide geographical areas, reaching data that would otherwise be difficult to obtain (Carson and Schmallegger, 2008; Snee, 2010; Stainton, 2017). Although the data collected provided valuable insight, this method of data collection is not without criticism. Researchers have acknowledged that it may not always be possible to identify the author of the blog or their blogging intentions (Carson and Schmallegger, 2008; Snee, 2010; Stainton and Iordanove, 2016). Of particular

concern is the growth of marketing imbedded within blogs, such as sponsored blog posts. There is neither a way of verifying that the intended author is the actual author, nor that the information presented is accurate. For sponsored posts this may be particularly troublesome as bloggers may be remunerated for promoting a product or service, which may result in blog posts being reflective of the marketers' requirements as opposed to the bloggers' personal viewpoint (Carson and Schmallegger, 2008; Snee, 2010; Stainton and Iordanova, 2016). Blog posts that had references to marketing were not included, although it is important to note that sponsored posts may not always be apparent. This is discussed in the section which follows.

5.4.3 Phase One Sampling Techniques

As demonstrated through the 1,150,000 results returned in 2016 when conducting a 'Google' search for 'English teaching Thailand blogs', there was a wealth of data on the Internet that could be utilised within the research. However, the array of data available was too vast to be examined as a whole, requiring the need for the data set to be condensed to a manageable size through sample selection (Krippendorff, 2013; Kumar, 2011). Within blog content analysis, however, the term 'sampling' does not accord with traditional definitions involving selecting a subset of participants from a targeted population of people. Rather, in this context, sampling involves obtaining a subset of elements from the targeted population of content located within online blogs (Neuendorf, 2011).

The sample consisted of a combination of purposive and snowball sampling techniques to ensure that the sample of blogs selected was relevant to the conceptual framework and aims of the research (Miles *et al*, 2013). Fundamentally, purposive sampling is a selection method during which the researcher is free to choose research samples, in this case blogs, that are most likely to yield data beneficial to the research (Bryman, 2012; Flick, 2009; Kumar, 2011; Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014). Kumar (2011) states that this sampling technique is particularly useful when attempting to describe a phenomenon or develop something regarding where only a little is known, as this research aims to do for TEFL tourism.

Following this approach, blogs were located through the search engine Google and Wordpress blogging platforms and only blogs that addressed one or more of the following criteria were analysed for the purposes of this research: motivations for TEFL teaching in Thailand; experiences whilst TEFL teaching in Thailand; and characteristics of the TEFL population. These criteria conform to the aims of the research. Additionally, as previously stated, only blogs written by past/current TEFL teachers were analysed, in order, where possible, to avoid marketing material that may not portray a true reflection of the TEFL experience. Where the aforementioned criteria were met, the blogger sample was further restricted to teachers who came only from developed countries, with the exception of South Africa, in line with the commonly accepted nationalities noted in table 3.1.

It is common for blogs to include hyperlinks or references to other blogs (Krippendorf, 2013); as a result, references to relevant blogs were examined and included within the sample providing they met the sampling criteria. This demonstrated the use of snowball sampling, where an interconnected network of blogs was identified, starting with an initial blog which led the researcher to further relevant blogs. This process was continued until saturation point was deemed to have been reached; this meant that no new themes or patterns had been derived from the data during ten consecutive blog analyses. To ensure feasibility of the research, it was necessary to restrict the sample in terms of size and the researcher's time constraints (Krippendorf, 2013; Miles *et al*, 2013; Neuman, 2013; Punch, 2014). The analysis thus focused only on written text within the blogs to limit the amount of data collected to a manageable quantity.

Purposeful and snowball samples enabled the researcher to obtain a significant amount of data that may be inaccessible through the use of alternative means of sampling due to the niche nature of TEFL blogging. Although both purposive and snowball sampling can be criticised as not being representative and subject to selection bias (Bryman, 2012; Seale, 2012), this is not a concern for the exploratory phase as the aim was to explore the key themes to subsequently verify through quantitative means.

A total of 36 blogs were collated over a period of 8 weeks, after which time the determined saturation point was reached (as discussed on page 87). Although it was not possible to verify the author's identities due to the nature of online blogs (Stainton and Iordanova, 2016), the 36 data blogs collated all appeared to have been written by either past or present TEFL teachers based in Thailand, all of whom made direct reference to their experiences. The length and depth of blog content varied significantly, ranging from blogs comprising only a few short entries, to those with hundreds of postings. The nature of the content and blogging approach also differed. This was not deemed problematic due to the exploratory nature of this primary research phase. Bloggers are identified throughout the thesis through a unique code that they were randomly allocated.

5.5 Research Phase Two

5.5.1 Surveys

Surveys, also known as questionnaires, are widely used by social scientists (Bryman, 2012; Floyd and Fowler, 2014; Neuman, 2013; Robson, 2011). The term survey refers to the process of polling, or surveying, a group of respondents with respect to topics of interest to the researcher (Crano *et al*, 2015). The survey is an indispensable tool when primary data is required regarding people, their behaviours, attitudes and opinions (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). They are also ideal for enabling quantification (Bryman, 2012; Burns, 2000; Crano *et al*, 2015; Floyd and Fowler, 2014; Punch, 2014; Yates, 2004); both of which are the aims of research phase two.

Surveys can take a number of different forms including postal, telephone, face-to-face and respondent-completed questionnaires. There are also Internet-based methods such as e-mail or web surveys (Seale, 2012). Survey data can be broadly classified into three types. Firstly, there is data that classifies people, their circumstances and their environment, also known as respondent variables. This type of data enables respondent demographics to be obtained such as age, income and occupation (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). As basic demographics were required in order to establish an overview of the TEFL industry, this type of data was collected via the surveys. The second type of

data collected was that which related to the behaviour of people, in this instance the behavioural aspects of TEFL teachers. Accurate collection of such data can be problematic since behaviour expressed during a survey can differ from actual behaviour (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). Where possible, this was overcome through the complementary qualitative research in phase one. The third data type commonly obtained via surveys is data relating to attitudes, opinions and beliefs (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). This data type was also collected through the survey.

The advantages and disadvantages of using surveys as a research method are heavily debated within academia and the quality of data deriving from a survey invariably depends on the design, sample, the way in which it was administered and the approach to data analysis (Crano *et al*, 2015; Flowerdew and Martin, 2005; Floyd and Fowler, 2014; Neuman, 2013; Robson, 2011). Survey research tends to have a strong positivistic flavour (Robson, 2011), and as such enables large quantities of (often representative) data to be obtained (Crano *et al*, 2015; Floyd and Fowler, 2014). Other advantages include low administration costs, the speed with which surveys can be completed, the ability to use a variety of formatting options, and the convenience to the respondent as they are able to complete the survey within their preferred time-frame (Bryman, 2012; Robson, 2011; Seale, 2012).

Online administration of surveys can be a particularly beneficial way of collecting data (Seale, 2012). The survey designed for this research made use of online resources utilising e-mail and social-media links as a method of distribution. Internet connectivity allowed for the surveys to reach a large sample both demographically and geographically, with almost immediacy. Likewise, the surveys could be completed by the respondent and returned quickly, thus making effective use of the researcher's time. In addition, there was virtually no cost to the researcher. Bristol Online Surveys (BOS) software was employed as a tool for developing the survey and collating the data in an organised manner and with a professional appearance.

Surveys can be relatively simple to design (Robson, 2011), however it is imperative that they are designed in a way that enables the researcher to obtain sound qualitative data

required to meet the aims and objectives of the research (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). It is for this reason that a pilot survey was undertaken in order to assess the research instrument and its viability to meeting the aims and objectives of the research (Bryman, 2012). Twenty pilot surveys were undertaken during the month of October 2015 and feedback was used to revise the survey where necessary. The sample consisted of previous TEFL colleagues of the researcher and feedback was positive, with only minor amendments made to the survey where numerical errors were noted.

The survey began with a clear and simply worded message explaining who the researcher is and the main research objectives. Seale (2012) describes the importance of an introduction or welcome message such as this in helping to increase response rates and to give respondents confidence with regard to the nature and intentions of the research (Seale, 2012). Similarly, it is important that questions are well written and easy to understand (Seale, 2012; Bryman, 2012). Surveys are generally constructed using three types of questions: closed questions, open-ended questions and scale questions (Burns, 2000; Neuman, 2013).

Closed questions usually allow for the respondent to choose from two or more fixed responses, commonly 'yes or no', 'agree or disagree' for example. Questions were formulated from the data collected in research phase one to facilitate verification and quantification. For some questions, respondents were given the option to select multiple responses, for example, when asked which tourist-based activities they experienced respondents could select multiple options to represent the range of activities they had undertaken. Although closed questions can be criticised in that they restrict the data that can be collected (Burns, 2000), they are popular in survey design since they generally facilitate quicker completion of the survey and thus enhance response rates (Bryman, 2012). Restricted data collection was not a concern as in-depth data regarding the topics was obtained via qualitative means in research phase one.

Likert (1932) developed the principle of measuring attitudes by asking respondents to select the most appropriate pre-determined response applicable to them. Likert scales can be used for a number of question types including agreement, frequency, importance

and likelihood and are a popular research method choice for those measuring attitudes or opinions (Robson, 2011). Likert scales were utilised in the survey to gain insight into aspects such as motivations and educational value of the TEFL experience. Respondents were asked to rank each question according to one of the following options: completely agree; somewhat agree; neither agree nor disagree; somewhat disagree; completely disagree. Although this method provided sufficient insight into the topic, it is limited in that scales such as these assume that the question at hand is linear and makes the assumption that attitudes can be measured, allowing for no elaboration or deviation from the pre-determined responses given (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). This was, however, not deemed problematic as a result of the exploratory nature of this research. It should also be noted that due to the personal nature of some of the questions, such as those in relation to drugs and prostitution, there is a risk that respondents may choose not to answer truthfully, thus potentially limiting the reliability of data collected (for a copy of the survey see appendix six).

Despite the convenience and popularity of surveys as a research method, they are not without their critics. Bryman (2012) highlights the limitations of the self-completed survey, contending that whilst having no interaction with the researcher means that respondents can neither be prompted should they find answering the question difficult, nor can they be probed to provide more detailed responses. Self-completed surveys also risk the incorporation of response errors or missing values (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). Firstly, there is the risk that some questions may either not be answered or may be only partially answered (Bryman, 2012). Secondly, there is the possibility that respondents may not entirely comprehend the question they are asked, potentially resulting in inaccurate answers thus impacting on the quality and reliability of the data collected (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). Thirdly, it is possible that respondent response errors can be induced as a result of poorly designed surveys and question wording (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005). These limitations were in part overcome by the use of the pilot survey which identified shortcomings in the questionnaire. There is however no way of ascertaining whether each question was fully understood by all respondents. Missing responses are discussed on page 93.

Securing a high degree of involvement by respondents in a survey can be problematic, particularly when administering the survey via the Internet (Robson, 2011; Seale, 2012). The response rate, for example, may not be high as many people do not respond to an unsolicited e-mail (Seale, 2012). Similarly, people may not feel as obligated to complete the survey as they might if they were physically or verbally approached (Robson, 2011). Ensuring that the survey reaches the target population is also important; this can be achieved through gathering a list of e-mail addresses or contacting potential respondents via social media. However, gaining access to e-mail addresses and social media contacts can prove to be a challenging task (Seale, 2012). Response rates in this research were correspondingly low. According to the BOS software, the response rate was a mere 3%. Feedback from respondents indicate that the main reason for this was the length of the survey which took approximately twenty minutes to complete. This was unavoidable since a shorter survey would not have facilitated the collection of data on all the aspects required. Despite this, a total of 567 usable completed surveys were received.

5.5.2 Statistical Analysis

In order to reduce human error and to enable more complex statistical tests to be completed than would be practical manually (Burns, 2000; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001), Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version twenty-three, was utilised for the analysis of research phase two. Once the data was input into SPSS it was cleaned. This is necessary as a result of possible data entry errors (Seale, 2012). The most common error included the use of the 'other' option, where respondents had frequently written a string response. In many cases, this option had been used to provide more detail than the categorical responses would allow, despite there being an applicable categorical answer for respondents to select. A typical example was education, where some respondents wanted to state the title and classification of their degree as opposed to simply selecting the highest level of education attained. Another reason for use of the 'other' option was due to a perceived misunderstanding of the categorical options available. For example, a respondent had used the 'other' option to state that their highest level qualification was a Bachelors when they could have simply selected the

degree option. It is anticipated that errors such as this may be due to cultural and linguistic differences across different geographical locations. Once such errors were identified they were re-coded where applicable. Prior to analysing the data, it was necessary to check that all respondents met the selection criteria. Thirty-two respondents did not satisfy the criteria as they were not nationals of the accepted TEFL applicant countries, predominantly India and the Philippines. These responses were omitted from the data set, reducing the total number of responses from 599 to 567.

Open-ended responses were, where possible, analysed and coded using a similar approach to that taken in research phase one. This was beneficial as it allowed for responses to be quantified and coded in preparation for statistical analysis (Seale, 2012). Throughout the process of analysis variables were re-coded. Re-coding is useful when there are a large number of categories, helping to simplify the process of analysis (Seale, 2012). This is where applicable indicated within chapters six-nine.

Missing survey data can limit the reliability of statistical tests and analysis (Argyrous, 2011; Pallant, 2007). Since the majority of survey questions had to be answered by the respondent in order to progress to the next question this occurrence was limited. During the cleaning process, it was however noted that within string-based responses, some respondents had not answered the specific question. For example, when those who had previously stated that they were current students were asked which subject they studied some respondents indicated the level of study, such as Masters, rather than the subject. Responses such as this were re-coded as missing values. The number of valid responses is identified for all results presented and percentages are based only on valid data collected, excluding missing cases values.

A variable is a condition or quality that can differ from one case to another, classified by the scale of measurement it facilitates (Argyrous, 2011; Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Ho, 2006). The use of statistical tests are largely determined by the variables to be analysed (see appendix seven). The majority of questions within the survey produced nominal (also known as categorical) responses, where the respondent selected the 'best fit' option. Although this is the simplest level of measurement (Argyrous, 2011; Ho, 2006),

the data adequately facilitated the examination of correlations between variables; necessary for the formation of the TEFL typology. The survey also produced some ordinal data through the incorporation of Likert-style questions. Two questions facilitated the collection of ratio scale data.

As a result of the majority of data being nominal, statistical tests involving numerically-based assessment such as calculations of means or standard deviations were not appropriate to the research. The use of nominal data meant that it was not possible to make any general assumptions about the population that the sample was drawn from, such as normal distribution and equal variance (Ho, 2006; Pallant, 2007; Privitera, 2015). The majority of statistical tests undertaken were thus non-parametric, also known as distribution-free (Pallant, 2007). Although non-parametric tests are beneficial as a result of less stringent assumptions than their parametric counterparts, there are still basic requirements that must be fulfilled. Data must derive from sufficient sampling and there must be independence between each observation, that is each person or case can be counted only once (Ho, 2006; Pallant, 2007).

Together with consideration of variable types, statistical tests were selected based on their ability to meet the research aims. In order to develop a typology of TEFL teachers it was necessary to undertake a number of statistical tests to determine correlations between variables and their significance. Chapters six to nine demonstrate the integrated approach taken to the results and discussion, where univariate and bivariate statistical tests were undertaken and analysed in conjunction with qualitative data obtained in research phase one. Frequency tables, cross tabulations, graphs and raw data output are included in these chapters where necessary.

In order to determine whether two categorical variables are independent or related the chi-square (χ^2) test for independence was used throughout the analysis process. Within this test, the statement of independence forms the null hypothesis. If the null is rejected it can be concluded that the two variables are not independent (Argyrous, 2011; Leon-Guerro and Frankfort-Nachmias, 2015). In addition to the assumptions for all non-parametric tests, the assumption that the minimum expected frequency for each cell

must be a minimum of five must not be violated (Ho, 2006; Pallant, 2007). The χ^2 statistic is calculated from the difference between the observed and expected frequencies in each cell of a bivariate table. The greater the difference between the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies, the larger the value of χ^2 . Whether or not this correlation is significant depends on the probability of obtaining this sample χ^2 value from populations where the two variables are independent (Argyrous, 2011; Privitera, 2015). Output from SPSS obtained during the analysis provided the Pearson χ^2 value, degrees of freedom (df) and the significance level (p). In order to be classified significant the p value must be 0.05 or smaller (Pallant, 2007).

The χ^2 test was deemed appropriate for this research as a result of its ability to demonstrate similarities and difference between groups, thus enabling exploration of the variables associated with different types of TEFL teachers. It is worth noting, however, that there were limitations encountered during analysis. When there is only one degree of freedom (two categories i.e. male/female) it is suggested that the test may over-estimate and therefore many academics suggest that it is not used (Pallant, 2007). In order to prevent overestimation of statistical significance for small data the additional correction value, Yates correction for continuity, was utilised. This test subtracts 0.5 from the difference between each observed value and its expected value in a 2×2 contingency table, reducing the χ^2 value obtained and thus increasing its probability (p)-value (Pallant, 2007). Due to the sample size there were a number of χ^2 tests that violated one of the underlying assumptions where the count of a particular category was less than five. In this instance cross tabulation tables were used to present the data and identify any evident trends or associations.

Once relationships between variables were determined through the use of descriptive statistics, these could then be used within a logarithmic regression model to predict teacher-type based on the associated variables (Privitera, 2015). Logistic regression allows models to be tested to predict categorical outcomes where there are two or more categories (Pallant, 2007), in this case, member or non-member of the associated typology. Based on general themes identified in research phase one, the TEFL typology was formulated to include the following categories; leisure-minded TEFLer,

philanthropy-minded TEFLer, career-minded TEFLer, expatriate-minded TEFLer. An index was created for each teacher-type based on the above-mentioned themes (see chapter nine) and respondents were classified according to their highest score. It was these classifications that were subsequently examined in the logistic regression tests.

Due to the categorical nature of variables collected, the most appropriate statistical test enabling the formation of the teacher typology model was logistic regression. In contrast to most inferential tests, logistic regression produces a binary outcome (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2013), in this case member or non-member of a particular typological group. Logistic regression does not make many of the key assumptions of general linear models that are based on linearity, normality or homogeneity of variance. Instead it applies a non-linear value transformation to the predicted odds ratio. It does this by using the logit link function which utilises the mean of the categorical variable as opposed to the variable itself (Kahane, 2008).

Despite being the most suitable inferential test for this research, there is a disadvantage in utilising this method. As logistic regression is based on probability assumptions, it can be seen as less stringent than its linear counterparts. To overcome this the test requires a higher number of cases for each predictor or independent variable. The underlying assumption is that there are a minimum of 10 counts, as opposed to the 5 counts (Kahane, 2008; Pallant, 2007) required for the χ^2 tests undertaken.

Logistic regression produces a probability value between 0 and 1, the cut point is 0.5, meaning that if the probability is above 0.5 the respondent is predicted to be (in this instance) a member of that particular typological group, whereas if the probability is below 0.5 they are predicted not to be a member of that group (Kahane, 2008). SPSS outputs results from a number of statistical tests; however it was not deemed appropriate to utilise all this output due to the level of complexity that was not required for this study.

The first test utilised was the Omnibus Test of Model Coefficients. This provided an overall indication of how well the model performed, over and above the results obtained for Block 0, with none of the predictors entered into the model. This is referred to as a

'goodness of fit' test whereby the p value should be less than 0.05 (Pallant, 2007). This test was seen as the most appropriate 'goodness of fit' test as its interpretation is consistent with the use of χ^2 statistics utilised in the previous chapters, thus facilitating a simpler analysis and reducing the risk of human error.

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is a measure of the proportion of variance of a predicted outcome. With a value of 0 to 1, the coefficient of determination is calculated as the square of the correlation coefficient (R) between the sample and predicted data. In order to determine this variance the Nagelkerke R^2 test was utilised. Due to the nature of categorical data, this test produces pseudo R square statistics, rather than the true R square values and is thus indicative rather than explanatory (Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Kahane, 2008). The Nagelkerke test was viewed as preferable for this study as it produces output between 0 and 1 and therefore facilitates a simpler form of analysis than other tests of coefficient of determination (Pallant, 2007).

Logistic regression is particularly useful as it provides information about the contribution or importance of each of the predictor variables (Pallant, 2007). The Wald test was used to test the null hypothesis that a set of parameters is equal to some value. If the test failed to reject the null hypothesis, this suggested that removing the variables from the model would not substantially harm the fit of that model, as the independent variable does not have a significant impact upon the dependent variable (Kahane, 2008). This enabled applicable variables to be eliminated from the associated typological model. The unstandardised coefficients (B value) were used to calculate the probability of a case falling into a specific category and the direction of the relationship. The odds ratio (OR) then demonstrated that for a one-unit increment on a predictor, the outcome variable increases (or if B is negative, decreases) by a number of its raw units corresponding to what the B coefficient is (Balnaves and Caputi, 2001; Kahane, 2008; Pallant, 2007).

5.5.3 Phase Two Sampling Techniques

Similar to research phase one, the respondent sample was derived from a combination of purposive and snowball approaches. In order to overcome the challenge of obtaining

the e-mail addresses of potential respondents (Seale, 2012), the researcher contacted a few key respondents that were known to her personally or that were identified as potential respondents due to their membership of relevant groups on social media or their work profile presented on LinkedIn. These respondents were then asked to forward the survey to other potential respondents, which in many cases were their past or present colleagues.

Surveys are commonly praised by researchers for their ability to obtain large sets of data in order to be representative (e.g. Bryman, 2012; Burns, 2000; Crano *et al*, 2015; Floyd and Fowler, 2014; Punch, 2014; Yates, 2004). The primary aim of adopting the use of surveys in this study was to facilitate the analysis of the TEFL teaching experiences of a range of past, or current TEFL teachers that have undertaken TEFL placements in different geographical areas of Thailand. However, due to the nature of the sample, the data collected may not be entirely representative of the TEFL teaching community in Thailand. Firstly, not all TEFL teachers may have access to e-mail or social media (particularly those living in areas where the Internet is less accessible than it is in the UK) and therefore were unable to complete the survey. Secondly, the way in which the sampling technique was adopted meant that respondents were not randomly selected, resulting in many respondents potentially falling within the same social or professional circles. As Crano *et al* (2015) point out, purposive or snowball samples acquired through social links often result in similar personal lives (for example, politically, culturally, economically), meaning that they may thus not be representative of the wider population. Thirdly, the sample size impacts on how representative the collected data is. For the purpose of this research a sample size of 500 completed surveys was deemed adequate in obtaining data required to meet the research objectives. This target was exceeded, with a total of 567 responses collected. Sufficient data was obtained to verify the data collected during research phase one and to reliably develop the proposed typology. The findings of the research are thus indicative of, rather than representative of, TEFL teachers in Thailand. In line with research phase one, only respondents that had past or present work experience as a TEFL teacher in Thailand and were of an accepted

TEFL nationality (thus excluding developing countries aside from South Africa-see table 3.1), were eligible to take part in the survey.

5.6 Research Ethics

Ethical challenges arise in all designs and approaches and at all stages of research projects (Punch, 2014). Despite many ethical issues being difficult to define (Seale, 2012), it is imperative that researchers do their utmost to identify any potential ethical implications of their research and to overcome these. The standard approach to research ethics involves a deductive move from rules and principles to application (Punch, 2014). Based on the ethical guidelines and policy of Buckinghamshire New University, ethical considerations are discussed below.

One of the most frequent references to ethics within social research refers to the importance of gaining informed consent (Huberman and Miles, 1994; Punch, 1994; Seale, 2012). Informed consent is based on the principle that individuals are given the opportunity to decide whether they wish to participate in the research or not. In order for consent to be 'informed', the reason for the study, the requirements of the participants and any potential harm or risks must be explained (Seale, 2012). For research phase two this was relatively straightforward and informed consent was obtained by an outline provided at the beginning of the questionnaire and subsequent respondent authorisation. For research phase one however, the ethical boundaries were somewhat blurred.

Human subject research norms such as informed consent do not apply to public, published material and as such consent is not required when analysing traditional texts such as newspapers or literature (Snee, 2013). Although at first glance a blog may appear to be a simple published text that can be grouped together with the likes of newspaper articles, blogs are in fact substantially more complex. To start, there is the debate over whether the blogger is an author or a subject. A blog could be viewed as published material, in line with a newspaper article, and the blogger therefore classified as an author. If this view is taken, it can be argued that the content utilised is a secondary data source and the author should thus be credited for their work and therefore named and

appropriately referenced. The data obtained may be found online but, in a world that is becoming ever more virtual, differentiation between online and offline published material is questionable (Stainton and Iordanova, 2016).

However, it is worth noting that all bloggers may not have the same perspective. Although some bloggers view themselves as professional or amateur writers who may want their content to be public and be appreciative of the additional exposure, others may feel aggrieved at their blog content being used for a purpose other than that for which it was intended. It can be argued that bloggers have not produced their material for research purposes and that it is ethically incorrect to use their blog content without consent to do so (Stainton and Iordanova, 2016). Despite discussion on whether it is ethically appropriate to name the blogger, in many cases this is not possible. It is common for the authors of websites and blogs to be unidentified, thus making the ability to contact the author in order to request consent extremely difficult (Punch, 2014).

Some researchers reach ethical conclusions within Internet research by deciphering the difference between private and public space. However, there is no clear definition of what is private on the Internet and it can be suggested that there is a lack of awareness about who can access online communications and who cannot (Hudson and Bruckman, 2005) meaning that some people may post content in the public domain without the intention of it being publically accessible. Frankel and Siang (1999), however, propose that there are two distinct types of privacy within Internet research: technological and psychological. If a blog post is technologically private, a reader would require a password or a unique link to access it. As the majority of bloggers manage their websites themselves, it can be assumed that they are aware of any technological privacy, and this is therefore not deemed a significant issue within blog analysis. Psychological privacy conversely, suggests that a blogger may post content that is viewed as personal or private and, although they may be aware that it has been posted within the public domain, they have no intentions of their personal information being viewed by many.

Researchers may choose to view material sourced within blogs as a research subject as opposed to an author. Although it is by no means clear cut, it can be argued that despite

blogs being written by human participants, this material is in the public domain and is thus not human data (Economic Social Research Council, 2015). It can thus be reasoned that because there is no interaction between the human participant and the researcher, ethical guidelines applicable to human participants are less valid within blog analysis.

It can also be argued whether blog content neatly fits into either segment and that the content is neither an author nor a subject. In fact, the Internet complicates the realities of personhood and it can be suggested that, rather than fitting into either category, a blog can be seen as a digital extension of the self (Markham and Buchanan, 2012). Snee (2013), for example, viewed bloggers as authors within her study of the narratives of young people taking a gap year, but the blog content as the author's public documents. Consequently, she did not see the necessity of gaining informed consent because the content analysed was not of a private nature and was situated in the public domain.

It can be questioned whether contacting bloggers in order to gain consent to use their blog content for research purposes is appropriate. Many bloggers choose to provide little or no detail of who they are and how they can be contacted. This indicates that they may not wish to be disturbed. Furthermore, blogs are available in the public domain; as a result a blogger may feel that it is unnecessary for a researcher to contact him/her to seek permission to use their content since they are aware that the content is publically available. Sending permission requests to bloggers may also be viewed as spam, as being intrusive or as an invasion of the bloggers privacy (Hewson *et al*, 2003).

This research has taken the view that the blogs analysed were published in the public domain and that there is no need therefore to request consent for their use (Snee, 2010). Additionally, many bloggers were unidentified, thus making the ability to contact the author in order to request consent extremely difficult (Punch, 2014). Taking into consideration the ethical guidelines produced by the Association of Internet Researchers (AOIR) (2012) blogs and author identities were viewed as public, but web addresses and identities have been kept confidential. Since direct quotes are used throughout the results and discussion chapters, it is acknowledged that the data source could be located online; nonetheless it was decided to provide pseudonyms, in the form of letter and

number combinations, to limit animosity or sensitivity caused as a result of the blog content not being intended for research purposes.

It is an integral element of research that it facilitates privacy, confidentiality and data protection in order to ensure that it is ethical (Punch, 2014; Seale, 2012). All data collected is stored in a private folder on the researcher's computer/ data storage device with password access only. Respondents' details are not stated on the files and are not used at any point throughout the research.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter demonstrates the strong theoretical underpinning of the research design employed for this study. The interpretative mixed-methods design allowed for meaningful and detailed data to be extracted through the qualitative research phase, whilst research phase two enabled quantification on a scale sufficiently significant to facilitate the development of the TEFL typology. This research design took advantage of the benefits of both qualitative and quantitative research whilst, to the extent possible, also counteracting the limitations.

The first research phase employed qualitative blog analysis, which complemented the phenomenological focus of this research through its exploratory, inductive nature. Although there are ambiguities with regard to ethics and verification of data collected through blogs, these limitations have been addressed. This method of data collection was unique as it provided a research source which is rich in detail. Themes that arose were incorporated into the survey design and analysed in greater depth through the use of statistical analysis. Logistic regression was then utilised to develop the TEFL typology. Whilst there were benefits and limitations to both methods of data collection, this chapter has demonstrated the validity of the research based on the methodological design.

The following chapters present the data collected in both research phases one and two. Chapter six presents the TEFL characteristics of the teacher and their experiences. Chapter seven relates to TEFL experiences outside the classroom, whilst chapter eight

concerns the TEFL experiences inside the classroom. The following chapters present and discuss findings of the primary research.

6.1 Introduction

This chapter helps to address the second research objective which is to introduce and justify the concept 'TEFL tourism' through the creation of a definition of TEFL tourism and a typology of TEFL teachers based upon teacher motivations and experiences. In support of the proposed definition and typology presented in chapter nine, this chapter examines the key characteristics of the respondents and elements of their experience in order to provide an overview of the TEFL teachers within this research. Findings throughout this chapter derive from blogger content in research phase one and the survey data from research phase two. Whilst there is, to date, scant data relating to the characteristics of the TEFL teacher and their TEFL trip, this chapter emphasises several commonalities between TEFL characteristics and those associated with volunteer tourism. Fewer associations are identified with the philanthropic, package, cultural, educational and nightlife forms of tourism discussed in chapter three. This chapter draws predominantly on the literature addressing the volunteer tourism industry owing to the volume of relevant demographic data applicable to this tourism form.

The chapter is organised into three sections. The first presents the characteristics of TEFL teachers in Thailand focusing on age, gender, marital status, nationality, education and work experience. The second section outlines characteristics of the TEFL trips undertaken in terms of the experience type (for example, gap year or missionary work), duration of TEFL teaching, remuneration, location, school type, teaching levels, class size, teaching hours, the TEFL package and visa and work permits. In the final section, motivations and the three key themes of travel and tourism, life experience and destination Thailand are examined.

6.2 Teacher Characteristics

6.2.1 Age

Research phase two indicated that the most common age of respondents was between 22-25, followed by those aged 26-30. These two categories represented the largest group of respondents (57.8%), indicating that the average age of a TEFL teacher in Thailand in this research is between ages 22-30. By comparison a volunteer tourist, who is typically aged between 18-25 (Broad and Jenkins, 2008; TRAM, 2008; Tomazos and Butler, 2009; Wearing, 2001) is thus, on average, younger than a TEFL teacher. Although their age was not directly stated by the majority of bloggers during research phase one, the presence of photographs in the blogs provided visual indication that only 3% of bloggers appeared to be over the approximate age of 40. This does not support the findings of research phase two, where the >40 respondents represent 16.9% of the research sample.

Table 6.1: Age Distribution

Age Range	Number	Percent
16-18	7	1.2
19-21	47	8.3
22-25	206	36.3
26-30	122	21.5
31-35	51	9.0
36-40	38	6.7
41+	96	16.9
Total	567	100.0

(Valid responses=567)

As indicated in table 6.1 the blogger sample may not adequately represent TEFL teachers aged over 40. This is noted as a limitation in research phase one. One possible explanation is the nature of technology-based data collection. As highlighted in the methodology chapter, the use of Internet-based technology has grown exponentially in

recent years. As such, younger members of society may be more comfortable or familiar with the use of online blogs than older people. Furthermore, the diverse locational placements of the TEFL teachers (TESOL Association, 2014) means that some bloggers may be/have been based in rural locations without adequate Internet access to facilitate the maintenance of an online blog. This factor further supports the use of research phase one as exploratory rather than explanatory since, as suggested by Snee (2013), data collected from blogs may not be representative of the TEFL community in Thailand.

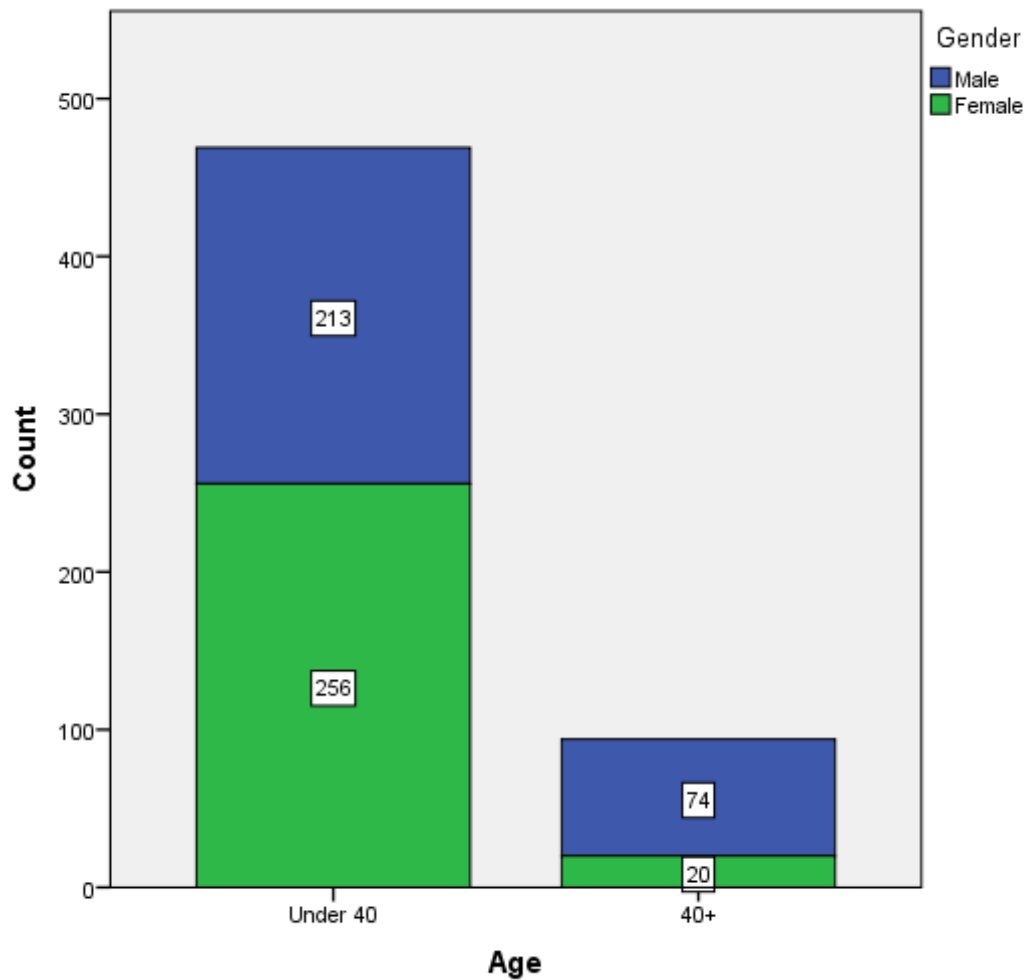
Although there may not be accurate representation of the >40 TEFL community within the blog analysis, these TEFL teachers are frequently discussed by those of a younger age, as demonstrated by bloggers J and C1 respectively, thus providing limited data regarding TEFL teachers of this age;

'A lot of English teachers here are old retired men who come here to travel and marry Thai women.'

'There are many older men living in Thailand, for most of them the primary purpose of being there is to find a Thai bride or for sex. Some of them come across a little perverted.'

There is strong evidence within the survey data supporting comments, such as those noted above, made during research phase one demonstrating a significant relationship between age and gender ($\chi^2=39.464$, $df=2$, $p<0.01$) (see figure 6.1). The causation for this is likely to be due to the nature of the expatriate community in Thailand, where there is a high population of older men relocating due to the lifestyle and romantic opportunities available (Howard, 2009).

Figure 6.1: Age Gender Correlation

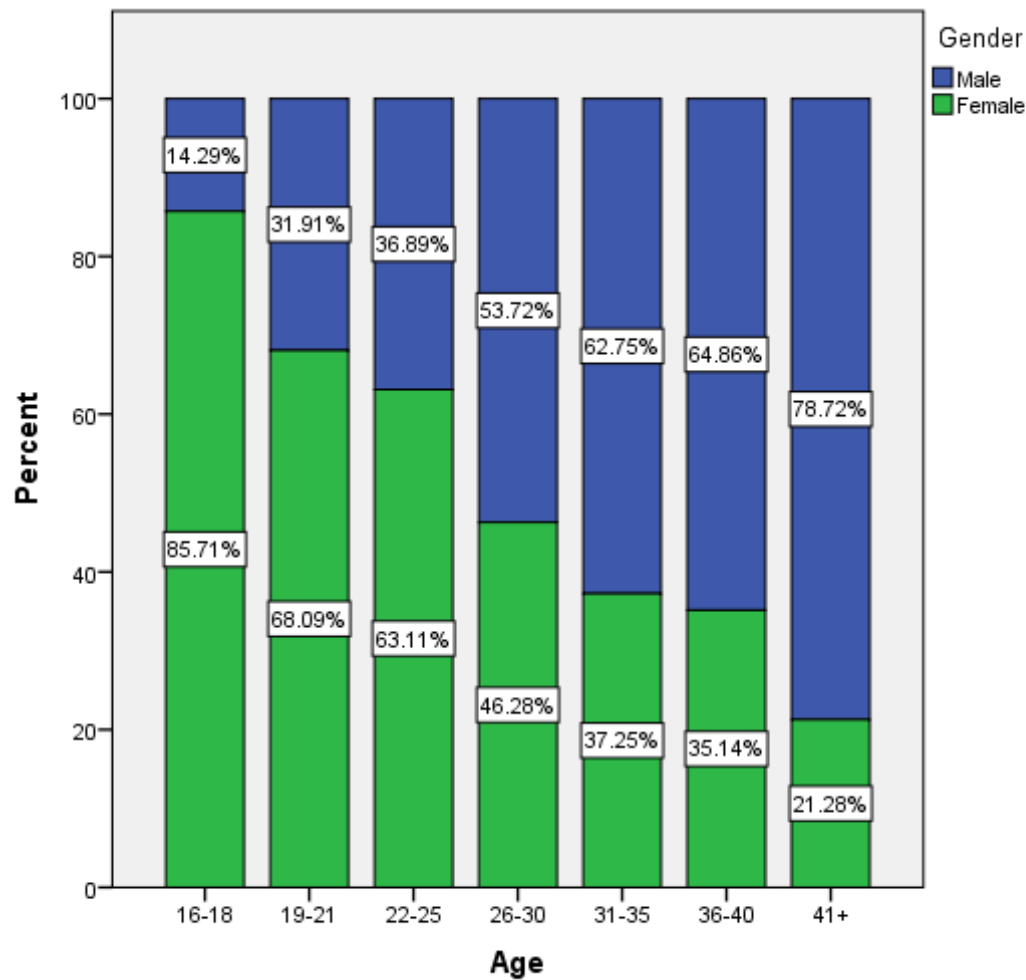


(Valid responses=563)

6.2.2 Gender

Overall, the sample from research phase two comprised of 50.9% male and 48.7% female respondents. One respondent identified themselves as transgender and three did not disclose their gender. Building on the links between gender and age, a cross tabulation demonstrated that there was a positive correlation between male gender and age, whilst there was a negative correlation between females and age (see figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2: Age and Gender Correlation



(Valid responses=563)

As demonstrated in figure 6.2, the younger TEFL population tend to be predominantly female, whereas the older population tend to be male. This does not support data derived from research phase one where the majority of blogs analysed were written by females (56%), while 31% were written by males and 13% did not identify their gender. It is, however, important to recognise that the small sample size in research phase one presented indicative, rather than representative data. The survey data also differed from the literature on volunteer tourism, the sector viewed as being most closely related to TEFL tourism, where the majority of volunteer tourism participants are female (Brown, 2005; Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008). It can be argued, however, that this difference may be due to the case-study nature of this project, where the number of male TEFL teachers may be higher in Thailand than other destinations due to

relocation as a result of the sexual and romantic opportunities available (Howard, 2009). In support of this, if the respondents described by Howard (2009) were omitted from the sample, there would be a strong similarity between typical participants in volunteer tourism and TEFL teaching in Thailand.

6.2.3 Marital status

Table 6.2 demonstrates that, in line with volunteer tourists (Gecko *et al*, 2009; Tomazos and Butler, 2009), the majority of TEFL teachers in Thailand are single. A further breakdown of relationships has not been previously identified within the volunteer tourism literature. Amongst TEFL respondents more women are likely to be single than men ($\chi^2=10.92$, $df=1$, $p<0.01$, Yates continuity Correction 10.21) and those men aged below 40 are more likely to be single than men aged over 40 ($\chi^2=51.8$, $df=1$, $p<0.01$, Yates continuity Correction 49.73). Once again, this is likely to be the result of the popularity of older men relocating to Thailand as a result of the lifestyle and romantic opportunities available to them (Howard, 2009).

Table 6.2: Marital Status Frequency

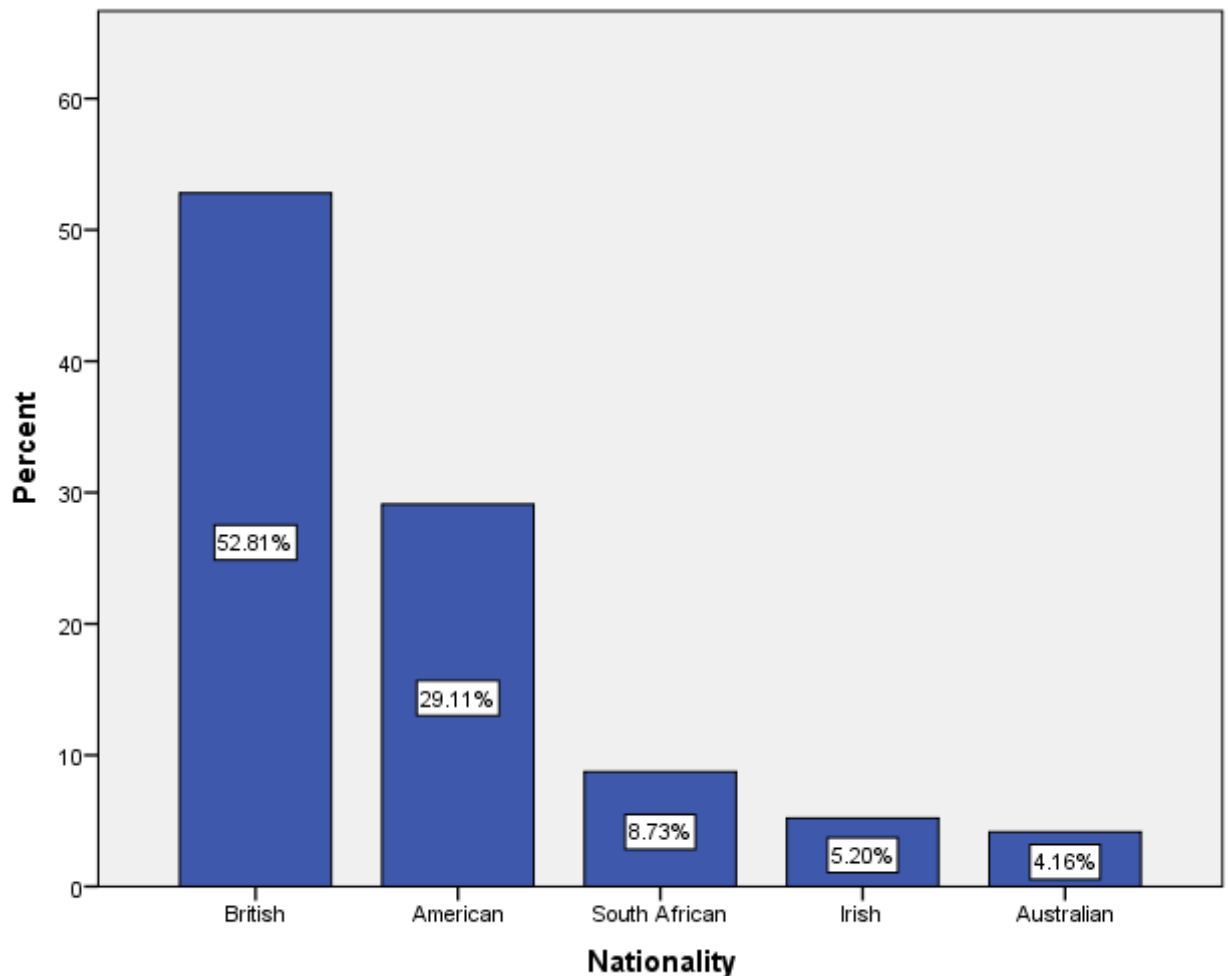
Marital Status	Number	Percent
Single (including divorced/widowed)	464	81.8
Married/civil partnership	102	18.0

(Valid responses=566)

6.2.4 Nationality

Research phase two respondents comprised of 31 nationalities. As outlined on page 99, only respondents who were a national of a developed country, with the exception of South Africa (in line with the commonly accepted TEFL nationalities noted in table 3.1), were considered for inclusion in the research. Thirty-two respondents were omitted from the study on this basis during the data cleaning stage, leaving 567 eligible respondents. The top 5 nationalities made up 91.1% of the sample.

Figure 6.3: Top Five Respondent Nationalities



(Valid responses=481)

Although only 38% of bloggers identified their nationality during research phase one, the results broadly supported the findings of research phase two. Phase one indicated that 60% of these respondents were from Europe and 33% were from the USA. Phase two demonstrated that 57.9% of respondents were from Europe and 24.7% from the USA. The results imply that nationalities are not as diverse as claimed by scholars of volunteer tourism (Alexander, 2012; Lo and Lee, 2011). This could, however, in part be due to the snowball sampling technique adopted (see page 98), resulting in research participants often being from similar social or geographical areas (Bryman, 2012; Seale, 2012). It could also be due to the case-study nature of this research, where the focus is not global, but on a specific destination.

6.2.5 Education

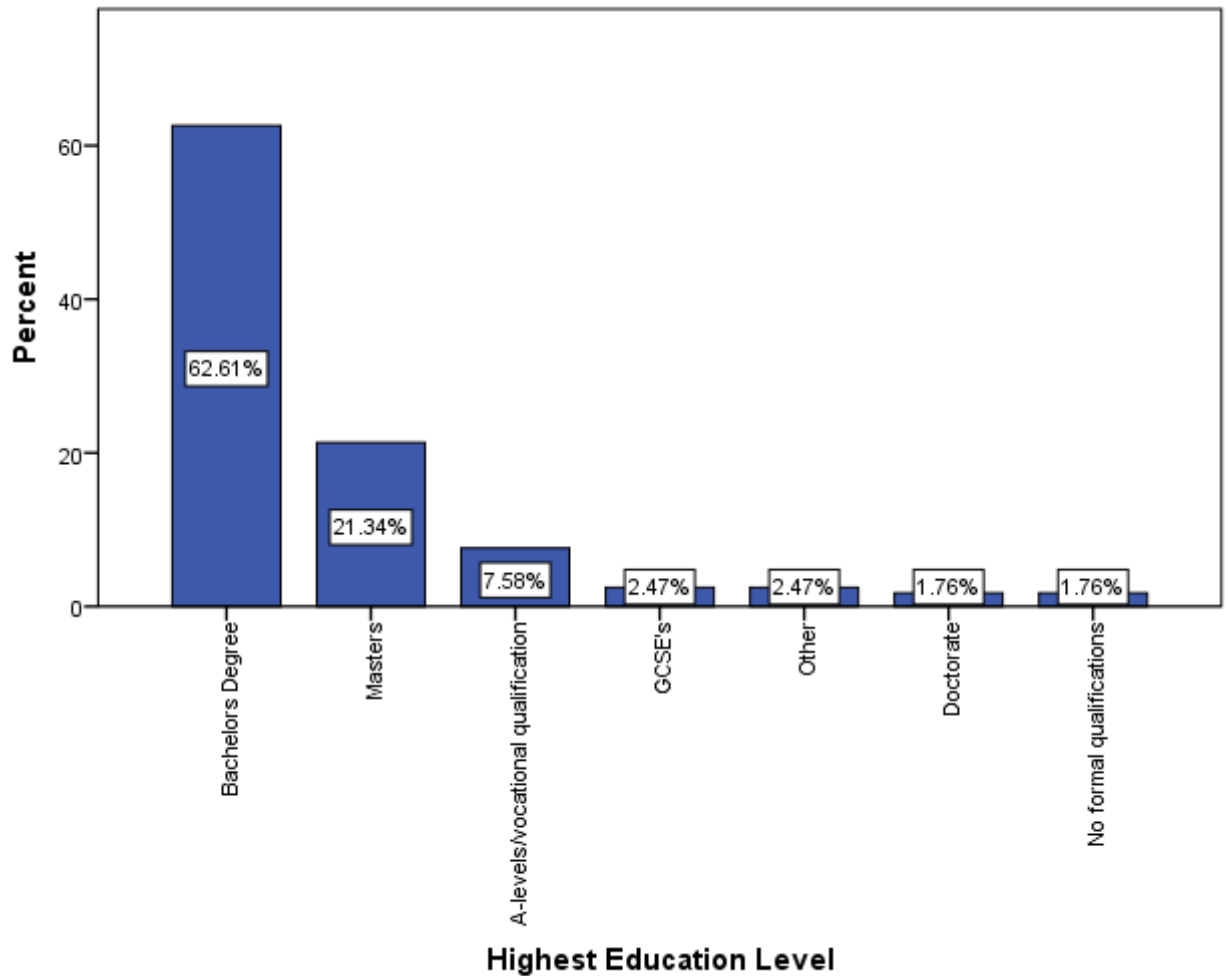
The operational teaching standards in Thailand (see appendix four) indicate that all teachers should have a Bachelor's Degree and a teaching qualification which is a minimum of one year in duration (National Education Council, 2005; Teachers Council of Thailand, 2005). Requirements to teach in Thailand sought by the organisations examined in table 3.1, however, do not appear to replicate these requirements. This supports findings of research undertaken by Khamkien (2010) and Yunibandhu (2004), who found that a number of TEFL teachers did not hold the required qualifications to teach in Thailand. Furthermore, according to Ajarn (2014) many teachers may appear to be qualified, but their qualifications may have been illegitimately purchased on the black market. Although not questioned directly in this regard, one respondent stated in response to an open ended question in relation to frustrations that;

'[I was most frustrated by] All the fake degrees of western teachers'.

It is not possible to tell from the data collected for this research if all respondents were honest about the integrity of their qualifications. It is thus worth noting that based on the findings of previous research (Ajarn, 2014), the figures (see figure 6.4) may not be wholly accurate since some TEFL teachers may claim to have obtained qualifications, when in reality they have not.

Forty-seven percent of bloggers in research phase one made reference to their educational attainment, indicating that education is evidently noteworthy and, by assumption, important to the bloggers. Amongst these bloggers, 18% stated that they were current university students, 59% held an undergraduate degree, and 6% had either a CELTA, TEFL or PGCE qualification. One blogger detailed her aspirations to continue studying and to obtain a Masters degree and 18% provided detail in their blogs that indicated that they had chosen to teach in Thailand immediately after graduating from university. Similar to data collected in research phase one, phase two demonstrated that the majority (62.61%) of respondents were educated to Bachelors degree level.

Figure 6.4: Highest Educational Attainment



(Valid responses=567)

Eighty-five point seven percent of respondents stated that they were qualified to degree level or above. This is in line with volunteer tourism, where most participants are educated to university level (Birdwell, 2011; Brown, 2005; Tomazos and Butler, 2009c). Of the respondents, 23.5% stated that they were continuing students, a significant proportion of whom were studying teaching-focused qualifications (46.7%). This is in support of Gecko *et al's* (2009) study, which found that most volunteer tourists are current students traveling as part of a gap year or school break. With almost half of student respondents studying teaching-focused qualifications, it is likely that the educational value of their TEFL experience is important to them. It could be argued that these respondents can be classified as educational tourists, supporting Ritchie *et al's* (2003) education first model, where the tourist experience is secondary to formal

educational gain. Educational gain as part of the TEFL experience is further addressed in sections 8.10 (Continuous Professional Development).

Punthumasen (2007) raises concerns that, despite the requirement for teachers to have a formal teaching qualification (National Education Council, 2005; Teacher Council of Thailand, 2005), many foreign teachers in Thailand are classified as 'out of field', meaning that they do not hold qualifications relevant to teaching or to the subject being taught, which in the case of TEFL is English. This is supported in tables 6.3 and 6.4, which demonstrate that 10.2% of respondents had no formal teaching qualifications and 39% had no formal English qualifications. Furthermore, 53.6% of respondents held only qualifications in TEFL or TESOL, which have been criticised for their ambiguity, lack of consistency and limited regulation (Ajarn, 2014). Taking this into account, it can be argued that the number of verifiably teacher-qualified respondents (excluding TEFL or TESOL qualifications as a result of their ambiguity) is 19.1% (see table 6.3). It is however important to note that the cross-analysis of qualifications across different educational institutions and geographical locations is a complex task beyond the scope of this thesis. As such, this data is indicative in nature only, providing scope for further research to be undertaken.

Table 6.3: Teaching Qualifications Held by TEFL Teachers

Teaching Qualification Type (multiple response)	Number of Responses	Percent of Respondents
No formal teaching qualifications	58	10.2%
TEFL/TESOL	354	62.4%
CELTA	68	12.0%
DELTA	10	1.8%
Bed/PGCE/Med	30	5.3%
Other	2	0.4%

(Valid responses=522)

Table 6.4: English Qualifications Held by TEFL Teachers

English Qualification Type (multiple response)	Responses Number	Percent of Respondents
No formal English qualifications	221	39.0%
GCSE language/literature grade A-C	188	33.2%
GCSE language/literature D-G	11	1.9%
AS/A Level English	103	18.2%
English focused degree	113	19.9%
Other	8	1.4%

(Valid responses=644)

Although a formal English qualification is not a legal requirement to teach in Thailand, it can be argued, as suggested by Punthumasen (2007) that this can result in a teacher being classified 'out of field' as they are not a qualified specialist in the subject. Data

collected during research phase one indicated that a lack of English skills was of particular concern amongst bloggers. Blogger T articulated;

'It may seem crazy that you may be working with teachers who have taught English for 20 or more years and struggle to put together a grammatically correct sentence'

In addition, some bloggers highlighted their own English language shortcomings;

'I'm not a very good writer I don't claim to be, I don't have structure and sometimes my Grammar is bad! I'm sure people read this and think 'eh she teaches English?' lol' [sic]
(Blogger N)

*'F**k it! My writing and grammar are absolutely awful, and yea this is a blog from someone who is teaching English!' [sic]* (Blogger A)

When asked to self-assess their level of written English, data derived from research phase two demonstrated that 79.7% of respondents were confident that their skills were adequate (table 6.5). Although this provides a useful indication of the respondent's perceived abilities, it is important to note that this is highly subjective. Furthermore, some respondents may be unaware of their own shortcomings or mistakes. This is indicated where, despite only 20.3% of respondents stating that they were not entirely confident of their abilities, over 60% of blogs analysed in research phase one had basic spelling and grammatical errors, many of which are evident in the quotes presented in this thesis (all quotes have been transcribed without amendment. Errors denoted through the use of [sic]). Blogs were specifically analysed in this regard and coded accordingly. This indicates that the skills of respondents, demonstrated through findings of research phase two, may in reality be lower than the data suggests.

Table 6.5: Level of English Self-Assessment

Self-Assessment	Number	Percent
I am confident that I can write well	452	79.7
I make the occasional spelling/grammatical error	101	17.8
I often make mistakes in my written work	10	1.8
My spelling and grammar is awful	4	0.7

(Valid responses=567)

The lack of skills possessed by their TEFL colleagues was a source of frustration for many respondents. In an open ended question one respondent stated that:

'You've got undereducated, inarticulate teachers passing these skills on to the students.'

Another respondent attempted to explain the reason for their recruitment;

'Teachers who did not hold proper teaching qualifications were employed due to their native speaking ability... than their qualifications and ability to actually teach.'

It can be suggested that these statements support notions of a racial hierarchy in Thailand, where the white-skinned teacher may be viewed as the superior 'other' and is hired on the basis of their skin-colour as opposed to their skills and qualifications. Whilst respondents were not asked specifically about this issue in the research, this supposition is in support of research undertaken by Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo (2016) and Persaud (2014). The concept of othering ignores the complexity and subjectivity of the individual in exchange for objectification (Dervin, 2012). Whilst employing a white-skinned teacher may help enhance the educational institution's reputation (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016) and ego orientation (Komin, 1990), it may not result in recruitment of the most qualified teachers. Scholars who have researched othering in the context of volunteer tourism have found that it reinforced power inequalities between developed and developing countries (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Butcher and Smith, 2010; Palacios, 2010; Raymond and Hall, 2008), representing neo-colonial construction of the Westerner, who in this instance is the TEFL teacher, as racially and culturally superior (Raymond and Hall, 2008). There does not however

appear to be any existing research focusing on the impacts that this may have on student educational attainment and experiences, an aspect beyond the scope of this thesis, but worth noting as a potential negative impact of TEFL teaching in Thailand. It can be suggested that further research in this regard would be beneficial.

There was also acknowledgment of teacher credentials in research phase one. Blogger R reflected on his own skills explaining that;

'I quit [TEFL] teaching full-time a few years back because I felt like a bit of a fraud in front of the students. I didn't have any proper teaching credentials so what right have I to be teaching them anything? In order to rectify this I spent a lot of money and a lot of time studying for a Post Graduate Certificate in Education while teaching voluntarily in a Thai village school. Four years later with my bona fide credentials in pedagogy I returned to full-time teaching.'

TEFL teachers may thus not always possess the required skills and qualifications to undertake their role. This problem has also been identified in the volunteer tourism industry, where it has been found that many organisations require few or no skills from the participants (Brown and Morrison, 2003; Guttentag, 2009), which often leads to poor quality of work undertaken (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Guttentag, 2009). As discussed in the literature, defining effective teaching is highly subjective (Clark, 1993; McKay, 2000), making it difficult to assess to what extent the education provided by the TEFL teacher is successful. In an attempt to provide an overview of the extent to which TEFL teachers in Thailand are qualified to teach, an additional variable was created, using SPSS, enabling respondents to be categorised according to the qualifications they held (table 6.6). For the purposes of this research a teaching qualification represents all available teaching qualifications, including TEFL, although it is important to recognise the associated ambiguities as noted on page 13.

Table 6.6: Qualification Categorisation

Categorisation	Respondent Criteria	Frequency	Percent
Qualified	-Must have a minimum of a Bachelors Degree -Must hold a teaching qualification -Must hold an English qualification	262	46.2
Moderately under-qualified	-Must meet 2 of the criteria for 'qualified'	242	42.7
Significantly under-qualified	-Must meet 1 of the criteria for 'qualified'	60	10.6
Inadequately qualified	-Holds no qualifications specified in 'qualified'	3	0.5

(Valid responses=567)

Based on the importance placed on teachers having a University degree, a teaching qualification and not being 'out of field', table 6.6 indicates that 53.8% of respondents are insufficiently qualified to work as TEFL teachers in Thailand. Table 6.5 shows 20.03% of respondents stated that they were not confident of their English language abilities. Together, this provides strong indication that a number of TEFL teachers in Thailand may not hold the specific skills, knowledge or experience required, thus potentially undermining the positive outcomes intended by the Government drive to improve English speaking abilities in the country (Kirkpatrick, 2012; Punthumasen, 2007).

6.2.6 Work Experience

The limited skillset possessed by TEFL teachers was further emphasised by a lack of previous experience. Research phase one included blogger remarks such as:

'Most of the foreign teachers don't have teaching experience, it's not really good enough'
(Blogger J)

'It doesn't really matter if they are qualified or have experience of if they can teach as long as the school has a mascot!' (Blogger R)

Within research phase one, only 14% of bloggers stated that they had previous teaching experience. This included working in secondary schools, TEFL programmes, private tuition and summer camps. It is however important to note that due to the nature of

blog content, there may be bloggers with unidentified previous experience. This is indicated in research phase two where a significantly higher number of respondents (47.4%) had some form of previous teaching experience (table 6.7).

Table 6.7: Prior Teaching Experience

Prior teaching experience (multiple response)	Number	Percent
No Prior experience	305	52.6
Voluntary/part time experience	162	27.9
Experience working as a TEFL teacher elsewhere	67	11.6
Previously worked as a full time teacher	46	7.9

(Valid responses=580)

The lack of experience identified is similar to that of those undertaking a volunteer tourism placement, where it is suggested that only 50% of participants have previous volunteer experience (Lepp, 2008). Despite this similarity, it can be argued that, in this instance, the two industries are not comparable. Due to the broad nature of the volunteer tourism industry, the type of activities undertaken by volunteer tourists may or may not require the volunteer to possess a specific skillset. This in stark contrast to TEFL teaching, where teaching skills and subject knowledge are integral to the quality of the education provided (Ingvarson and Kleinhenz, 2007).

Despite the lack of respondent experience specific to teaching, the majority (table 6.8) had had previous careers or full-time jobs, ranging across many different industries and sectors. Although such previous experiences may not be directly linked, respondents may have acquired relevant skills that can be transferred to the role of TEFL teacher.

Table 6.8: Previous Career/Full-time Job

Previous Career/Full Time Job	Number	Percent
Yes	347	61.2
No	220	38.8

(Valid responses= 567)

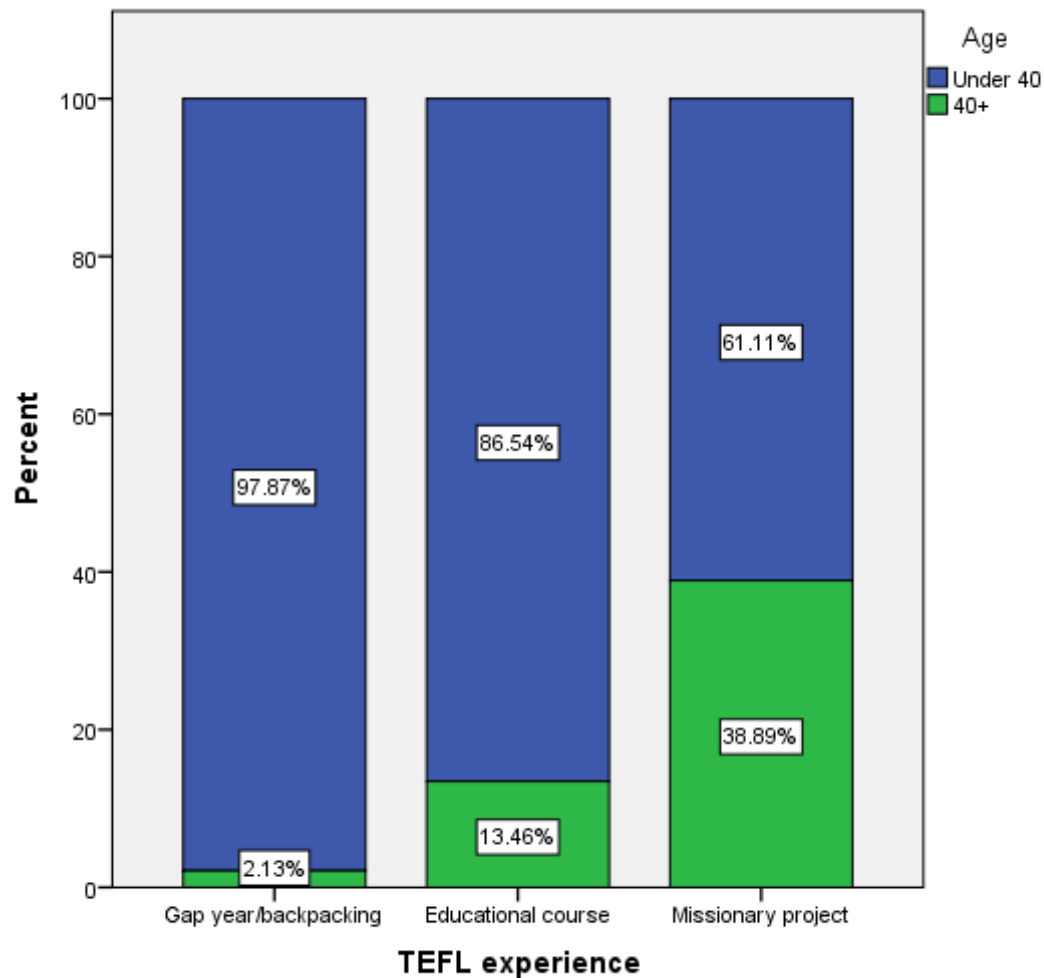
It could be argued that prior travel experience may enhance the abilities of teachers. Abrams (1979) and Pearce and Foster (2007) contend traveling can be viewed as a form of education, through which TEFL teachers may learn from their experiences. In particular, it is the inherent links between tourism and cultural education that is of relevance to this thesis, as it has been suggested that all travel facilitates enhanced cultural understanding (MacIntosh and Goeldner, 1986). It can be argued that experiences encompassing cultural themes such as spiritualism, gastronomy and linguistics, in addition to religious and ethnic tourism, particularly if these experiences are derived from Thailand or neighbouring countries, can enhance the teachers' ability to adapt to teaching in Thailand, where culture is a central tenet in the teaching philosophy (Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015). This is further addressed in section 7.3.

6.3 Trip Characteristics

6.3.1 Experience Type

In contrast to volunteer tourism (Gecko *et al*, 2009), most respondents were not teaching as part of a gap year experience (80.3%), despite Thailand being rated the most popular gap year destination (ABTA, 2013). Those respondents who were on a gap year or backpacking trip accounted for 24.9% of TEFL teachers, whilst 9.2% taught English as part of an educational course and 3.2% were part of a missionary programme. Those who were undertaking a gap year were almost exclusively (97.9%) under the age of 40. This data builds on ABTA's (2013) research, where the concepts of TEFL teaching and gap years is linked; however there is little information provided on who undertakes these gap years.

Figure 6.5: Experiences Incorporating TEFL Teaching Age Correlation



(Valid responses=211)

6.3.2 TEFL Duration

Similar to research focusing on the length of volunteer tourism placements (Callanan and Thomas, 2005; Gecko *et al*, 2009; Keese, 2011), there is a strong variance between the duration of placements when TEFL teaching (SD=1.99). In support of figures presented by the TESOL International Association (2014), who found that 50% of TEFL teachers teach for up to one year, this research found that 45.5% of respondents taught for a duration between one week to one year (table 6.9). There was however a difference between the TESOL International Association's (2014) claims that worldwide 15-20% continue teaching for a second year and this research, which found that 22% of respondents taught for 1-2 years. This indicates that the average duration of TEFL

teaching may be higher in Thailand than it is in other countries although this cannot conclusively be determined based on the size of the sample.

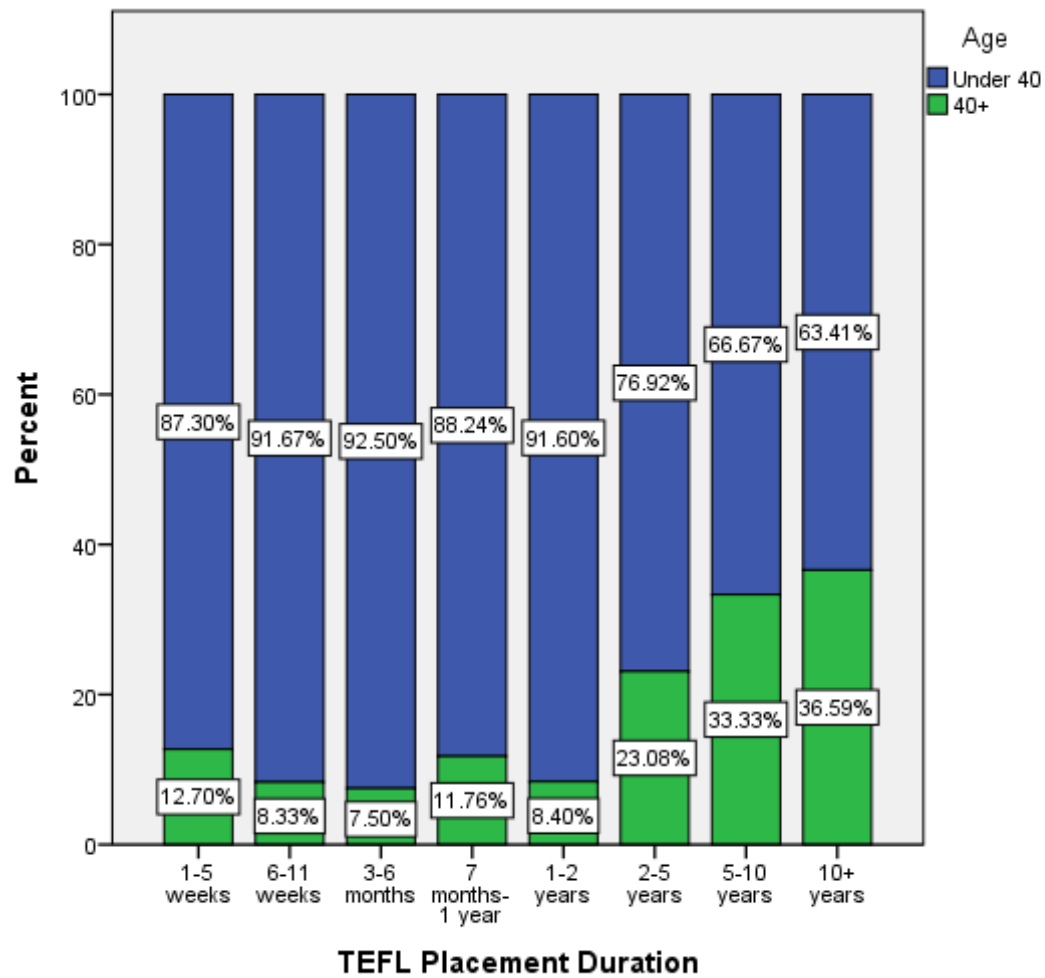
Table 6.9: Duration of TEFL Teaching

Duration	Number	Percent
1-5 weeks	63	11.6
6-11 weeks	24	4.4
3-6 months	80	14.8
7 months- 1 year	85	15.7
1-2 years	119	22.0
3-5 years	78	14.4
6-10 years	51	9.4
10+ years	41	7.6

(Valid responses=541)

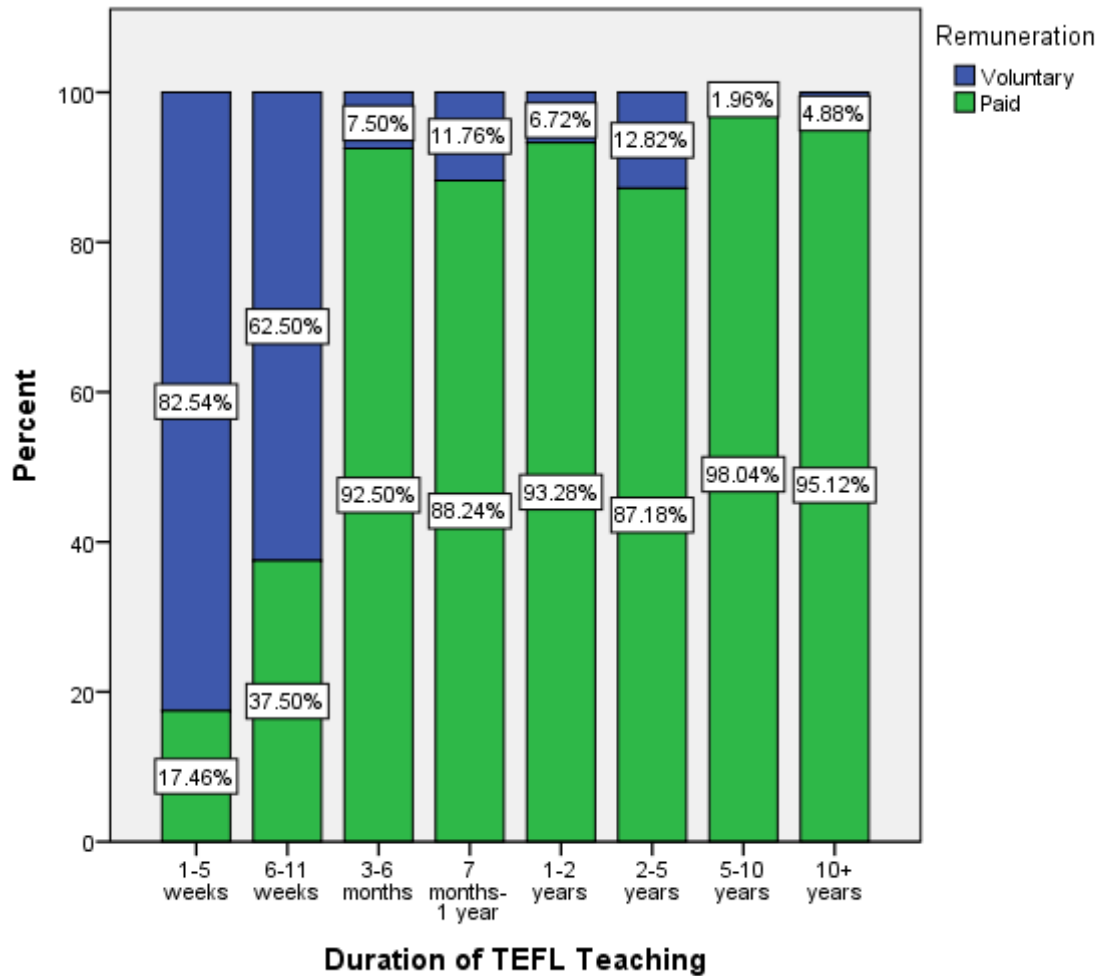
As indicated in table 6.9 the majority of TEFL teachers in Thailand taught for a duration of less than two years (68.6%). There is a significant relationship between age and duration ($\chi^2=69.24$, $df=7$, $p<0.01$), with evidence to suggest that as age increases, the typical placement length increases (see figure 6.6). This could be attributed to the Thai expatriate community where people of an older age choose to move to Thailand to retire or to remain in Thailand indefinitely with their Thai spouse (Howard, 2009). Similarly, there were links between remuneration and the duration of TEFL teaching. Although the assumption of minimum count was violated when undertaking a χ^2 test, there is an evident negative correlation between voluntary positions and TEFL duration as shown in figure 6.7. This demonstrates that those on voluntary placements tend to teach for a shorter period of time than those who are paid a salary.

Figure 6.6: Duration of TEFL Teaching Age Correlation



(Valid responses=541)

Figure 6.7: Duration of TEFL Remuneration Distribution



(Valid responses=541)

6.3.3 Remuneration

As stated in the literature (Griffith, 2014; Ajarn, 2014), the main difference between TEFL and volunteer tourism is that the majority of TEFL teachers in Thailand are paid for their services (80.8%). Salaries ranged from £70-£2775 per month based on March 2016 exchange rates. Despite the range of £2705 between the highest and lowest salaries (n=418), the standard deviation was relatively small at £275.65, meaning that the salary of individual respondents did not differ significantly from the mean salary. The average salary was £681.64, which corresponds to the upper end of the average TEFL salary range of £450-£720 (Ajarn, 2014; Griffith, 2014). Data was re-coded to enable respondents to be grouped into three salary bands; low earners (£0-£499) accounted

for 10% of valid responses, average earners (£500-£999) 81.6% and high earners (£1000+) 8.4%. A number of χ^2 tests demonstrated that there were no significant correlations between salaries across age, duration of placement or gender. It is worth noting that there were more males who were classified as high earners than there were females (10.2% versus 5.8%). The majority of high earners sourced employment themselves (80%).

There is evidence to suggest that remuneration differs based on placement location. As demonstrated in table 6.10, the voluntary TEFL market is largely situated in rural areas (59.4%), whereas the majority of high earners appear to be based in major cities (77.1%). Location of placements is discussed further in section 6.3.4.

Table 6.10: Remuneration Location Cross Tabulation

Location	Voluntary	Low Earner	Average Earner	High Earner	Total
In a major city	13	18	162	27	220
% within earning status	12.9%	42.9%	47.5%	77.1%	
In a rural area	60	21	136	2	219
% within earning status	59.4%	50.0%	39.9%	5.7%	
Near the beach	26	3	25	4	58
% within earning status	25.7%	7.1%	7.3%	11.4%	
Various	2	0	18	2	22
% within earning status	2.0%	0.0%	5.3%	5.7%	
Total	101	42	341	35	519

(Valid responses=519)

For 18.5% of respondents, expenses were provided by the employer. Of this number, 69.5% were paid expenses in addition to their salary and 30.5% were undertaking voluntary placements. As salaries are often supplemented, total salaries may be more than the average salary indicated previously. The majority of respondents entitled to expenses were provided with free accommodation or a housing allowance (64.8%).

Other expenses included food (23.8%), travel reimbursement (30%), visas and work permits (13.3%) and insurance (8.6%).

Although there was no question in the survey regarding this, there was an element of inequality of pay raised by respondents when asked in an open-ended question about their frustrations. Remarks included:

'The Thai teachers were the worst part of teaching. They didn't like the fact I made more money than they did, so they were not always helpful. In some cases, they knew of activities or things I had to do by a specific time and would not tell me or tell me at the last minute.'

'There seemed to be huge inequalities across the school. I felt terrible and very uncomfortable for being paid much more than many of my Thai colleagues - who were just as, if not more, knowledgeable as me.'[sic]

'[I was frustrated by] The sheer hatred from teachers due to the extremely disproportionate rate of pay. New Thai teachers make 7,000. We started out at 5 times that with no clue what we were doing. They didn't think it was fair and some of them were mad at us for it.'

It can be argued that it was an important issue to the respondents as they were not obligated or prompted to discuss this topic. At the same time, it can be suggested that this issue may be a greater problem than respondents in this research were aware of. Komin's (1990) cultural markers of ego orientation, smooth interpersonal relationship orientation and flexibility and adjustment orientation are likely to cause Thai teachers to avoid 'losing face' or causing conflict, instead demonstrating uncritical compliance. Thai teacher frustration with regard to pay inequality may thus largely be concealed.

At the time of research the only source stating differences in salary, such as those indicated above, was Ajarn (2014). This limited literature demonstrates that there is little scope for prospective TEFL teachers to be aware of this issue, potentially subjecting them to unexpected feelings of frustration, guilt and uneasiness as identified by the respondent quotes above. Whilst there are clearly ethical implications at play here, it is

not the purpose of this thesis to address these, but rather to raise awareness so that all stakeholders involved have an accurate overview of the TEFL experience.

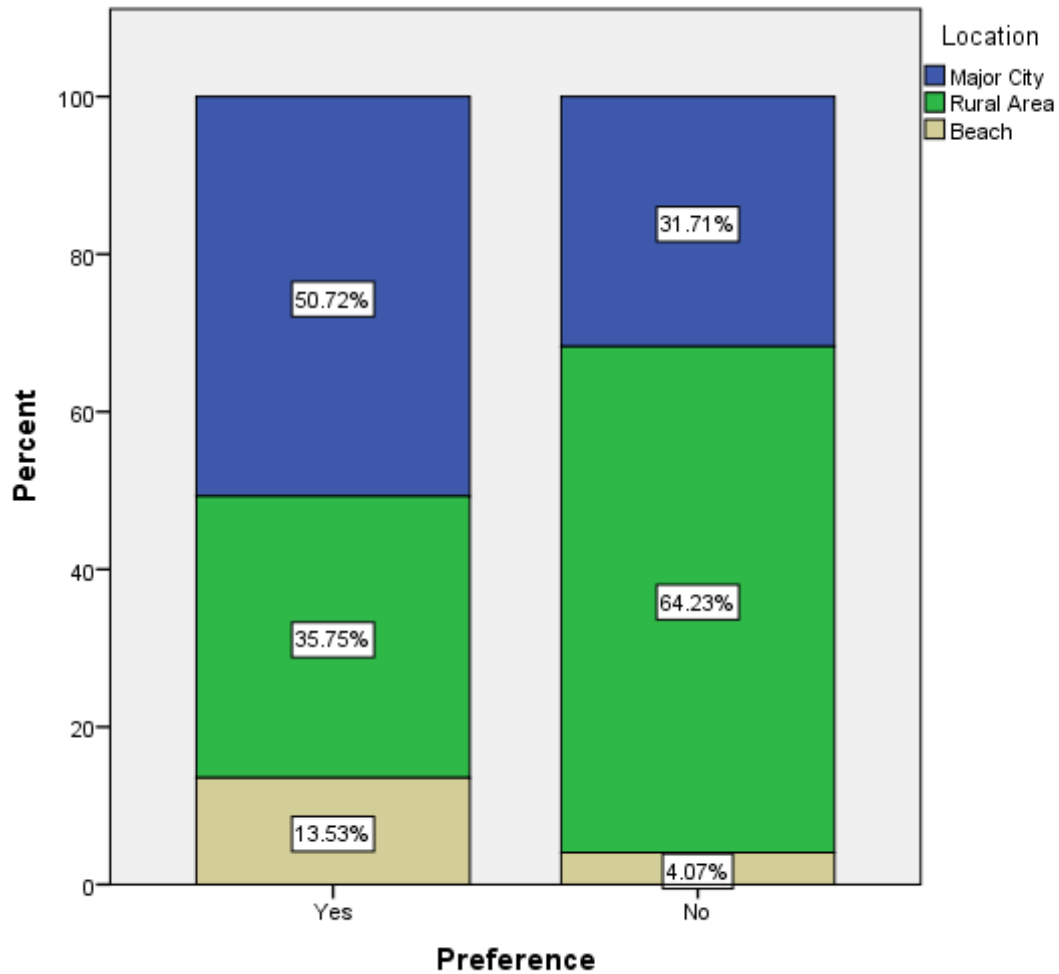
One respondent made a comment regarding corruption in the Thai education system. There was, however, no supporting literature or data to confirm this. This is nevertheless an area warranting further investigation.

'My agency did not appear to be corrupt as far as I knew, but the agency that some of my co-teachers were with was very corrupt. Additionally, the school English program head administrator was corrupt and routinely withheld portions of teachers' paychecks and deposited them into her personal account.'[sic]

6.3.4 Location

As demonstrated in figure 6.8, respondents were asked to identify within which location type they were based: a major city, a rural area or close to the beach. Four point six percent of respondents did not fit into any single category due to undertaking multiple placements in different locations. The remaining respondents were predominantly situated in a major city (44.3%) or a rural area (40.8%), whilst 10.8% were located close to the beach. This does not support previous claims that the bulk of TEFL opportunities are situated in the capital city, Bangkok (Ajarn, 2014), although this is the most populous location amongst respondents. For many TEFL teachers this was not their preferred location. A χ^2 test indicated that there were significant correlations between location and preference (33.06, df=2, $p<0.01$). Figure 6.8 demonstrates that the majority of teachers who were not teaching in their preferred location were based in rural areas. Locational dissatisfaction can also be correlated with the use of an agency (χ^2 14.44, df=1, $p<0.01$, Yates continuity correction 13.69), where the majority of those who are unhappy with their location were assigned to this post via an agency (63.4%).

Figure 6.8: Location Preference Correlation



(Valid responses=537)

One hundred and twenty-five string responses were collated to identify the main reasons that TEFL teachers were unhappy with their placement locations. The most commonly identified themes were: the area being too rural (4.9%), wanting city life (4.8%) and wanting to be close to the beach (4.3%). Respondents indicated that they would rather be situated close to the beach through remarks such as;

'I was in Thailand. I wanted palm trees, magic mushrooms and the ocean.'

Another key theme was the lack of camaraderie and entertainment opportunities in rural areas. Two respondents noted that;

'My first term, I was based with a few other English speaking teachers in a town 10-12 hours from Bangkok away from a lot of the friends I had made on the course. So that was hard.'

*'Up here in the north it's f**king boring, no hot girls and barely any parties. Good job there's lots of grass to smoke to pass the time. I generally just get f**ked in the evenings and on weekends'[sic]*

In further support of the claim that there is a racial hierarchy within the Thai educational system (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016; Persaud, 2014), one respondent stated that:

'I was meant to be placed in the north of Thailand, but I could not get a job where the agency was trying to place me, because I am not white, I'm black. So the agency passed me to another agency and they placed me in the south of Thailand.'

This notion of racism is in contrast to the previous discussion, where the white-skinned teacher is viewed as the superior 'other', recruited accorded to skin colour as opposed to qualifications held. Instead, this supports findings in Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo's (2016) research, demonstrating prejudice against those teachers with dark or black skin. Once again, the way in which these TEFL teachers may be 'othered' ignores the complexity and subjectivity of the individual TEFL teacher, their skills and teaching strengths in exchange for objectification (Dervin, 2012).

6.3.5 School Type

Research phase one indicated that there were three dominant types of educational institutions for TEFL teacher placement encompassing levels ranging from pre-school to adult education. These are public/government funded institutions, private schools and language institutions. This categorisation was incorporated into the survey from which findings indicated that many TEFL teachers had experience teaching in multiple types of establishment. A multiple response frequency examination (table 6.11) showed that 64.2% of respondents had taught in a government school, 45% in a private school and 22.3% in language institutions.

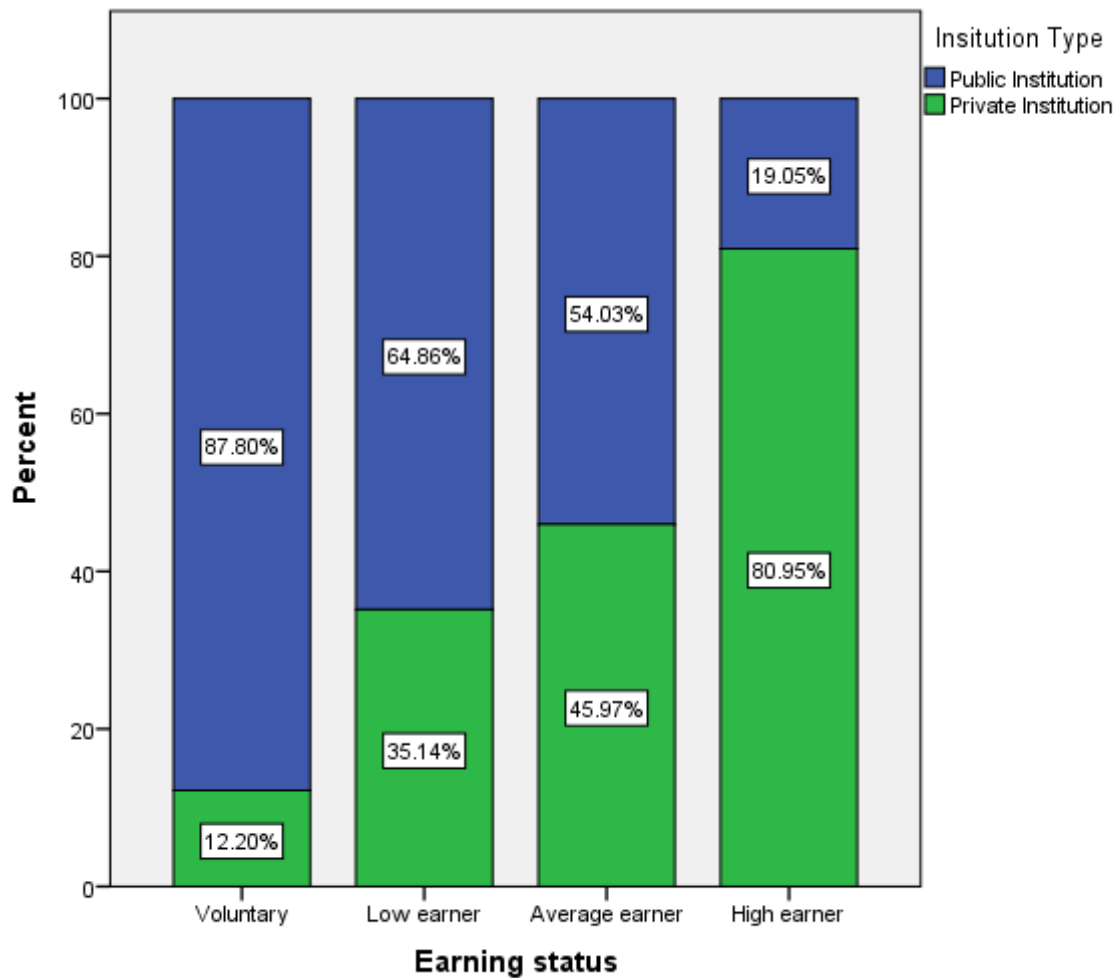
Table 6.11: Institution Type

Educational Institution Type (multiple response)		Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
	Government school	364	64.2
	Private school	255	45
	Language Institution	127	22.3
Total		746	

(Valid responses=746)

For those identifying only one educational institution type (68.4%), a cross tabulation was undertaken between institution type (public/private) and earning status. This demonstrated a strong relationship between school type and salary (χ^2 45.24, df=3, $p<0.01$). Public institutions were most commonly associated with voluntary and low paid positions and private institutions were more commonly associated with high earners. Furthermore, the majority of TEFL teachers based in public institutions were placed there via an agency (62.9%), whilst the majority of those based in private institutions (61.2%) sourced the placement themselves (χ^2 23.27, df=1, $p<0.1$, Yates continuity correction 22.31). There was also a relationship between institution type and location (χ^2 74.38, df=2, $p<0.01$), with the majority of public institutions within which TEFL teachers worked based in rural areas (62.5%) and the majority of private institutions based in major cities (67.3%). This data provides good insight into the public/private educational institutions in the TEFL market, information which does not appear to be currently addressed in the literature available to stakeholders.

Figure 6.9: School Type Earning Status Correlation



(Valid responses=388)

6.3.6 Teaching Levels

Secondary level teaching was the most common amongst TEFL teachers in Thailand, closely followed by junior level (see table 6.12). Over half of the respondents (54.9%) indicated that they taught across more than one student level. Secondary placements were most commonly sourced by agencies (66.4%), whilst pre-school (66.7%), university (77.8%) and adult teaching (75%) were most commonly self-sourced by teachers. Similar to section 6.3.5, this data provides insight into the levels of TEFL teaching in Thailand, which does not appear to be addressed in the existing literature available to stakeholders.

Table 6.12: Teaching Levels

Levels Taught (multiple response)		Number	Percent
UK Equivalent	Thai Equivalent		
Pre-school	Stage 1- Anuban	142	11.8
Infants	Stage 1- Anuban	170	14.1
Juniors	Stage 2- Prathom 1-6	330	27.4
Secondary	Stage 3- Mattayom 1-6	367	30.5
University	University	119	9.9
Adults other	Language Schools/private tuition	76	6.3
Total		1204	100

(Valid responses=1204)

6.3.7 Class Size

In contrast to many developed countries, there is little published information on class sizes in Thailand, thus contributing to the lack of comprehension of the industry and the role of the TEFL teacher. It can be argued that knowing the class size can provide an indication of the challenges faced by the TEFL teacher and the types of lessons they might be able to deliver. This is due to the importance placed on class size, with claims that smaller class sizes facilitate better teaching (Mishel *et al*, 2002), providing greater scope for individualised learning, critical thinking, internal motivation and active involvement (Valiente, 2008). As such, if classes are large, as Ajarn (2014) claims they often are, with 55 students being common in government-run institutions, TEFL teachers may experience difficulties and develop skills and practices that are not necessarily representative of teaching in their home country.

Table 6.13, in contradiction to Ajarn's (2014) claims, does not indicate that large classes are the norm, with only 7.7% of respondents teaching classes with over 51 students. The data demonstrated a positive correlation (see figure 6.10), between public institutions and class size and a negative correlation between private institutions and class size (χ^2

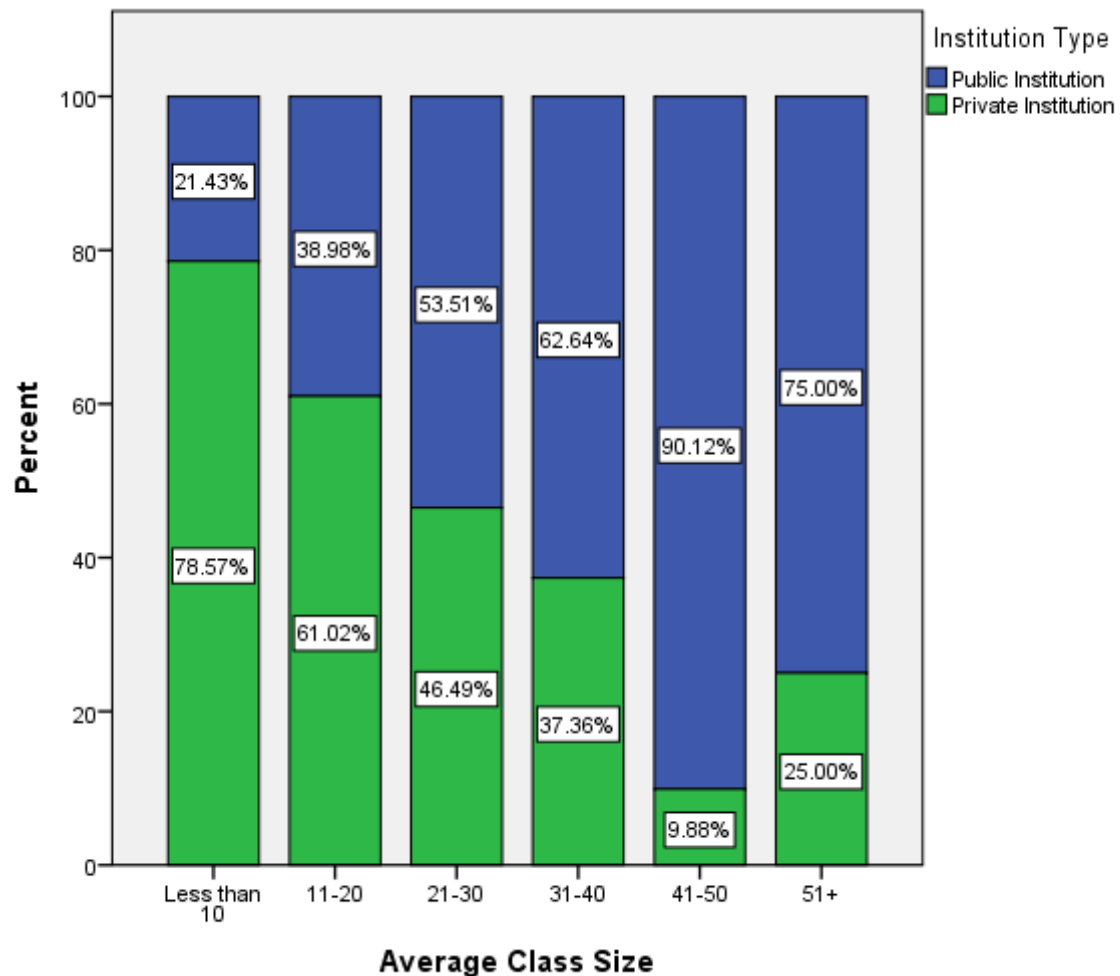
62.4, $df=5$, $p<0.1$). It should be noted that the low number of valid responses (389) is due to the omission of data where the respondent did not teach solely at either a public or private institution.

Table 6.13: Class Size

Class Size		Institution Type		Total
		Public Institution	Private Institution	
<11	Number	6	22	28
	% within School Type	2.6%	14.0%	
11-20	Number	23	36	59
	% within School Type	9.9%	22.9%	
21-30	Number	61	53	114
	% within School Type	26.3%	33.8%	
31-40	Number	57	34	91
	% within School Type	24.6%	21.7%	
41-50	Number	73	8	81
	% within School Type	31.5%	5.1%	
>50	Number	12	4	16
	% within School Type	5.2%	2.5%	
Total		232	157	389

(Valid responses=389)

Figure 6.10: Class Size Institution Type Correlation



(Valid responses=389)

Data was re-coded into two categories to facilitate the identification of correlations with variables; class sizes of 30 and below and classes with more than 30 students. This re-coded data demonstrated a significant relationship with institution type in support of figure 6.10 above (χ^2 38.17, df=1, $p < 0.1$, Yates continuity correction 36.91). χ^2 tests demonstrated that class sizes over 30 tended to be associated most commonly with rural locations (55.2%) (χ^2 18.71, df=2, $p < 0.1$) and agency placements (59.2%) (χ^2 12.64, df=1, $p < 0.1$, Yates continuity correction 12.01). It was also identified that the largest proportion of classes over the size of 30 were at secondary level (70.6%). Finally, 96.9% of respondents teaching classes with 30 students or above were paid average or below average salaries. On the basis of the findings it can be argued that students in classes sized over 30 may not have the best teachers as a result of their rural location and low

salaries. This is exacerbated by issues raised in academic arguments in relation to the class size debate (Mishel *et al*, 2002).

6.3.8 Teaching Hours

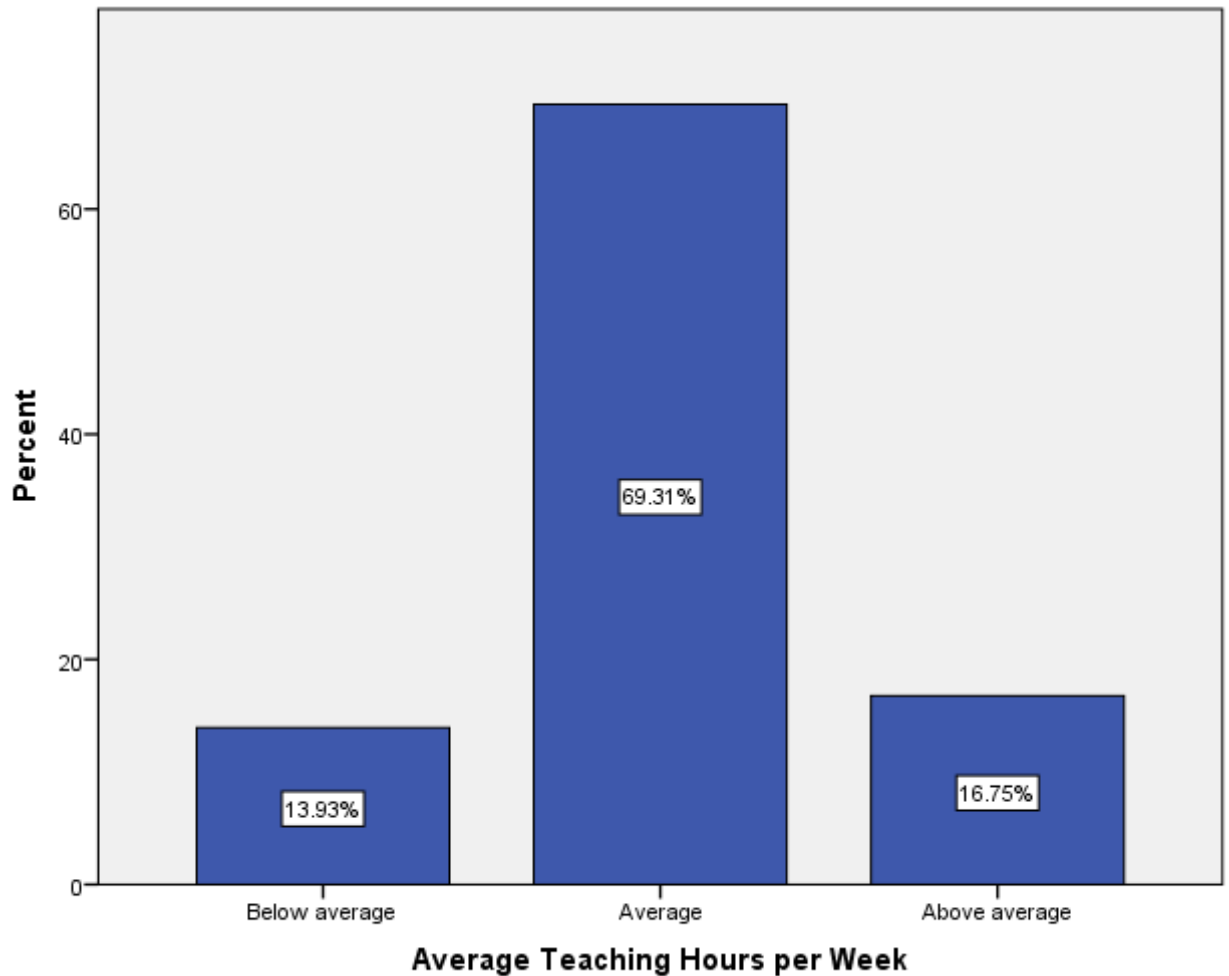
Table 6.14 presents survey responses in relation to how many hours respondents taught on average each week. A test for the standard deviation (SD=1.12) demonstrated that most responses were clustered around the mean with 69.3% accounted for within the 16-20 and 21-25 hours per week categories. Based on this, data were re-coded into the following groupings: below average (0-15), average (16-25) and above average (>25), these categories rendered figures of 13.9%, 69.3% and 16.8% (figure 6.11).

Table 6.14: Average Teaching Hours per Week

Number of Hours	Number	Percent
<11	21	3.7
11-15	58	10.2
16-20	179	31.6
21-25	214	37.7
26-30	59	10.4
>30	36	6.3
Total	567	100.0

(Valid responses=567)

Figure 6.11: Average Teaching Hours per Week



(Valid responses=567)

Contact hours were relatively consistent between locations, levels taught and self-sourced versus agency placements. There were no significant differences between the contact hours of staff working in private compared with public institutions (χ^2 0.481, df=2, $p>0.5$). Findings of the research did not provide any evidence of dissatisfaction as a result of teaching hours; the reason for which may be due to substantial differences in other duties required of TEFL teachers in comparison with teachers in the UK (further discussed in chapter eight).

6.3.9 The TEFL Package

In support of claims that the nature of package tourism has evolved in situ with the dynamicity of the tourism industry (Vainikka, 2014) and that alternative forms of tourism have begun to converge with the mass market (Weaver, 2007), there was a strong theme of commodification demonstrated throughout this research. The concept of a TEFL package is one that was suggested in the literature review (table 3.1), but to date there has been no academic association of TEFL teaching and commodified, pre-organised packages. This research found that 49% (n=278) of respondents utilised an agency to organise their TEFL placement. These packages were, however, not necessarily reflective of the traditional package holiday incorporating transportation and accommodation, but instead included a number of different elements dependent upon the agency (see table 6.15).

Table 6.15: Elements Organised by an Agency

Element Organised (multiple response)	Number	Percent of Respondents who used an Agency (n=278)
Accommodation	202	73.5
TEFL qualification	191	69.5
Collection from the airport	181	65.8
Pre-departure information	178	64.7
A guaranteed job	242	88.0
Flights	40	14.5

(Valid responses=1034)

There were a high number of missing values (61.5%) in response to a question relating to how much was paid to an agency. Twenty-four point seven percent of respondents who booked through an agency stated that they did not pay an initial fee but that the agency took a percentage of their salary each month. This actual amount was largely unknown. A further 11.1% could not remember the amount paid. Derived from the remaining 38.5% of responses, the mean value was £556.88, therefore approximating the average cost of undertaking a TEFL placement through an agency at £550. This is

significantly lower than the average cost of £2000 to undertake a volunteer tourism placement (TRAM, 2008). Upfront costs paid to TEFL agencies ranged from £60 to £995 with a standard deviation of £280.30. Whilst this data is useful in the initial exploration of TEFL experiences in Thailand, it is important to note that due to the low number of responses outlined above, the results may lack accuracy.

The monthly deduction by the agency, noted above, highlights a significant difference between the payment methods adopted in the volunteer tourism and the TEFL sectors. This practice was not indicated in the information provided by TEFL agencies (table 3.1). Prospective TEFL teachers may thus not be aware that they may be required to make regular payments to the agency. In fact, it can be argued that some TEFL teachers may be unaware that they have made such payments. Blogger R noted that:

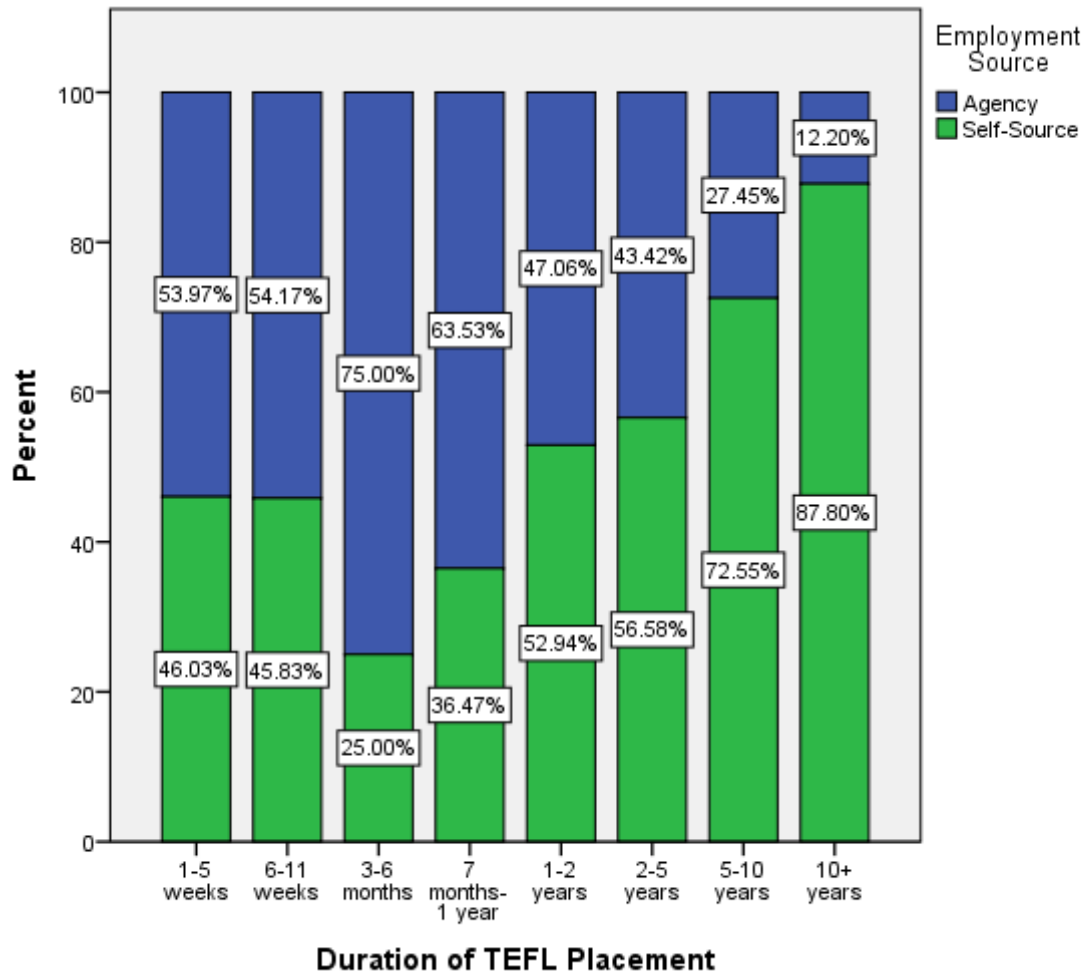
'A friend of mine came to Thailand through this company that did everything for her. I wondered why her salary was so much lower than mine so she investigated only to find out that she was paying a percentage of her salary to the organisation each month. What an absolute RIP off! If it went to the school or to someone in Thailand I could maybe have some empathy, but it didn't- it went straight back to the US based organisation that placed her there!' [sic]

Whilst it can be argued that it is unethical that TEFL teachers may be paying money to an agency without their knowledge, blogger R's comment further highlights ambiguities with regards to who ultimately receives this money. This is a concern that has been highlighted in the literature addressing volunteer tourism (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Coren and Gray, 2012; Tomazos and Butler, 2009), although to date there is no proposed solution to the problem. Like volunteer tourism (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Brown, 2005; Tomazos and Butler, 2009; Wearing and McGehee, 2013), TEFL organisations are diverse, wide ranging and often ambiguous, making it difficult to understand the motives and intentions of each individual agency. Traditional associations with the mass, commodified market tend to lean towards negative connotations, with ideological foundations threatened in exchange for a profit-driven industry (Mostafanezhad, 2013). Whilst it is not the intention of this thesis to examine the negative impacts of TEFL

tourism, the clear association with commercialisation demonstrate a need for the impacts of this on the TEFL industry to be further explored.

There are some typical characteristics of TEFL teachers that appear to be correlated with the use of an agency when planning a TEFL experience. As previously noted, there are a range of negative connotations associated with the use of an agency including large class sizes, less high earners and dissatisfaction with the placement location. It has also been previously noted that most agency placements are at secondary level and are in public schools (page 129). There is a strong association (χ^2 14.19, df=1, $p<0.1$, Yates continuity correction 13.36) between age and the use of an agency, with 89.2% of respondents using an agency being aged below 40. There were also correlations between agency and duration of placement (χ^2 62.33, df=7, $p<0.1$), where those offered employment via an agency were more likely to have a placement that was shorter in duration than those who self-sourced their employment (see figure 6.12).

Figure 6.12: Agency Use Duration Correlation



(Valid responses=539)

6.3.10 Visas and Work Permits

There was evidence to suggest that the legal documentation required in order to be a TEFL teacher in Thailand was not clearly understood by all respondents. As discussed in chapter two, it is a legal requirement for all TEFL teachers to obtain the correct visa; a non-immigrant B visa for paid employment and a non-immigrant O visa for voluntary work (Royal Thai Embassy, 2016). Fifteen respondents claimed, through the use of the 'other' string option on the survey, that they did not require any documentation:

'I was in Thailand as a volunteer teaching tsunami survivors English. Because I was a volunteer I didn't need any paperwork.'

With little information on visa requirements noted on the websites of the TEFL agencies examined in figure 3.1 and confusing rules (Methanonpphakhun and Deocampo, 2016), it is no surprise that some TEFL teachers may be unaware of their legal obligations. Although it was identified through the data familiarisation and cleaning process that only 2.6% of respondents had incorrectly stated that they did not require a visa, it can be argued that this figure may actually be higher since respondents may, based on incorrect knowledge, not have accurately answered the question.

There were, however, numerous respondents that were aware that they did not meet the legal requirements, with 45.1% stating that at some point they did not hold the correct legal documents. In support of Methanonpphakhun and Deocampo's (2016) research, several respondents (15%) indicated that the process was complicated. The most common reasons for illegal employment were paperwork delays (32.8%) and lack of organisation by the school or the agency responsible (32.4%).

Table 6.16: Reasons for Working Illegally

Reason	Number	Percent of Respondents Working Illegally (n=256)
Paperwork delay	81	31.6
Probation period	8	3.1
Process too complicated	37	14.5
To have more flexibility	1	0.4
Agency or school never did it	80	31.3
Forgot to renew	2	0.8
Changed jobs	8	3.1
Too expensive	11	4.3
Didn't meet the requirements	19	7.4
Missing	9	3.6
Total	247	100.0

(Valid responses=256)

Teachers without the legal paperwork were commonly on a gap year or backpacking trip (62.5%), were teaching in rural areas (48.8%), were unqualified (based on the qualification matrix previously discussed on page 118) (63.2%) and were under the age of 40 (78.2%). For those that did have the correct documentation, this was generally organised by either the agency (30.7%) or the school (34.7%).

The fact that many TEFL teachers were working, either temporarily or permanently, without the correct documentation is a cause for concern. It can be suggested that one reason for this is the lack of regulation of the TEFL industry (Scriberras, 2012). Whilst there appears to be no research addressing this with specific regard to TEFL in Thailand, in the volunteer tourism context, lack of regulation and control has raised concerns suggesting that it opens the door for opportunists (Tomazos and Butler, 2009). This has the potential for a number of negative consequences including inconsistent teaching standards, failure to collect employment taxes and the TEFL teacher's employment rights. Overall, it is very difficult to holistically examine the TEFL industry and those working within it accurately if there is a proportion of the teaching community that is hidden through illegal employment, thus potentially undermining the positive impacts of TEFL (Kirkpatrick, 2012; Punthumasen, 2007) desired from the current drive to recruit foreign teachers.

6.4 TEFL Motivations

Research phase one provided insight into a number of key motivational themes which drove bloggers to become TEFL teachers in Thailand. These can be broadly organised into aspects relating to travel and tourism, life experiences such as skills development or new experiences, and Thailand-specific motivations such as the food or culture. Induced from these emergent themes, Likert scale-style questions were incorporated in the survey in research phase two. Data were re-coded to facilitate an overview of all motivating factors as presented in table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Motivations to Become a TEFL Teacher in Thailand

Motivation (multiple response)	Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
Wanted to live/work abroad	498	87.8
Wanted to experience the Thai culture	484	85.4
Wanted to do something different	460	81.1
Craved adventure	459	81.0
Wanted to travel	420	74.1
Develop teaching skills	368	64.9
Learn more about themselves	395	69.7
To do something good	367	64.7
See if teaching is right for them	359	63.3
The weather was appealing	351	61.9
The cost of living was cheaper	350	61.7
Enhance CV	327	57.7
For a slower pace of life	257	45.3
Didn't know what else to do with life	251	44.3
The food was appealing	241	42.5
It was recommended	208	36.7
Was easier to find a job in Thailand than at home	197	34.7
Access to beaches	128	22.6
The nightlife	114	20.1
Was in a romantic relationship with a native	90	15.9
It was the path God intended	76	13.4
Part of an educational course	55	9.7
Sex tourism-nightlife	32	5.6

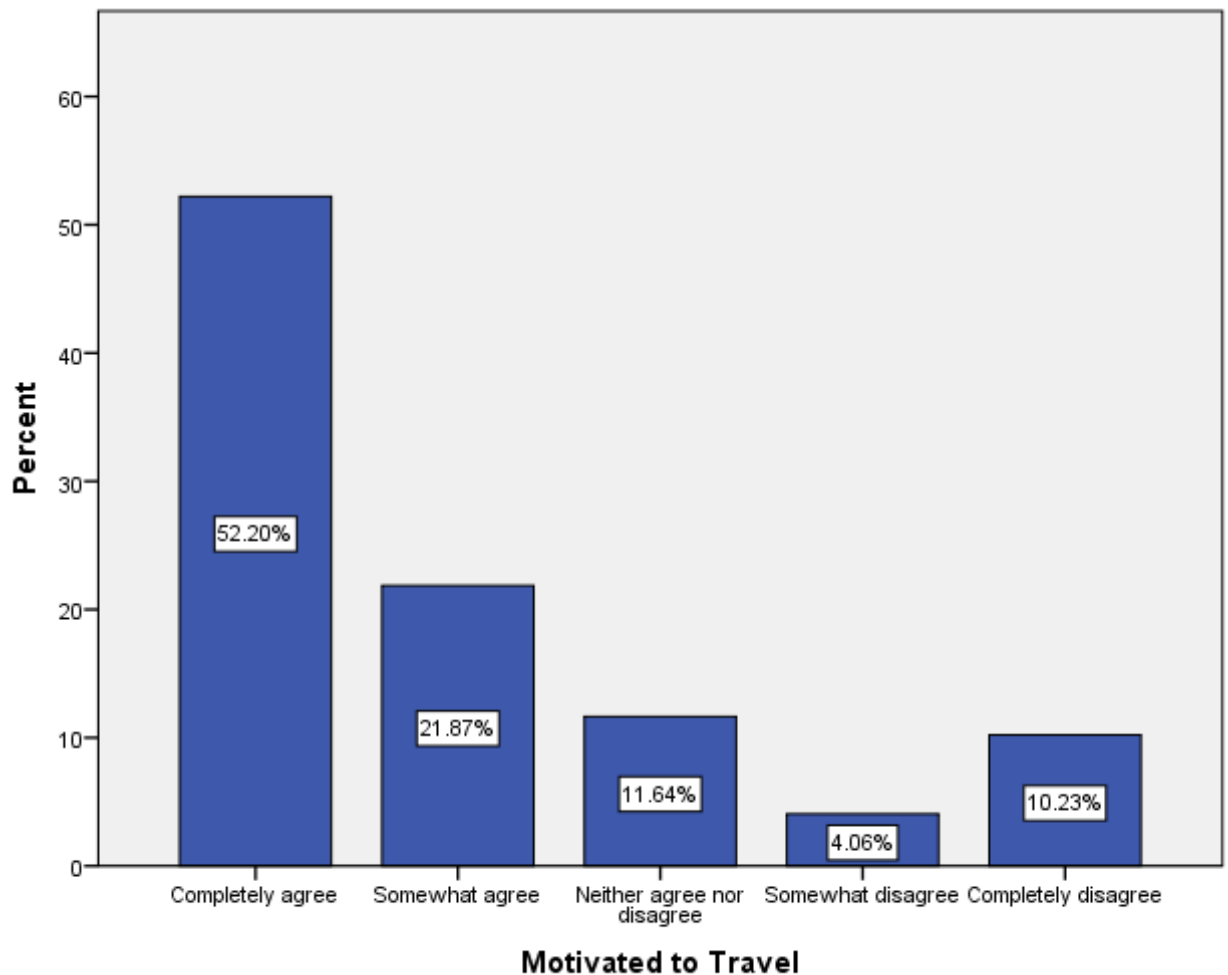
(Responses=6487)

6.4.1 Travel and Tourism

Travel was an important element of leisure time for many of the bloggers and respondents throughout both research phases. Research phase one demonstrated that 42% of bloggers referred to travel as a motivating factor in becoming a TEFL teacher in Thailand. This theme was further supported in research phase two where it was the

fifth most frequently stated motivation (table 6.17), accounting for 74.1% of all respondents (figure 6.13).

Figure 6.13: Motivation to Travel Scale



(Valid responses=567)

As indicated above, 52.2% of the respondents completely agreed that travel was a motivating factor. Research phase one allowed for deeper insight indicating that for some bloggers TEFL teaching was secondary to the travel experience and was undertaken only as a consequence of or a means to travel. Bloggers B1 and O explain respectively:

‘Teaching was always part of my life plan, maybe not as a career, but at least as an excuse to travel’

'There was no way I could just 'travel' indefinitely. So I headed to the USA to work on a summer camp, then to Chiang Mai, Thailand to teach English'

The suggestion of TEFL teaching being secondary to other motivations supports Methanonpphakhun and Deocampo (2016), who found in their research that most foreign teachers were not motivated as a result of their love of teaching, but rather the desire to travel, for education or to start a new life. Punthumasen (2007) described foreign TEFL teachers in Thailand as tourists, who bring with them the negative connotations associated with lack of relevant experience, skills and qualifications as discussed in section 6.2.6-6.2.7.

*'Kids in Asia get enough scummy backpackers coming over here teaching them English. These scum don't care about the kids, only the wages and when they can piss off to the beach and screw the local tarts. They also know f**k-all about teaching English. Basically, it's not fair on the kids. If you care about other people than yourself, then don't teach unless you're qualified' [sic] (Blogger T)*

Blogger T writes passionately here about the ethical implications of those whose dominant motive is travel, working as TEFL teachers in Thailand. This issue was raised in 14% of blogs examined indicating that views such as this may also be held by other TEFL teachers. Blogger T's claims further justify the need for the development of a typology of TEFL teachers; enabling differentiation between the type of TEFL teacher described above and a those with more philanthropic or professional attributes and attitudes.

Blogger R, however, questions why being primarily motivated to be a TEFL teacher as a result of the travel prospects is a problem. He states that;

'The most frequent criticism that I hear about the western teacher is that they are only doing it to stay in Thailand. Opportunists. This is probably true for most, but so what? I think the criticism here is that our motivations for doing a job should be somehow more noble. We should have a calling to do it. Maybe we should have dreamed about it as a child and devoted our youth to obtaining the proper qualifications. To me, if you teach a child as you should I honestly don't see what difference it makes.'

Blogger R's reference to TEFL teacher motivations as being 'noble' or otherwise demonstrates similarities to academic debates addressing the motives of volunteer tourists. Some have suggested that volunteer tourists be categorised according to whether they are predominantly altruistically or hedonistically motivated, typologising the volunteer tourist for example as vacation or volunteer minded (Brown and Morrison, 2003) and a VOLUNtourist or volunTOURIST (Daldeniz and Hampton (2011). Whilst a similar approach, where TEFL teachers are categorised as teacher-orientated or tourism orientated, may provide an indication of the TEFL teacher's motives, it would fail to take into account the complexities and range of motivations identified (see table 6.17). Furthermore, as noted by blogger R, it can be questioned whether such a categorisation is necessary, as selfish motives may not necessarily result in the positive outcomes of TEFL teaching being undermined.

It is also important to note that TEFL teachers can possess any number of motivations, some of which may be more prominent than others. Blogger Z emphasises this point;

'Many people choose this [TEFL] as an option to help fund travels, have a taste of teaching before making it a career choice or to try a fresh, new experience in a different culture. Some people do it for all three reasons (as I did), or perhaps you have a completely different reason for wanting to do it.'

There are numerous motivations that can be situated beneath the travel and tourism umbrella. Motivations identified by respondents such as having the opportunity to visit the beach (22.6%) or becoming involved with the nightlife activities available (20.1%) demonstrate clear links with the common sun, sea and sand motivations frequently associated with package holidays (Fletcher *et al*, 2013; Poon, 1993) and the late night economy, otherwise known as nightlife tourism (Calafat *et al*, 2010; Tutenges, 2013). The connections between tourism and alternative motivations are not so clear-cut. Respondents with motivations to live and work abroad (87.8%), may envisage an experience encompassing substantial tourism-based elements, whereas others may anticipate a career move with little involvement with the tourism industry. This also holds good for those motivated to become a TEFL teacher in Thailand because they want

to experience the Thai culture (85.4%). Those who hope to do so through the consumption of cultural products, such as sites or monuments (Bonink, 1992; Munsters, 1994), may demonstrate stronger associations with the tourism industry than those who experience cultural aspects such as religion, ethnic traditions, linguistics and learning about Thai heritage through community engagement (MacIntosh and Goeldner, 1986) facilitated through their TEFL experience. It is also important to note that while respondents may not state travel and tourism-based opportunities as a motivation, they may undertake numerous tourism-based activities as part of their TEFL experience. This is further examined in chapter seven.

6.4.2 Life Experiences

Several of the motivations in table 6.17 can be grouped under the theme of life experiences, although it is important to note that some motivations may be prevalent in multiple themes. For example, the motivation to live abroad may incorporate strong elements of travel and tourism, whilst also contributing to new life experiences. Life experience in terms of this research is defined as any endeavour which facilitates opportunities that the TEFL teacher would not otherwise have experienced. Many of these experiences are akin to the concept of lifelong learning, fostering the continuous development and improvement of knowledge and skills needed for employment and personal fulfilment throughout life (Broomhall *et al*, 2010; Falk *et al*, 2012).

The notion of lifelong learning was particularly prevalent in respondent motivations of enhancing their CV (57.7%), developing teaching skills (64.9%) and trialling teaching as a career (63.3%). These motives were also reflected in the blog analysis (CV enhancement=6%; career trial=11%). Prominent motivations to aid skills development have also been demonstrated in a number of studies addressing the volunteer tourism industry (for example Coghlan, 2006; Coghlan and Fennel, 2009; Daldeniz and Hampton, 2011; Soderman and Stead, 2008), although these tend to be generic as opposed to the specific teaching skills acquired through the practice of TEFL. As a result of the specific skill set required for TEFL, the ethnocentric assumptions (Omohundro, 2007) about teaching held by the teachers both before and after undertaking their TEFL experience

and the differences between educational systems in various geographic locations (Ho, 2003; Hu, 2002; Kapur, 2009), it can be argued that TEFL teachers may not be provided with the opportunities to develop their teaching skills in the way they intended. Furthermore, the teaching 'trial' and experience stated on their CV may not be representative of the teaching career that they are considering embarking upon in their home or another country. The differences between educational systems and the potential impacts of this is further addressed in chapter eight.

With the majority of respondents claiming motivation to develop or trial their teaching skills a connection with educational tourism can be identified (Ritchie *et al*, 2003). Educational tourism is, however, not limited to formal attainment, with some describing the travel experience itself as its own kind of educational institution (Pearce and Foster, 2007). Research examining the motives of volunteer tourists has provided evidence of strong links with education. It is commonly found that volunteer tourists develop a greater awareness of 'self' (Lepp, 2008; Guttentag, 2009), develop increased philanthropic behaviour (Coren and Gray, 2012; Lo and Lee, 2011) and experience developments in personality traits (Alexander, 2012; Benson and Wearing, 2012; Broad and Jenkins, 2008; Sin, 2009; Wickens, 2011). In line with aforementioned studies, this research found that the majority (69.7%) of respondents were motivated to learn more about themselves.

Life experience also encompasses the opportunity to have experiences that may otherwise be unavailable to the TEFL teacher. There are a number of motivations listed in table 6.17 that can be described in this way. The most representative of these is the motivation to do something different, which was identified by 81.1% of respondents. The importance of this was emphasised in research phase one, where bloggers summarised their reasons for becoming TEFL teachers in Thailand.

'What possessed me to quit my steady teaching job in the UK, wave goodbye to familiarity... and travel all the way to Thailand? Having pondered over this question for quite some time I'd say one main emotion motivated this change – fear. Fear of regretting my life decisions. Fear that if I'm lucky enough to live into old age I'll look back

at my life with a tinge of disappointment for not taking enough chances or never daring to step outside of my comfort zone. Fear that I'd become institutionalised and trapped within a particular mind-set. Fear that I'd grow too old to be allowed to make mistakes, to live a little recklessly, to be a little silly or crazy. In short (and I say this without irony, although I am cringing) – YOLO [you only live once]. YOLO made me move to Thailand.' (Blogger E)

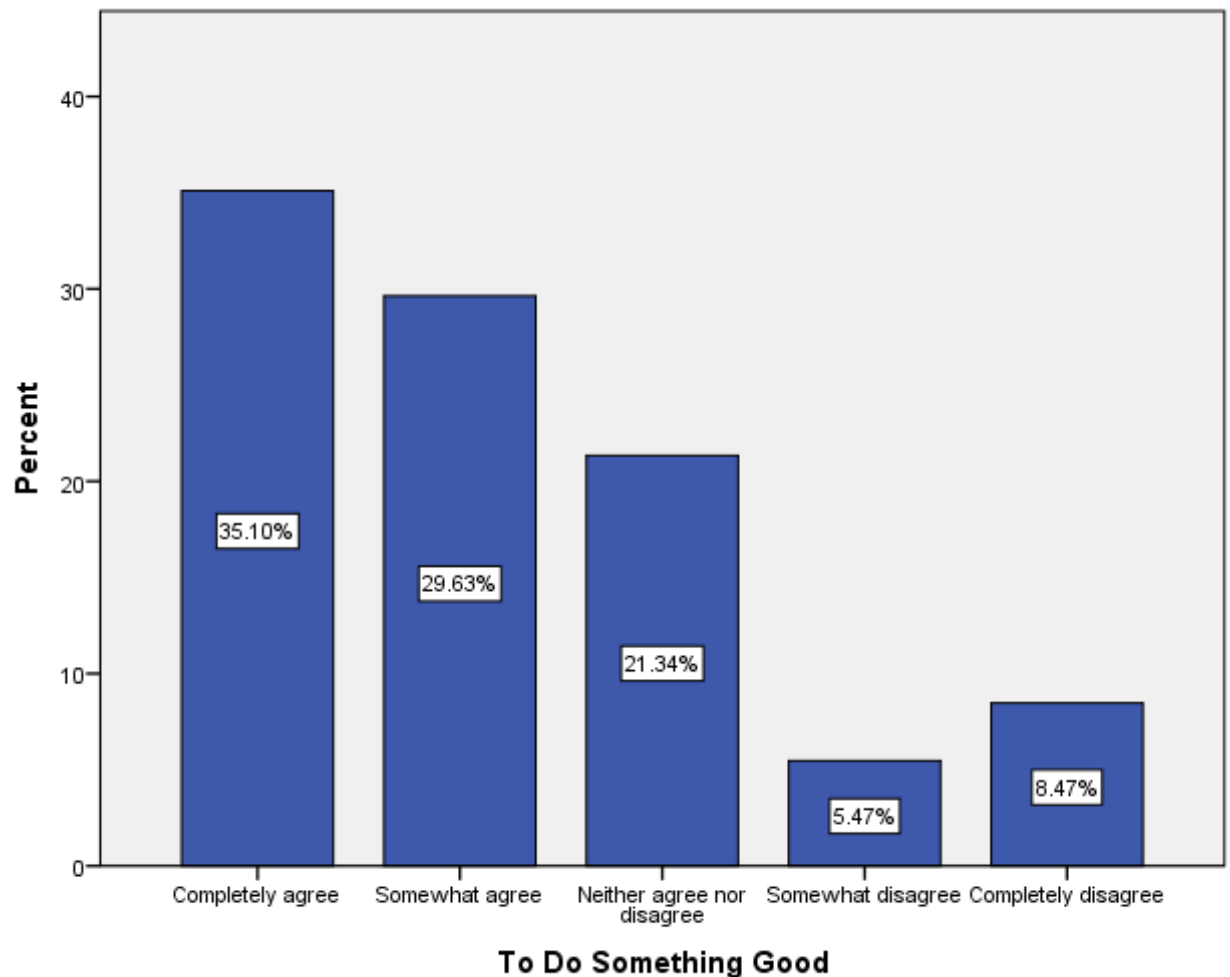
'The lesson is, don't question things too much, get out and see the world even if it is something that may make you feel uncomfortable at first. Don't get trapped in that vicious cycle of education, work, family. Meet incredible people, make new experiences, make new stories. Get out and do it, you won't regret a moment of it!' (Blogger D1)

'If you're not happy, a good salary isn't progress, it's financial prison. Life is meant to be lived, not sold to the highest bidder. Social conformity, the media, our education systems dictate that we should go to school, go to uni, go to a city, work in an office, save for a retirement that we'll be too old to enjoy. Personally, I don't want to do that. Not one bit. I wanna live now, today and you should want that too.' (Blogger O) [sic]

All the motivations previously discussed are largely hedonistic in essence, where the pursuit of pleasure and self-indulgence, whether through travel satisfaction, educational benefits or otherwise, permeate through the stated motivations. Whilst ethnocentric assumptions may lead to the belief that TEFL teachers are prominently driven by philanthropic motivations, there is no evidence of this within the findings of this research. Although the majority of respondents (64.7%) identified that doing something good was a motive, as suggested by Lyons and Wearing (2012), this may not necessarily be indicative of their primary motivations. Furthermore, the use of surveys to collect data incorporates the risk of respondents being 'led', in the sense that data is not naturally occurring, but instead respondents are probed on particular topics (Bryman, 2012). It can thus be argued that respondents may not have identified the motivation 'to do something good' were it not for the fact that this was amongst the options listed in the survey. This suggested lack of philanthropic approach was emphasised in research

phase one, where only 8% of bloggers made remarks about being motivated to do something good.

Figure 6.14: Motivations to do Something Good



(Valid responses=567)

Figure 6.14 further supports this argument, with only 35.1% of respondents completely agreeing that they were motivated to become a TEFL teacher in Thailand because they wanted to do something good. Lyons (2003) argues that it is a fallacy to come to a general conclusion regarding the extent to which altruism plays the role of a key motivator as tourists, like TEFL teachers, are not a homogenous entity. This contention is supported by findings of this research and is incorporated, where relevant, in the development of the TEFL typology (chapter nine). Whilst it is important to remember that TEFL teachers can hold multiple motivations, whether altruistic or selfish,

simultaneously (Hustinx, 2001; Tomazos and Butler, 2010), it has also been suggested that there is no such things as an unselfish tourist. In fact, Wearing and McGehee (2013a) claim that in the context of volunteer tourism it is common for tourists to disguise their selfish motivations behind an altruistic façade.

6.4.3 Destination Thailand

A further example of hedonistic motivation is lifestyle. Motivations, such as the reduced cost of living (61.7%) and the slower pace of life (45.3%) (see table 6.17) can be attributed to the positive life experiences sought by the TEFL teacher. Thai culture ascertains that society is harmonious and peaceful, where the foci of enjoyment, non-confrontation and a 'no worries' approach take prevalence (Komin, 1990), offering TEFL teachers a lifestyle not available in their home countries. Furthermore, the lack of regulation in relation to the recruitment of teachers and the ability to easily secure employment as a TEFL teacher in Thailand (see page 139), potentially contributed to the motives of 34.7% of respondents, who stated that it was easier to find a job in Thailand than it was in their home country.

Thailand is home to a large scale sex tourism industry encompassing both casual encounters, such as prostitution or sex shows (Kusy, 1991), and opportunities for long-term romantic engagements (Ruenkaew, 1998; Sims, 2012). For some, these lifestyle choices were motives for becoming a TEFL teacher in Thailand, with 5.6% of respondents stating that they were motivated by the sex tourism-based nightlife available and a further 15.9% motivated because they were either in or seeking a relationship with a native Thai. In support of claims that many older men are involved in a romantic relationship with a local person a χ^2 test revealed a significant correlation between those aged over 30 and those in a romantic relationship with a native Thai (χ^2 13.8, df=1, Yates Continuity Correction 12.8, $p < 0.01$), further supporting Howard's (2009) research on the expatriate community in Thailand and its popularity amongst older men travelling in search of romantic opportunities. Blogger T explained that:

'There are many reasons why people decide to move to Thailand...but for some, the Thai people themselves are an attraction. There is a group, quite a sizeable group, that want

to be here to have sex with young Thais....and to spend every weekend down at Pattaya... Yes, my friend, these folks will be your peers, your colleagues, your friends and your confidantes.'

Similar remarks were made by 11% of bloggers although, with only one exception, all were secondary observations as opposed to first-hand experience. It is important to note that due to the personal nature of relationships and sex tourism, bloggers and respondents may not have divulged details of their romantic relations. Blogs are publically available and can be read by the bloggers' friends and families so they may choose not to write about sensitive topics. In an attempt to overcome this respondents, during research phase two, were made aware that their responses were confidential, but there remains no guarantee that all sensitive data collected is entirely accurate. In their research on drug tourism, Valdez and Sifaneck (1997) found that tourists do not always pre-plan their involvement with drugs, but instead partake in such pursuits as a consequence of availability in the destination they are visiting. This can equally be applied to sex tourism where, because involvement in the sex industry was not a motivation to become a TEFL teacher, does not necessarily mean that teachers do not become involved in the sex tourism industry during their placement. Sex tourism experiences are further explored in section 7.7.

Finally, there are motivations that are specific to the tourism provision and cultural aspects on offer to tourists in Thailand. Henkel *et al* (2006) emphasise the appeal of Thailand to international visitors as a result of the sightseeing opportunities, friendly people, food, nightlife and entertainment, whilst the UNWTO (2012) state that the majority of tourists visit in pursuit of sun, sea, sand and nature. These claims are in part represented in findings of this research, with 85.4% of respondents motivated by the Thai culture, 61.9% by the weather, 42.5% by the food, 22.6% by the beaches and 20.1% by the nightlife (see table 6.17).

6.5 Conclusion

The findings of this chapter demonstrate that while there are similarities between the TEFL tourist and other tourist types, such as volunteer tourists, there are also a number of characteristics unique to the TEFL teacher in Thailand. On average, respondents were aged 22-30, with older respondents being predominantly male. Most respondents were either British, American, South African, Irish or Australian. The majority of respondents were qualified to degree level, although many appear to be 'out of field' as a result of limited teaching and subject specific qualifications. The racial hierarchy presented in this chapter was particularly interesting, since there appear to be few studies addressing this issue which is further addressed in chapter eight.

In contrast to ABTA's (2013) claims that Thailand is the most popular gap year destination, most respondents were not working as TEFL teachers as part of a gap year. Teaching durations varied widely, the most common placement length was between one-two years. The older the teacher, the longer the duration tended to be. The data demonstrated strong links to commercialism and it was evident that many respondents purchased pre-packaged TEFL experiences as commodities, commonly incorporating accommodation, a TEFL qualification and pre-departure information. It is argued that this is a post-modern form of package tourism. Packages such as this cost, on average, £550. The average salary for respondents was £700 and the highest earners tended to be based in the city. The majority of respondents were placed in the city or a rural area as opposed to the beach, were in public secondary schools and taught most commonly for 16-20 hours per week. Almost half of respondents were working illegally at some point during their placement due to lack of awareness and confusing visa requirements.

This chapter provided insight into the motivations for becoming a TEFL teacher in Thailand, although it is acknowledged that this list is not exhaustive. The key motivational themes identified were those involving travel and tourism, those facilitating life experiences such as lifelong learning or having the opportunity to do something otherwise unavailable to the respondent, and destination specific motivations such as access to beaches or Thai food. The section pertaining to motivation

is further developed in chapter nine, where indices are created based on leisure-minded, philanthropy-minded, career-minded and expatriate-minded motivations in order to facilitate the development of the TEFL typology. Aspects briefly touched upon in this section of the current chapter are also covered in more depth in the following two chapters which analyse TEFL experiences. Chapter seven first addresses experiences outside of the classroom, presenting links with the various tourism forms addressed in chapter three. Chapter eight then analyses the experiences inside the classroom environment and the teaching element of the TEFL teacher's experience.

7.1 Introduction

As identified in chapter six, travel and tourism is an important use of leisure time for many respondents. Whilst numerous TEFL agencies promote a strong theme of tourism, particularly through the use of visual representations (as noted on page 38), to date there has been no published research which identifies the pursuits undertaken by TEFL teachers outside of their classroom experiences. This knowledge will be of most value to agencies packaging the TEFL tourism experience as a commodified product (see page 38), availing them of enhanced understanding of the activities that appeal to TEFL teachers to inform their operational plans.

Prospective TEFL teachers themselves will benefit from knowing what leisure opportunities are available to them. It has previously been argued (see chapter four) that teachers may perceive their prospective TEFL experiences based on their knowledge of teaching in their home countries. TEFL teachers may be surprised that school dates in Thailand dictate that teachers work up to six months without a break of more than a three day weekend (Ajarn, 2014). This is, for example, different from the UK system (Gov.uk, 2016), where teachers tend to have a break roughly every six weeks. Section 6.3.4 demonstrated that many TEFL teachers based in rural areas were unhappy as a result of limited leisure options in the vicinity, thus indicating the importance of leisure activities and the differences between opportunities in Thailand compared with the TEFL teacher's home country.

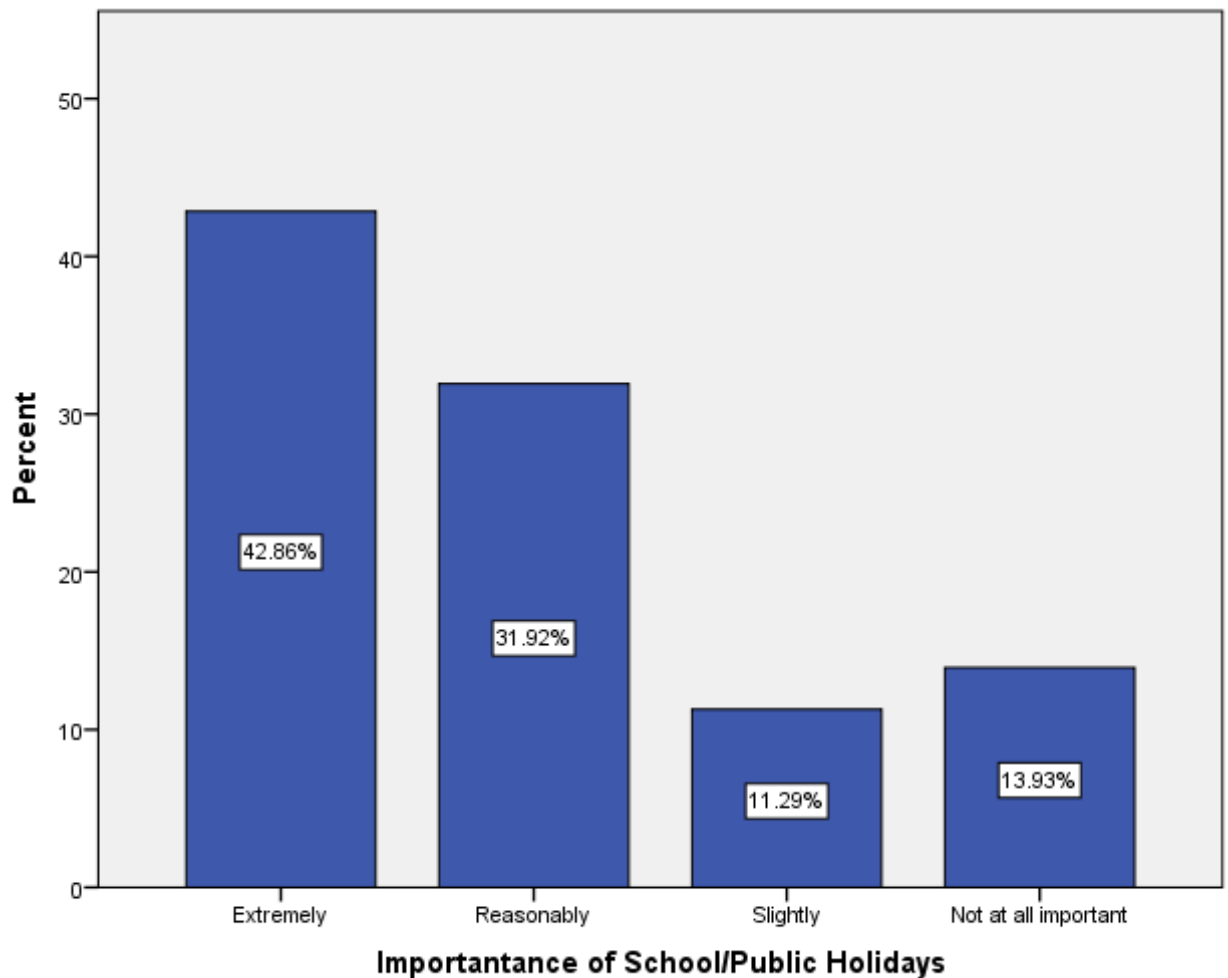
The nature of tourists as consumers has become more sophisticated (Robinson and Novelli, 2007), moving away from the traditional stereotypical package holidays (Vanikka, 2014) towards a post-modern tourism industry. With this comes the complexities associated with the vast range of tourism forms now in existence, the multifaceted motivations of tourists and their subjective interpretations of the anticipated experience. As discussed in chapter three, the boundaries of tourism are blurred, making it difficult to define when tourism occurs and when it does not. It is

important to note that not all experiences outside of the TEFL classroom fall directly under the tourism umbrella, for example food, shopping or camaraderie which were identified as key themes in research phase one. This chapter addresses the first research objective: to undertake an examination of the TEFL teacher's experiences whilst teaching English in Thailand by analysing the tourism elements within this experience. This chapter draws on the links with the various tourism forms discussed in the literature review, determining their relevance to the TEFL industry.

7.2 Importance of Weekends and Holidays

In line with the tourism-based thematic representations of the TEFL experience presented by many TEFL agencies (table 3.1), research phase one identified a strong theme of leisure pursuits during weekends and holidays. For 67% of blogs analysed, there was no more than one post dedicated to the teaching element of the TEFL experience, indicating that the leisure part of their experience was more noteworthy than the teaching element. There were 551 references to tourist-based activities recorded during research phase one, demonstrating that tourist activities were a significant part of the TEFL experience for bloggers. However, as previously discussed, not all bloggers will have addressed all elements of the TEFL experience and some may believe that posting about their leisure is more interesting to their readership than their everyday work endeavours, thus informing their choice of content. Despite this limitation research phase two supported the theme of leisure, with 86.1% of respondents identifying time off from teaching as being important (figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1: Importance Accorded to School/Public Holidays



(Valid Responses=567)

The importance of time spent away from the TEFL classroom is explained by bloggers V and D1 respectively;

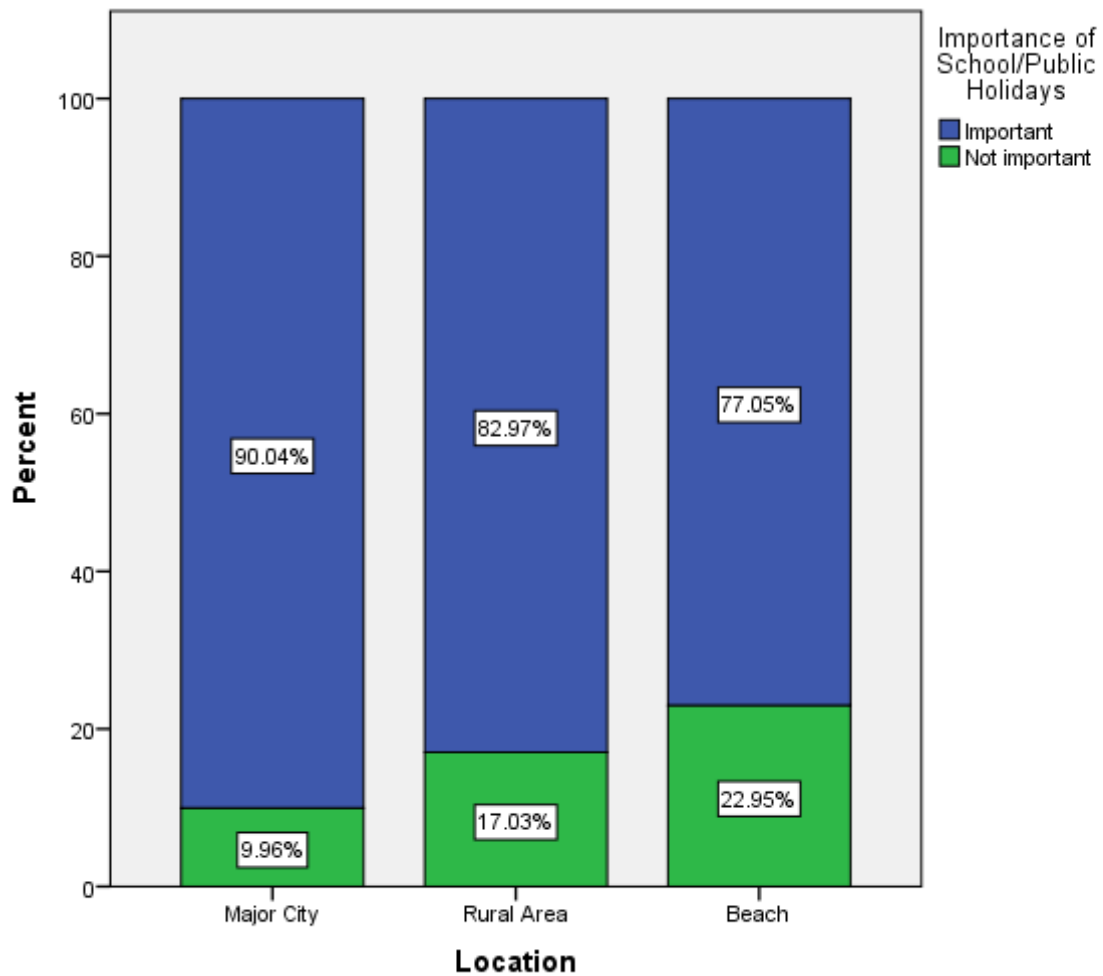
'Living in Thailand was a constant adventure. I worked hard during the week, but weekends and holidays were full of action. During my seven months I went jungle trekking and elephant riding on Koh Chang, chilled out on the beach on Koh Samet, visited numerous wats in Chiang Mai, watched Thai boxing in Bangkok, and experienced a full moon party on the beach in Koh Phangan. I thought about teaching in South Korea before I chose Thailand and I'm glad I didn't- it's cold and I wouldn't have had nowhere near as much fun as theres not as much to do!' [sic]

'I am so glad that I live in Thailand because when the weekend comes you get the opportunity to relax by the amazing beaches, drink yourself senseless at the banging

parties, laugh about everything and just rant about the bumps that you've had to overcome.'

In support of the 'destination Thailand' theme discussed in the previous chapter, remarks made by bloggers V and D1 indicate that whilst tourism opportunities are very important to respondents working as TEFL teachers in Thailand, this may not necessarily be representative of alternative destinations with fewer leisure opportunities. Furthermore, there was evidence of geographical disparity within Thailand with regard to the importance placed on school and public holidays by respondents (χ^2 17.06, df=6, $p<0.01$). Findings indicated that a greater proportion of those living in cities valued time away from teaching (90%), than those based in rural (83%) or beach (77%) locations (see figure 7.2). This may be explained in part by references (page 127) to dissatisfaction as a result of living in a busy city environment, providing city-based TEFL teachers with a desire to travel to alternative destinations during the school/work holidays. In contrast, it can be argued that those located close to the beach may place less emphasis on the importance of time away from teaching to enjoy tourist-based activities due to their locality and the leisure pursuits already available to them. These findings may be particularly useful to TEFL agencies when considering the packages offered to TEFL teachers in accordance with their preferences for leisure and tourism as part of their overall experience.

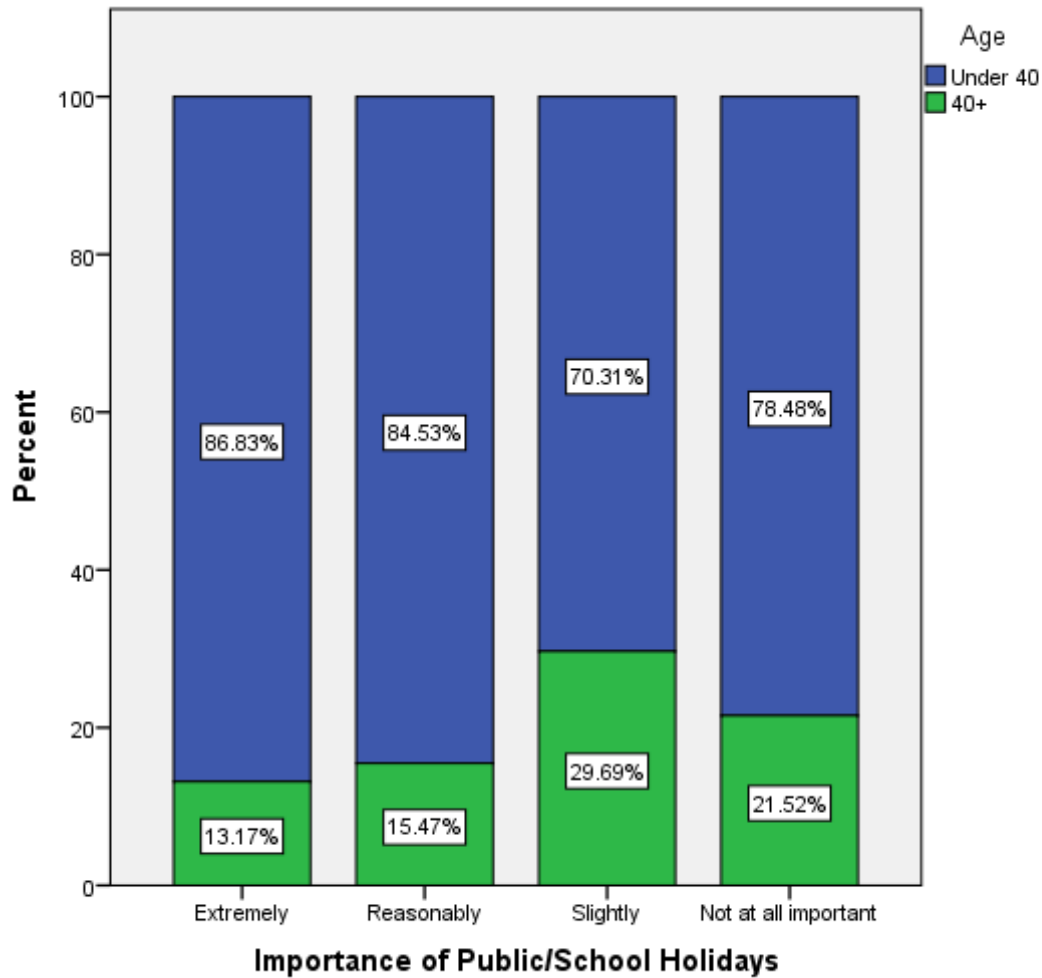
Figure 7.2: Importance Accorded to Public/School Holidays Location Cross-Tabulation



(Valid responses=541)

As indicated in figure 7.3, school or public holidays were viewed as being more important to younger respondents ($\chi^2 11.3$, $df=3$, $p<0.05$). Those who described time off as extremely or reasonably important accounted for 77.3% of the under 40 population, compared to 62.5% of those aged over 40. One possible reason for this correlation is the popularity of Thailand as a retirement destination, with many expatriates relocating there indefinitely with motives of experiencing Thai culture, low living costs, a warmer climate and readily available sexual partners taking preference over weekend or holiday leisure pursuits (Howard, 2009).

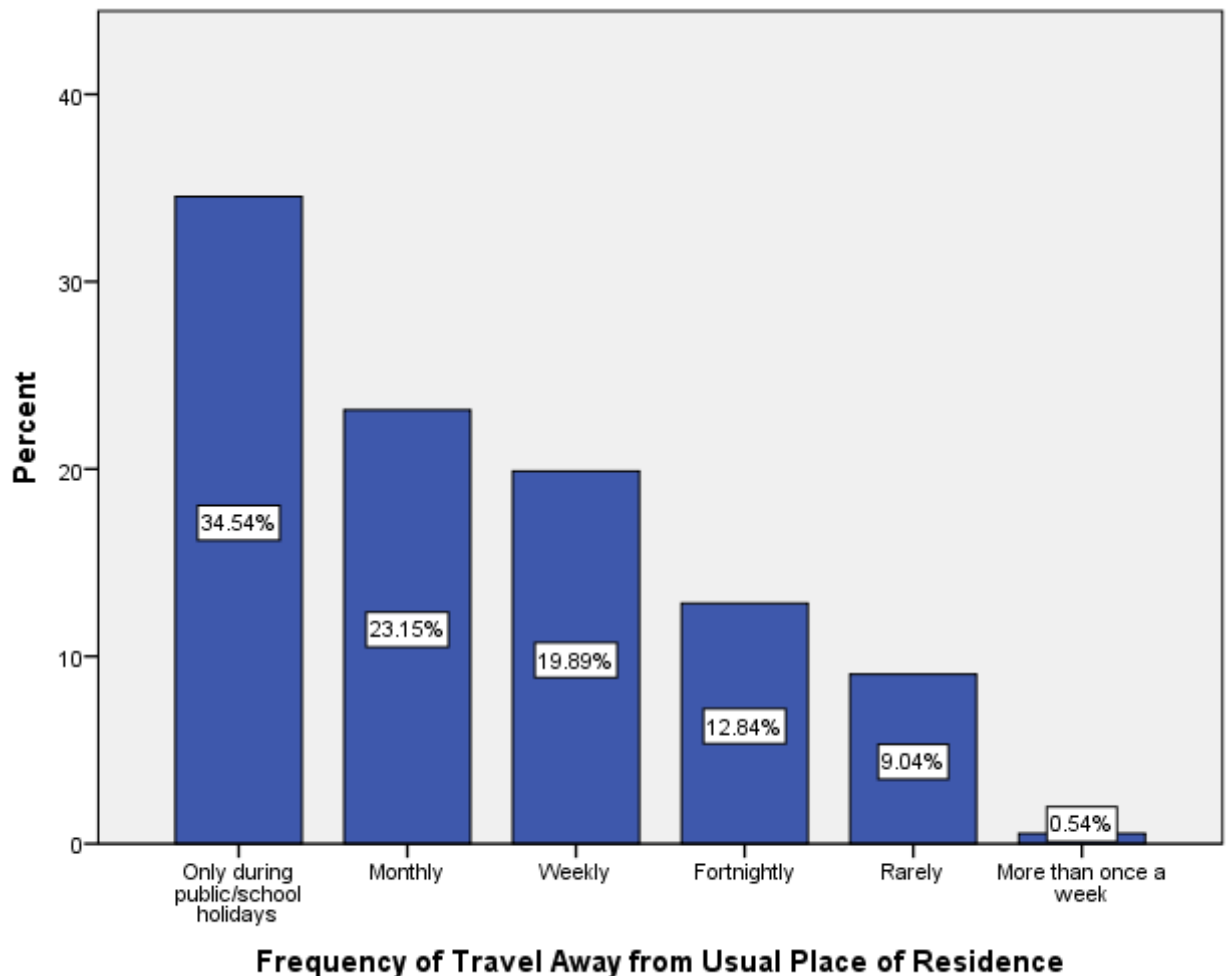
Figure 7.3: Importance Accorded to Public/School Holidays Age Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

In further support of the travel theme which is evident throughout the research, the majority (91.2%) of respondents demonstrated that they traveled regularly during their TEFL experience, ranging from trips undertaken more than once a week to those undertaken each school or public holiday (figure 7.4). School and public holidays were the most popular time to travel (34.5%), further emphasising the importance placed on time-off work for leisure purposes. The emphasis on school or public holidays is one that has not been addressed in the literature relating to associated tourism forms such as volunteer or educational tourism, thus emphasising the specific and individual nature of TEFL tourism and further justifying the nature of this research.

Figure 7.4: Frequency of Travel Away from Usual Place of Residence



(Valid responses=553)

The literature review presented a number of theories through which scholars have attempted to group tourists according to their perceived importance of travel and tourism. This was evident, for example, through Brown and Morrison's (2003) volunteer-minded and vacation-minded tourists, Daldeniz and Hampton's (2011) VOLUNtourists and volunTOURISTS and Ritchie *et al's* (2003) education first and tourist first tourists. Whilst models such as these are useful in their respective fields, they cannot be reliably applied to the study of TEFL tourism as a result of fundamental differences in the tourist experience. It is also argued that theories such as these are too broad in nature to enable a holistic understanding of the tourist experience. The remainder of this chapter examines the specific activities undertaken by bloggers and respondents in research phases one and two respectively, making particular reference to whether these

activities can be classified as leisure, philanthropic, career or expatriate in nature in accordance with debates in the literature (for example, Brown, 2005; Chen and Chen, 2011; Sin, 2009; Stebbins, 2000; Tomazos and Butler, 2010; Wearing and McGehee, 2013a)

Data from research phase one indicated that TEFL teachers undertook a wide range of leisure activities, with the most frequent references pertaining to beaches (81% of bloggers), wildlife such as visiting tiger sanctuaries or elephant riding (50% of bloggers) and drinking alcohol or taking drugs (81%). Leisure activities noted in the blogs analysed were incorporated into the quantitative survey where respondents were required to select the activities that they had undertaken whilst working as a TEFL teacher in Thailand. These are summarised in table 7.1. Five key themes emerged: culture; sun, sea, sand and nature; philanthropy; nightlife and sex.

Table 7.1: Leisure Activities Undertaken

Leisure Activities Undertaken (multiple response)	Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
Visit temples	436	76.9
Go to the beach	426	75.1
Go to bars/clubs in local community	418	73.7
Go shopping	402	70.9
Visit national parks	380	67
Visit waterfalls	375	66.1
Visit historical sites/memorials	367	64.7
Go to parties with colleagues	349	61.6
Go to bars/clubs in tourist areas	336	59.3
Attend festivals/concerts/shows	301	53.1
Visit caves	237	41.8
Watch/take part in sport (i.e. muay Thai boxing)	212	37.4
Ride elephants/visit elephant sanctuaries	198	34.9
Go snorkelling/diving	197	34.7
Go to beach/full moon parties	166	29.8
Trek/zip line through the Jungle	107	18.9
Go to go-go bars/strip clubs	105	18.5
Do missionary/voluntary work in the local community	84	14.8
Watch a sex/ping-pong show	82	14.5
Visit tigers	81	14.3
Spend intimate time with Thai prostitute	53	9.3
Visited a refugee camp	36	6.3

(Valid responses=5348)

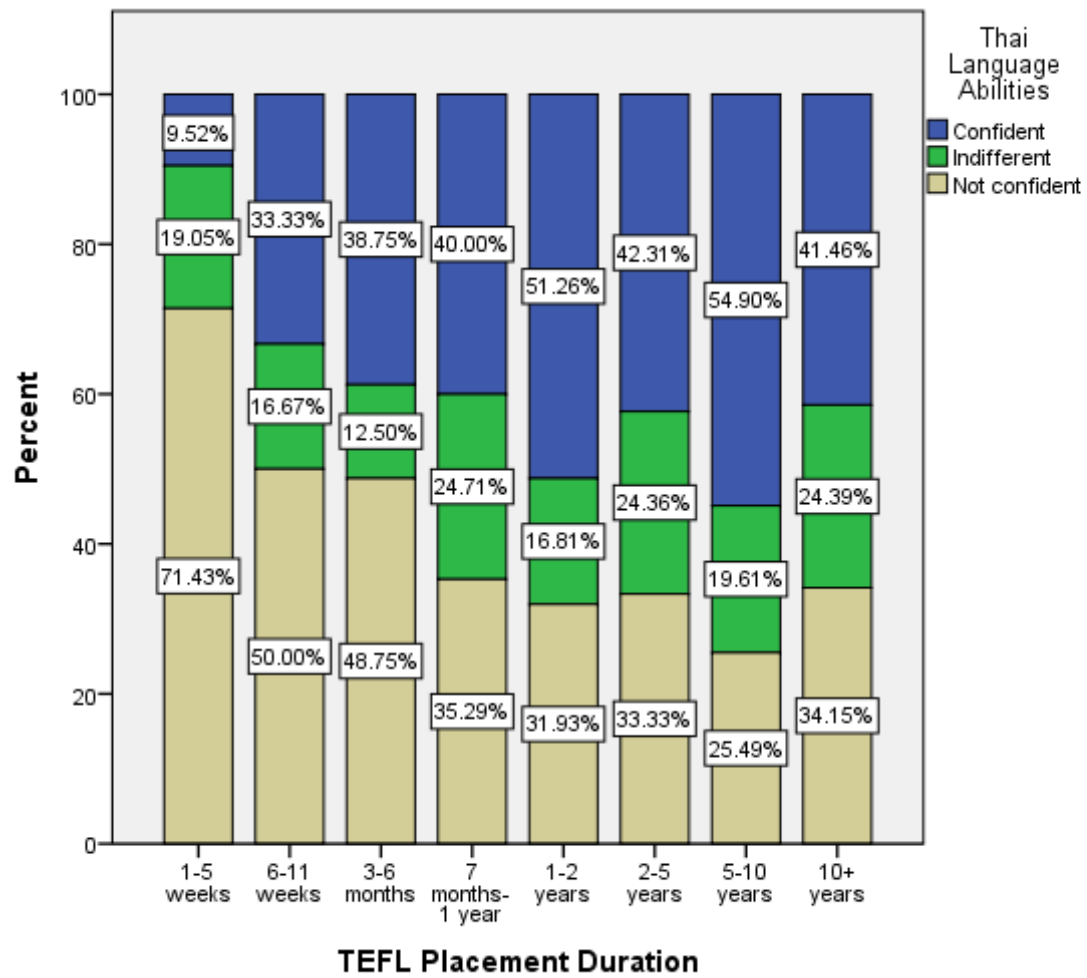
7.3 The Cultural Tourism Aspects of the TEFL Experience

With approximately 30,000 temples across the country and at least one in every village (Parkay *et al*, 1999), it is no surprise that the most popular tourist activity amongst respondents was visiting temples (76.9%). This, together with visiting historical sites/memorials (64.7%), can be viewed as a form of cultural tourism, facilitating the consumption of Thai cultural products (Bonink, 1992; Munsters, 1994), whilst also encompassing elements of educational (Buhalis and Costa, 2006; Horner and Swarbrooke, 2007; Richards, 2005) and religious tourism (Csapo, 2012). MacCannel (1976), in his seminal text, claims that tourism is the ideal arena in which to learn about cultural production. It can be argued that this is especially true of Thailand, with the manifestation of Thai cultural markers evident in almost every aspect of life (Komin, 1990). There are many religious and cultural celebrations and festivals held throughout

the year in Thailand and, as suggested by Forman (2005), it appears that many of the respondents in this research may have joined in such celebrations, with 53.1% stating that they took part in festivals/concerts/shows. Although there is no previous research to support this, it can be suggested that TEFL teachers are more likely to encounter cultural celebrations of this type than vacation-based tourists as a result of the prolonged duration of their stay and their involvement with the native peoples and community in which they reside.

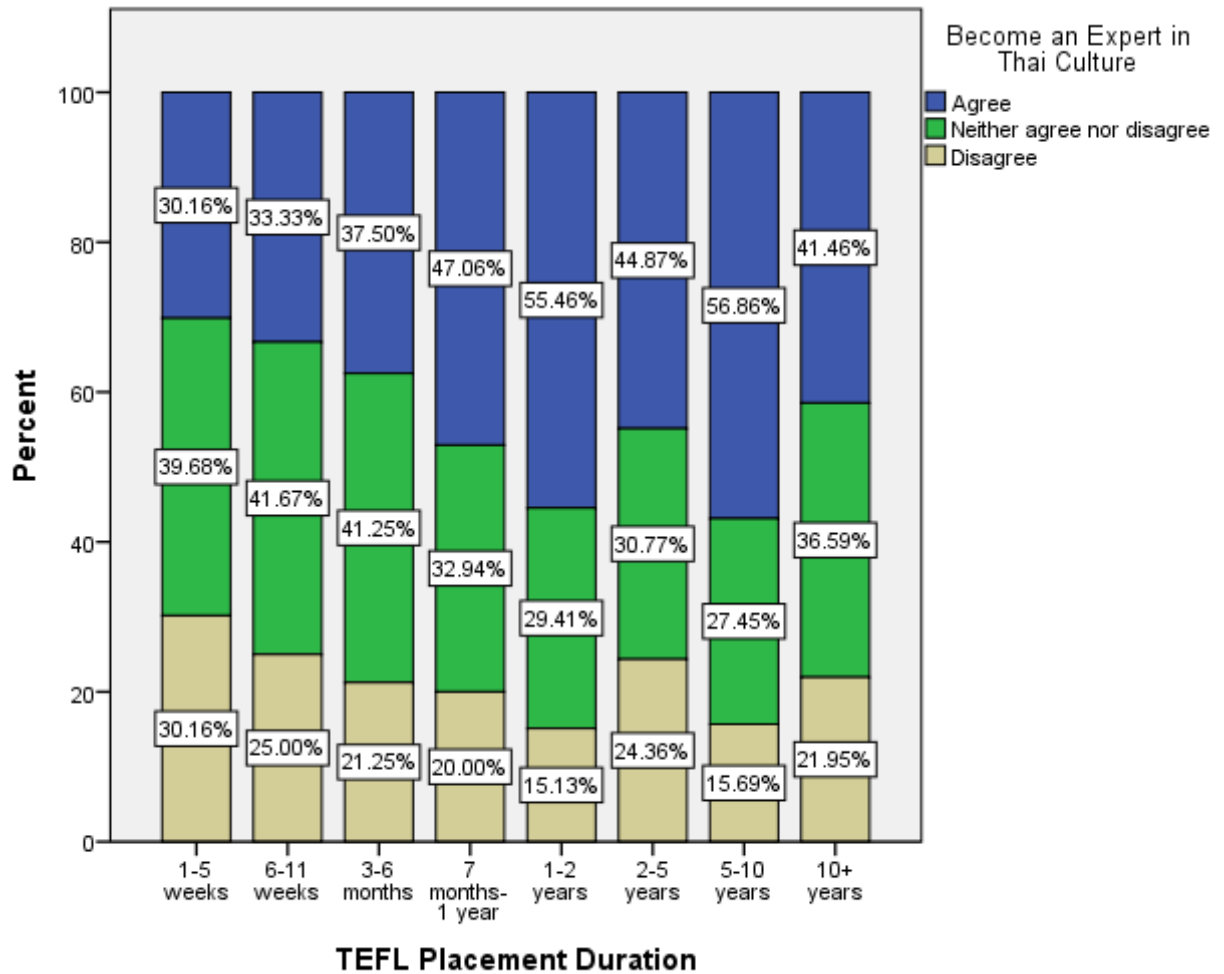
As suggested by MacIntosh and Goeldner (1986), cultural tourism is not only facilitated through the consumption of cultural products but is encapsulated in all aspects of the travel experience, where tourists are exposed to the histories and heritage of the native peoples and their contemporary way of life. It can be argued that the community engagement facilitated through the TEFL experience encompasses this type of cultural tourism in a way that vacation-based travel could not. For example, 40% of respondents stated that as a result of their TEFL experience they could now confidently communicate in Thai, demonstrating linguistic cultural education as a result of their TEFL experience. Whilst vacation-based tourists may also improve their language abilities, the positive correlation ($\chi^2 50.58$, $df=14$, $p<0.01$) between confidence and duration of TEFL teaching shown in figure 7.5 indicates that vacation-based trips, that are shorter in nature, are unlikely to yield the same level of linguistic tourism, a type of cultural tourism (Csapo, 2012). The same trend is demonstrated in terms of cultural education, where there is a positive correlation, although not statistically significant, between those who state they have become an expert in Thai culture as a result of their TEFL experience and duration of TEFL placement (figure 7.6).

Figure 7.5: Thai Language Abilities TEFL Placement Duration Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

Figure 7.6: Become an Expert in Thai Culture TEFL Placement Duration Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

The desire to experience cultural tourism was demonstrated by the fact that 85.4% of respondents were motivated to experience Thai culture, which was the second most common motivation for teaching TEFL in Thailand (table 6.17). As indicated by Bywater (1993), TEFL teachers may be interested, motivated or inspired by culture, ranging from consequential cultural experiences to cultural goals. Although the survey did not obtain data in order to facilitate the precise categorisation of TEFL teachers, the qualitative data collected during research phase one did demonstrate links to existing typologies. For example, McKercher and Du Cros (2002) in their typology group tourists who are motivated by and exposed to deep cultural experiences are categorised as purposeful cultural tourists. According to Petroman (2013), these tourists enjoy learning

experiences that challenge them intellectually and visiting tourist areas and sites that are less known. Blogger M broadly fits this description:

'[TEFL] Teaching will let me get off the tourist trail, I'll have a unique chance to experience 'real' Thailand and immerse myself in the authentic and unspoilt culture. And fulfilling the more typically tourist stereotype, I definitely want to make the most of my time in this beautiful country spending my weekends travelling – from exploring the mountains of northern Thailand and experiencing the rush of Bangkok city life to visiting remote historic temples and relaxing on Thailand's famous islands and beaches.'

To further support this theme, some bloggers described their dissatisfaction with stereotypical tourism, indicating their desire to visit areas less well known.

'Koh Samui is so overtaken by tourism that you don't feel much of an experience of the place anymore than you do with Zante... Having barely seen any Thais it felt like this was a holiday from Thailand itself, I feel no desire to return.' (Blogger F)

'I was slightly put off by Chang Mai for the sole reason that it was SOOOOOOOO farang!! Everywhere you looked there were white people, everything was in English and there were McDonalds, Burger King's and Starbucks everywhere. Things that I thought I would miss being in a small village, and I was actually put off by them!!' (Blogger U)

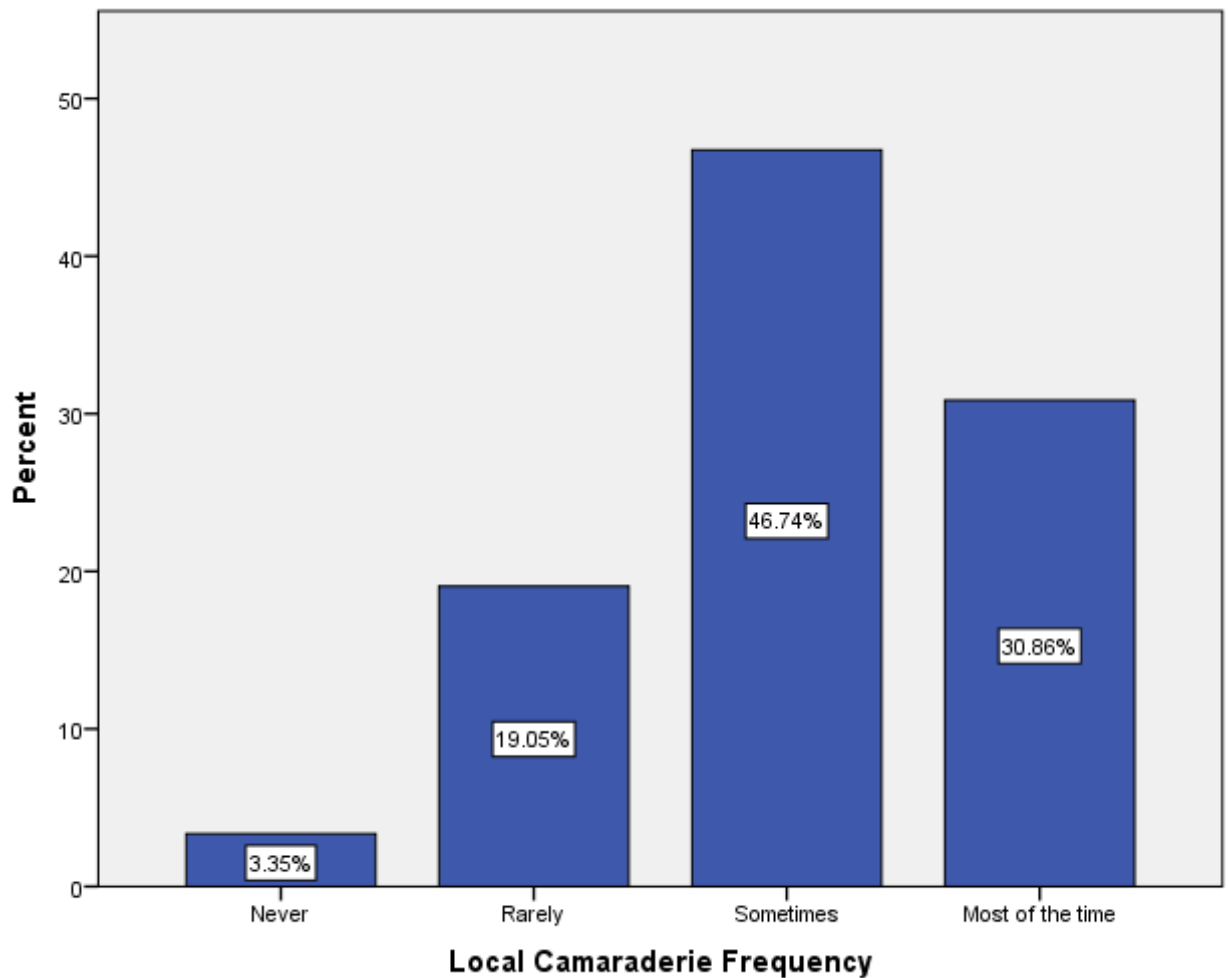
Despite strong notions of escapism in the attempt to avoid the typical tourist trail, it is not clear whether the TEFL teachers held these views in advance of their trip, as attributed by McKercher and Du Cros' (2002) purposeful cultural tourist, or whether they were incidental, based on their experiences once they arrived in Thailand. The latter would place the TEFL teacher closer to the serendipitous cultural tourist (McKercher and Du Cros, 2002), where the tourist does not travel for cultural reasons, but after participating in cultural activities, ends up having a deep cultural experience. Through the high level of community engagement facilitated through TEFL teaching, owing to the nature of TEFL placements, it is likely that TEFL teachers will fall into one of these two categories, since cultural immersion is an unavoidable aspect of living and working in a Thai community.

Integration with the native Thai community was demonstrated through the concept of camaraderie, with 102 relevant blogger references and 96.6% of respondents in research phase two stating that they socialised with the Thai population to a greater or lesser degree (figure 7.7). Blogger B, for example, identified the scope of social activities that a TEFL teacher may encounter, whilst blogger E highlighted the benefits of socialising with the local community;

'So far Joe and I have accepted invitations to a family meal with Teacher Foy, 2 football matches with the legendary Librarian Somkiet ..., a Loi Krothong festival in Chok Chai and Surin Elephant festival with foreign language teachers plus regular meals out with the awesome teachers Jack and Kim at weekends. We have also been invited to go on holiday to Krabi in March (about 130 teachers go every year!) and I fully intend on going!' (Blogger B)

'You meet a wonderful mix of different people. You meet people who you click with, you meet people who seem like utter caricatures (spending time in a hostel in phi phi flagged up how there are so many 'gap yah/chunder everywhaaa' knobheads that ACTUALLY EXIST), you meet people who you thought wouldn't be your cup of tea, but actually are, and you meet people who you thought wouldn't be your cup of tea, and indeed aren't. Of course, you meet many people when you travel, but often these are fellow travellers who are, like you, at a point where they are itching to explore. This is fun and exciting, but only when you live somewhere do you also have the privilege of meeting the people who render the culture. And it is only really through meeting (and making friends with) native people that you can truly begin to understand a particular place.'[sic] (Blogger E)

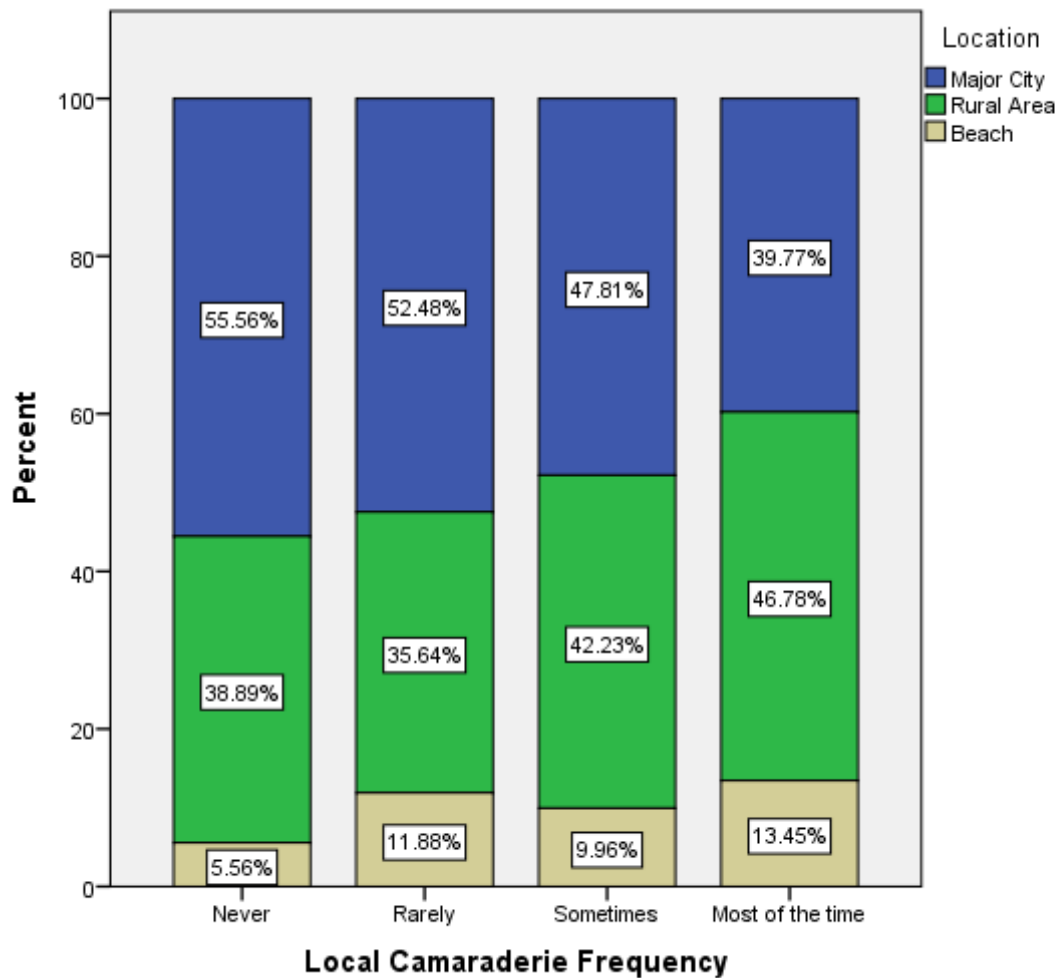
Figure 7.7: Local Camaraderie Frequency



(Valid responses=567)

There were no statistically significant relationships identified between local camaraderie and location. Whilst it might be expected that those in more rural areas might integrate with the local community more frequently, there was no evidence of this in the research. This causation for this could be due to sample size.

Figure 7.8: Local Camaraderie Location Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

The level of cultural integration and community engagement is, in some instances, indicative of tourist type. In their research on volunteer tourists, Callanan and Thomas (2005) associate those with strong ties to the community as 'deep' tourists, whilst McGehee *et al's* (2009) pragmatists are typically motivated by the prospects of developing relationships with the local community. These models cannot be accurately applied to the examination of TEFL experiences. This is because not all of the associated teachers possess the required skills and qualifications, as per Callanan and Thomas' (2005) typology. Similarly, all TEFL teachers are not mostly middle aged, as proposed by McGehee *et al* (2009). It is important to note that a TEFL teacher is not necessarily culturally motivated/involved all of the time. Instead, based on the premise suggested by Mustonen (2005) regarding shifting roles, they may deviate from being culturally

focussed to culturally uninterested or culturally ignorant at different points in their trip. One element of tourist activity likely to have less cultural involvement are those activities involving sun, sea, sand and nature.

7.4 The Sun, Sea, Sand and Nature Aspects of the TEFL Experience

The UNWTO (2012) state that the majority of tourists who visit Thailand do so for the sun, sand, sea and nature on offer. Whilst this statement is broad in approach, it does appear to be largely representative of the TEFL community. In line with the typical themes of sea, sun and sand associated with traditional package style tourism (Fletcher *et al*, 2013; Poon, 1993), this further suggests the relationship between the TEFL experience and commodified packages as discussed in chapter six (page 137). Respondents, however, did not only conform to stereotypical mass tourism activities, such as going to the beach, but alongside this undertook a range of different activities, analogous with the progressive heterogenisation of the tourism industry in Thailand (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998).

Beach tourism was the second most popular leisure activity amongst respondents (75.1%). Nature based activities were also very popular, encompassing the holiday themes of sustainability, responsibility and eco-tourism (WTO, 2011), with 67% of respondents stating that they had visited a national park, 66.1% had visited a waterfall, 41.8% had been to caves and 18.9% had been trekking or zip-lining in the jungle. Activities involving animals or fish were less common, but still a popular choice of leisure activity with 34.9% of respondents riding or visiting elephants, 34.7% snorkelling or diving and 14.3% visiting tiger centres (see table 7.1).

On conducting a number of χ^2 tests, there was only one common relationship between the leisure activities undertaken and demographic variables; namely age. All these leisure activities were more popular with respondents under age 40 than those age 40 and over (table 7.2), most demonstrating a significant relationship (6/8). This corresponds with figure 7.3, which indicated that public and school holidays were less important to the >40 age group, thus intimating that the older population are less concerned with the tourist elements of the TEFL experience and further corresponding

with Howard's (2009) research that older respondents are interested in the romantic opportunities provided to them in Thailand as opposed to the leisure options.

Table 7.2: Leisure Activity Age Cross-Tabulation

Leisure Activity (multiple response)		Age		χ^2 Value
		<40 (n=471)	40+ (n=96)	
Go to the beach	Number	370	56	χ^2 17.46, df=1, p<0.01, Yates Continuity Correction 16.39
	% within Age	79.4%	62.9%	
Go snorkelling/diving	Number	180	17	χ^2 14.73, df=1, p<0.01, Yates Continuity Correction 13.90
	% within Age	38.6%	19.1%	
Visit waterfalls	Number	328	47	χ^2 15.23, df=1, p<0.01, Yates Continuity Correction 14.32
	% within Age	70.4%	52.8%	
Visit caves	Number	208	29	χ^2 6.38, df=1, p<0.01, Yates Continuity Correction 5.81
	% within Age	44.6%	32.6%	
Ride elephants/visit elephant sanctuaries	Number	176	22	χ^2 7.33, df=1, p<0.01, Yates Continuity Correction 6.71
	% within Age	37.8%	24.7%	
Visit tigers	Number	71	10	χ^2 1.41, df=1, p>0.05, Yates Continuity Correction 1.06
	% within Age	15.2%	11.2%	
Trek/zip line through the jungle	Number	94	13	χ^2 2.14, df=1, p>0.05, Yates Continuity Correction 1.75
	% within Age	20.2%	14.6%	
Visit national parks	Number	328	52	χ^2 8.64, df=1, p<0.01, Yates Continuity Correction 7.95
	% within Age	70.4%	58.4%	

(Valid responses=1621)

7.5 The Philanthropic Tourism Aspects of the TEFL Experience

While social-justice philanthropy may be rooted in a TEFL-teacher's classroom-based motivations, with intentions of 'doing something good' (64.7% of respondents-see table 6.17) by contributing to the enhancement of social and economic prosperity (Goldberg, 2002), this may not necessarily be replicated outside of the classroom. All the leisure activities identified thus far in this chapter can be considered predominantly hedonistic in nature, providing respondents with opportunities for pleasure and self-indulgence. Whilst substantially smaller, there was nonetheless a theme of travel philanthropy evident in the blogger and respondents' tourist-based activities.

Twenty-two percent of bloggers in research phase one outlined experiences that were subsequently coded as philanthropic tourism as a result of the opportunities to donate money, in-kind resources, or time occasioned by or facilitated by travel (Goodwin *et al*, 2009). This is evidenced through the comments made by blogger E.

'Most notable would have to be the day spent visiting a Cambodian refugee camp, which was as humbling as it was eye opening... These children highlight how money does not equate to happiness, since despite their impoverished backgrounds these children really were the smiley-ist, happiest, funniest children I've ever come across... This was a far cry from kids back in the UK who can't bolt out of the school gates away from their teachers fast enough at the end of the school day! If ever I lose perspective I will recall that day at the refugee camp again.' [sic]

Despite possible philanthropic motivations, it is difficult to determine to which extent this may apply for each tourist. Blogger E's comment, for example, demonstrates the benefits of this experience to the self. This indicates links with the educational advantages accrued by volunteer tourists, where it has been claimed that experiences render a greater awareness of 'self' (Lepp, 2008; Guttentag, 2009; Matthews, 2008; Sin, 2009; Wearing, 2002; Wearing and McGehee, 2013a; Wickens, 2011) and foster self-reflection (Alexander, 2012; Benson and Wearing, 2012; Broad and Jenkins, 2008; Gray and Campbell, 2007; Soderman and Snead, 2008). The final sentence also supports claims that experiences permeate beyond the tourism experience, transferring into the

tourist's everyday life (Brown, 2005; Grabowski, 2013; Lepp, 2008, Wearing and McGehee, 2013a).

This sentiment was echoed in research phase two, with 6.3% (table 7.1) of respondents stating that they had visited a refugee camp as part of their TEFL experience. As noted in the literature, it is common for TEFL packages to include excursions, such as the visit to the refugee camp noted above (TEFL Heaven, 2016). Findings deriving from research phase two demonstrated that 54.3% of respondents who had visited a refugee camp also secured their TEFL placement via an agency (table 7.3), supporting this contention. It can however be argued that, due to the inclusive nature of this excursion, the respondent may not have undertaken this activity as a result of philanthropic motivations, but rather because their visit was organised by the agency.

Table 7.3: Visited a Refugee Camp Employment Source Cross-Tabulation

Visited a Refugee Camp	Employment Source		Total
	Agency	Self-Source	
No	259	271	530
% who had not visited a refugee camp	48.9	51.1	100
Yes	19	16	35
% who had visited a refugee camp	54.3	45.7	100

(Valid responses=565)

Missionary or voluntary work, associated with philanthropy, was undertaken by 14.8% of respondents (table 7.1). Blogger J provided details of her experience;

'A big reason we wanted to travel to Pattaya is because Christina had a connection to the Tamar Center... a nonprofit that helps women leave their jobs at the bars in Pattaya, where they are often sexually exploited. I talked to the women who worked there and invited them to come to the Tamar Center for English classes. If women continue to be interested, they teach women how to hand make cards, cook, sew, etc. so the women can use their skills in a new job and permanently leave bars.' (Blogger J)

Whilst the abovementioned experiences may encompass philanthropic motivations and behaviours, it can be argued, based on claims by Wearing and McGehee (2013a) in their research on volunteer tourism, that there is no such thing as an unselfish TEFL teacher. In fact, they suggest that the act of volunteering, and by association TEFL teaching, is often not an altruistic undertaking, but rather a means to disguise the tourist's hedonistic intentions. Furthermore, it can be argued that such experiences may yield benefits beyond philanthropy, with mutual benefit accruing to the TEFL teacher through aspects such as education, CV enhancement or self-fulfillment. Conversely, not all of the activities deemed to be hedonistic facilitate only selfish experiences. For example, a TEFL teacher may visit a temple with the hedonistic motives of education and enjoyment, whilst altruistically improving their knowledge of Thai culture in order to enhance their teaching practice and community engagement.

Despite the tourist's intentions, whether hedonistic, philanthropic or otherwise, elements concerning their leisure activities may not always be within their control. This is particularly prevalent with activities involving animals in Thailand where, although the tourist may not wish to cause any harm, they may in fact be doing so indirectly by providing business to a company or individual who represents the antithesis of philanthropy through maltreatment and unethical practices (Duffy and Moore, 1994; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2009). Similar issues may arise as a result of social and ethnic tourism, where there are debates in regard to the value of tourism to the host, the cross-cultural implications and the impacts on authenticity (Novelli and Trisch-Rottensteiner, 2011). It can be argued that such debates are worthwhile with regards to the TEFL industry in Thailand and should this area be addressed within future research it would enhance understanding and encourage scholars and practitioners to view the activity of TEFL through a critical lens where appropriate.

7.6 The Nightlife Tourism Aspects of the TEFL Experience

The antithesis of travel philanthropy are the hedonistic havens which facilitate the abundant nightlife scene in Thailand. Nightlife tourists are described as pleasure-seekers (Tutenges, 2013) who are enticed by all-night parties, alcohol and illegal substances

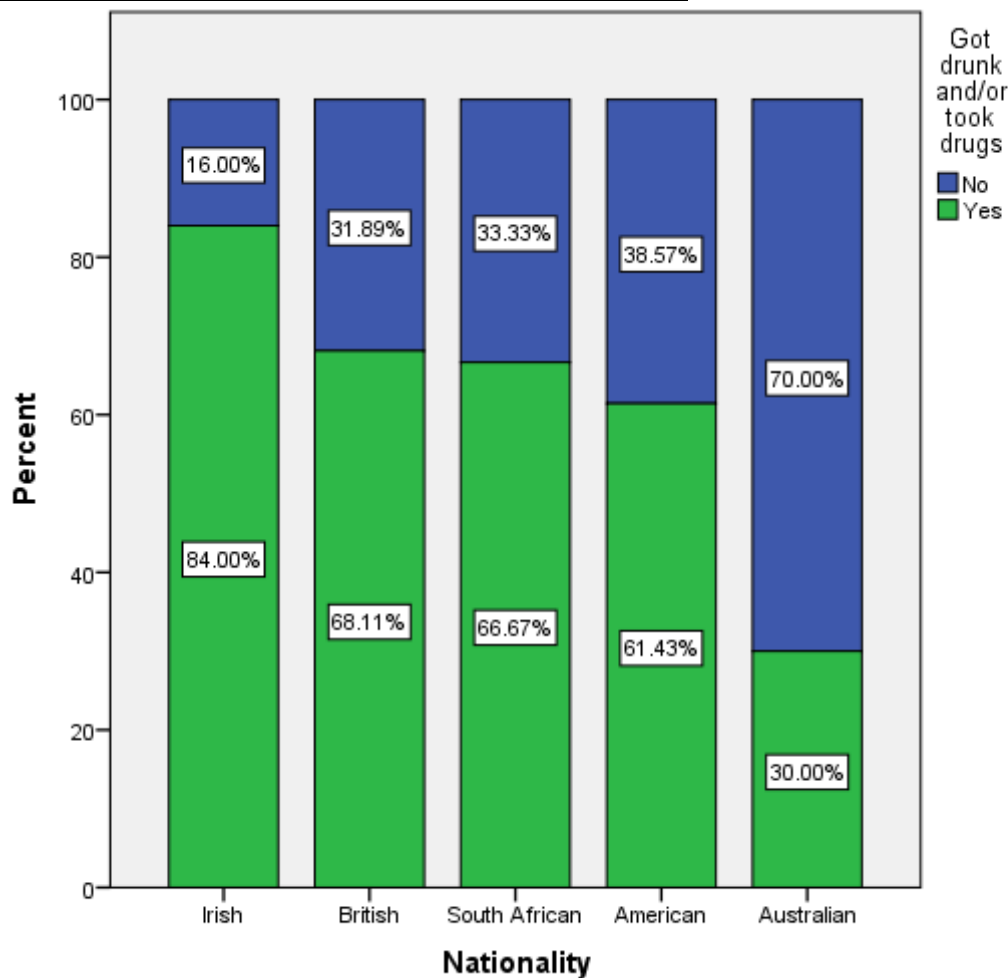
(Calafat *et al*, 2010), where they are free from censure, providing them with the opportunity to indulge in playful deviance without fear of condemnation (Diken and Lausten, 2005; Hobbs *et al*, 2000). This research identified a strong theme of nightlife tourism and a culture of alcohol and drugs evident throughout both research phases. For some bloggers, alcohol and drugs were a central theme of their blog indicating that this was a substantial and important aspect of their TEFL experience. When analysing the content of blog A1, for example, 26% of NVIVO codes were classified under the concepts of drug or alcohol.

*'I suppose I should talk about this whole experience of moving to Thailand.....to be honest life hasn't changed too dramatically for me. I am still doing exactly what I was doing back in the UK but just on the other side of the planet. Getting royally f**ked up or 'airtight'. What the hell does that even mean? It's a great expression for getting noshed!... On average I would say that I drink 6 days a week, it's hard not to when it's so damn cheap for a bottle of Hong Thong (the Thai people's favourite whiskey)'*

Data derived from research phase two indicated that 61.6% of respondents 'got drunk' and/or took drugs during their TEFL placement. Whilst this suggests the popularity of this late night economy (Calafat *et al*, 2010) in Thailand, it is limited in that it does not provide details of frequency or substance. It is important to consider the subjective nature of 'getting drunk' and the way that substances such as alcohol effect people differently, particularly when strength of products may differ from the tourists' home country (Bellis *et al*, 2009). For example, some respondents in research phase two stated that they liked to go out and drink beer in the evenings, yet they did not state that they had been drunk. Although there is no clear way to define when a person becomes 'drunk', this does indicate that the figure of 61.6% may in reality be higher than represented in the data due to the personal and subjective nature of the questions. Both bloggers and respondents may not have wished to admit to their involvement with the late night economy over concerns of impacting their professional reputation or the associated legal penalties which include imprisonment, fines and in extreme cases the death penalty (UK Government, 2016).

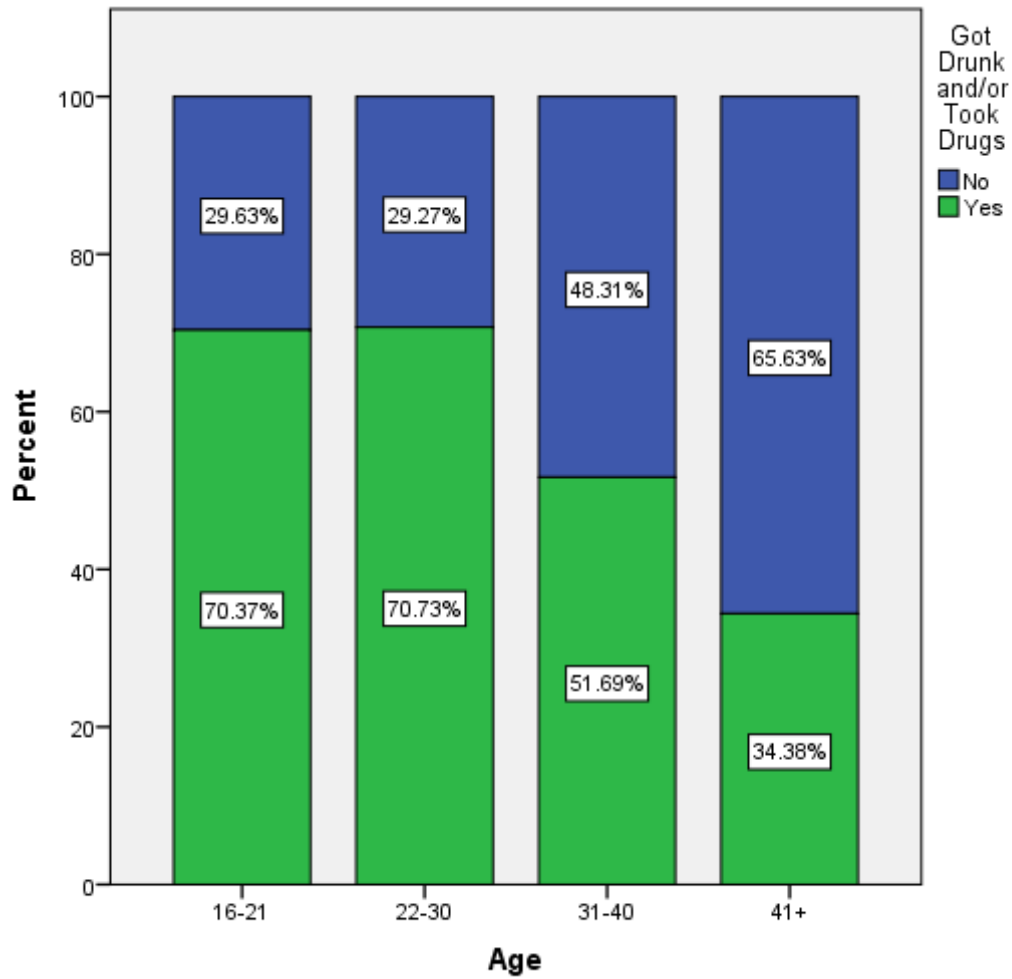
Two significant relationships were established with those who got drunk and/or took drugs; nationality (χ^2 34.8, df=6, $p<0.01$) and age (χ^2 36.07, df=1, $p<0.01$, Yates continuity correction 34.7). The majority of Irish (84%), British (68.11%), American (61.43%) and South African (66.67%) respondents admitted to having been drunk and/or taken drugs. The least likely to be involved in these activities were the Australians (30%) (figure 7.9). Of those aged below 40, 67.1% got drunk and/or took drugs, compared to 33.4% of those aged 40 and over (figure 7.10). The negative correlation between those who got drunk and/or took drugs and age underpins Calafat *et al's* (2010) suggestion that nightlife tourism is most popular with young people (figure 7.10).

Figure 7.9: Drunk and/or Drugs Nationality Correlation



(Valid responses=481)

Figure 7.10: Drunk and/or Drugs Age Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

Other activities associated with late-night partying and festivities (Calafat *et al*, 2010; Tutunges, 2013) included going to bars and clubs in the local community (73.7%), parties with colleagues (61.6%), visiting bars or clubs in the tourist areas (59.3%) and attending beach or full-moon parties (29.8%) (table 7.1). The majority of respondents (87.8%) took part in one or more of these activities during their TEFL experience (figure 7.1). Table 7.4 demonstrates that the majority of respondents who attended these events also got drunk and/or took drugs, with the most likely occasion being at a full moon or beach party.

Table 7.4: Nightlife Activity Drunk/Drugs Cross-Tabulation

Nightlife Activity (multiple response)		Got Drunk and/or Took Drugs		χ^2 Value
		No	Yes	
Went to parties with colleagues (n=349)	Number % within went to parties with colleagues	94 26.9	255 73.1	χ^2 50.85, df=1, Yates continuity correction 49.59, p<0.01
Went to bars/clubs in the local community (n=418)	Number % within went to bars/clubs in the local community	119 28.5	299 71.5	χ^2 66.93, df=1, Yates continuity correction 65.34, p<0.01
Went to bars/clubs in the tourist areas (n=336)	Number % within went to bars/clubs in the tourist areas	72 21.4	264 78.6	χ^2 100.95, df=1, Yates continuity correction 99.18, p<0.01
Went to beach parties/full moon parties (n=166)	Number % within went to beach parties/full moon parties	25 15.1	141 84.9	χ^2 54.25, df=1, Yates continuity correction 52.86, p<0.01
Total	Number	310	959	

(Valid responses=500)

The hedonistic pursuits outlined above are not congruent with the Thai cultural values of self-preservation and social harmony (Komin, 1990). Nightlife tourism creates opportunities for tourists to create chaos, often leading to risk behaviours including dangerous or offensive behaviour, sexual promiscuity and ill-health (Calafat *et al*, 2010), which has been shown to have unfavourable benefits on the Thai health systems, local environment and the community (Turow, 2012). It could thus be argued that such behaviour is culturally insensitive. Data collected from research phase one demonstrates that bloggers were not ignorant of this fact. Bloggers K and E described their experiences respectively;

'We have done ZERO culture and 100% boozing, sleeping and shopping. And some more booze....We did all the typical traveller stuff down there; went to the Irish bar (which I

discovered sells GIN for only 90 baht which is super cheap for a spirit over here) and then of course we all went and got Sangsom buckets... and then the rest is a bit of a blur!’

‘I have been out drinking in Bangkok to places other than Khao San road (the Magaluf of Thailand). Having gone to a proper Thai nightclub I’ve also witnessed how Thai people do not dance like crazy drunk undignified lunatics when they go out... As you can imagine, we found this fairly hard to come to terms with, and so did what brits abroad do best – get drunk and dance like crazy undignified lunatics anyway. (Really embracing the Thai culture.)’ (Blogger E)

Behaviour of this type contradicts the strong notions of culture amongst bloggers and respondents discussed in section 7.3, where it was argued that cultural tourism formed an integral part of the TEFL experience as a result not only of the intended consumption of cultural products, but also due to the inevitable community engagement. This can, in part, be explained by the shifting of roles, as discussed by Mustonen (2005), suggesting that a TEFL teacher can be philanthropically motivated and professional during the working day, whilst portraying strong elements of hedonism and tourist-based activities outside of the classroom. This is demonstrated by bloggers D1 and C1 respectively;

‘Friday night involved a trip to the beach sipping on “magic” [mushroom] drinks, entering a different universe and staying up to watch the sunrise... It felt bizarre that once Monday came we’d have to be back being responsible adults taking care of children’s English education.’

‘[TEFL teaching is] like being in college again. During the day, you all focus on learning the basics of english teaching. At night, it’s a shit show. Late nights on the beach drinking beer, exploring different bars & restaurants all over Phuket, gossip about the latest hookups and other wild, Real World-esque shenanigans.’[sic]

This shifting of roles demonstrates behavioural inversion (de Oliveira and Paiva, 2007), where bloggers and respondents demonstrated behaviour that they would not usually exhibit in their educational environment. Effectively, they appeared to adapt their identities depending on space and context (Malam, 2004) and whether they had the constraints of teaching responsibilities confining them to moderate their behaviour

accordingly (Redmon, 2003). For opportunities outside of the community within which they teach, such as going to bars or clubs in tourist areas or traveling to the beach to attend a full moon party, TEFL teachers are able to be transported away from the constraints of their everyday life into states of abandon (Tutenges, 2013).

The contrasting roles of respondents can be further addressed through associated typologies. This thesis has suggested that the method of organising a TEFL experience often replicates a post-modern package tourism product, thus associating the TEFL teacher with commodification, organisation and the mass market, whilst during the experience there are inevitably consequential elements of cultural tourism, with bloggers and respondents frequently demonstrating the desire to move away from the mass towards a more grassroots experience. This facet of the TEFL tourist is akin to Cohen's (1973) description of the drifter; a tourist who is highly adventurous, lives within the local community and seeks low levels of familiarity and high levels of novelty. This drifter model is commonly associated by academics with nightlife tourists, particularly those involved in illegal substance consumption (Cohen, 1973; Westerhausen, 2002).

Table 6.17 identified that 20.1% of respondents stated that nightlife was a motivating factor in becoming TEFL teachers in Thailand, yet most (87.8%) respondents took part in nightlife tourism-based activities whilst working as a TEFL teacher in Thailand. This suggests that, for the most part, participation in nightlife tourism was a consequence of the opportunities presented in Thailand (Uriely and Belhassen, 2005; Valdez and Sifaneck, 1997), rather than a reason to select Thailand as the TEFL destination of choice. It can however be argued that this 'license to thrill' (Wickens, 1997) presented to TEFL teachers outside of the classroom environment may have detrimental impacts on both the host environment and community and the teacher his/herself. Whilst examination of this is beyond the scope of this thesis, it presents a research topic worthy of future consideration.

7.7 Sex and Relationships as Part of the TEFL Experience

Thailand's late night economy is home to an array of sexual entertainment opportunities, so much so that Thailand's sex industry has become a tourist attraction in itself (Kusy, 1991). There are different levels of involvement with the sex industry including long-term romantic relationships and 'Thai brides' (Ruenkaew, 1999; Sims, 2012), casual encounters (Green, 2001) and sex tourism entertainment (Kelley, 2015). The remainder of this section focuses on sexual entertainment associated with the late night economy, prostitution and romantic relationships.

Research phase two demonstrated that 52.8% of respondents were involved in sex tourism at some point during their TEFL experience. It is, however, possible that this figure is somewhat modest, failing to reflect those who did not wish to publicly admit to actions that may be deemed of a personal and private nature. Research phase one did not present any direct references to sex-tourism involvement by the bloggers. It is suggested that the reason for this may be the public nature of blog content. Whilst the common evoked image of sex tourism involves older men travelling to less-developed countries for sexual pleasures (OConnell Davidson, 1996), phase two of this research identified that sex tourism encounters manifested in a variety of ways and involved a range of tourist types, congruent with Ryan's (2000) multi-paradigm perception of the sex industry. Blogger O explains;

'[Sex tourism] isn't only limited to sleazy old men, despite the common perception. Girls occasionally get dragged along to sex shows and strip bars as well as men. Some men will pay a prostitute when they're drunk for sex, some men religiously go to the go-go bars to stare at naked dancers whilst drinking themselves silly and others marry Thai women and settle down. Many men like the Thai women because they're less high maintenance than women at home and they treat their men like God. People don't always admit they're sex tourists, but in reality they are.'

The identification of the relationship between sex tourism and alcohol, as identified by blogger O, was evidenced in research phase two, with the majority of those who went to a go-go/strip bar (90.5%) or watched a sex show (96.3%) also stating that they had

been drunk and/or taken drugs (see table 7.5). Most respondents who had spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute (84.9%) and were in a romantic relationship with a native Thai (64%) also had experience of alcohol and drugs, although the relationship was not statistically significant (table 7.5). Although it is not possible to determine whether respondents were drunk/taking drugs at the same time as participating in sex tourism, the figures suggest that this is likely. Calafat *et al's* (2010) research proposed that alcohol fuels sexual promiscuity. Based on this premise, it can be argued that involvement with sex tourism may not have previously been an intention (Valdez and Sifaneck, 1997), but was instead the result of the consumption of mind-altering substances.

Table 7.5: Sex Tourism Involvement Drink and Drugs Cross-Tabulation

Sex Tourism Involvement (multiple response)		Got Drunk and/or Took Drugs		χ^2 Value
		No	Yes	
Went to 'go-go bars' or strip clubs (n=105)	Number % within went to 'go-go bars' or strip clubs	10 9.52	95 90.48	χ^2 45.56, df=1, Yates continuity correction 44.07, p<0.01
Watched a sex show/ping pong show (n=82)	Number % within watched a sex show/ping pong show	3 3.66	79 96.34	χ^2 49.03, df=1, Yates continuity correction 47.32, p<0.01
Spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute (n=53)	Number % within spent time with a Thai prostitute	8 15.09	45 84.91	χ^2 13.47, df=1, Yates continuity correction 12.41, p<0.01
Wanted a romantic relationship with a native Thai (n=228)	Number % within was in a romantic relationship with a native Thai	82 35.96	146 64.04	χ^2 0.78, df=1, Yates continuity correction 0.63, p>0.05
Total	Number	103	365	

(Valid responses=298)

Involvement with sex tourism differed according to age (table 7.6). Whilst there was no significant difference between the ages of respondents choosing to visit go-go bars or

strip clubs, sex and ping pong shows were popular amongst younger respondents whilst having intimate relations with a Thai prostitute or a native Thai was more common amongst older respondents (see table 6.1 for age figures). In support of blogger O's remarks (page 182), sex tourism was not limited to males; females participated in all aspects of sex tourism, although to a lesser extent than their male counterparts (see table 7.7). Respondents that had been in a romantic relationship with a native Thai consisted of males (62%) and females (17.8%), accounting for the largest type of female involvement with sex tourism (χ^2 117.45, df=1, Yates continuity correction 115.59, $p<0.01$) (table 7.7). This supports claims made by Bandyopadhyay (2013) who suggested the emergence of a female sex-tourism presence in Asian markets owing to the belief that white women are attracted to Asian men.

Table 7.6: Sex Tourism Involvement Age Cross-Tabulation

Sex-Trade involvement (multiple response)		Age		χ^2 Value
		<40 (n=471)	40+ (n=96)	
Went to 'go-go bars' or strip clubs	Number	87	18	χ^2 0.004, df=1, Yates continuity correction 0.000, $p>0.05$
	% within age	18.47	18.75	
Watched a sex show/ping pong show	Number	76	6	χ^2 6.3, df=1, Yates continuity correction 5.53, $p<0.01$
	% within age	16.14	6.25	
Spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute	Number	34	19	χ^2 14.87, df=1, Yates continuity correction 13.43, $p<0.01$
	% within age	7.22	19.79	
Was in a romantic relationship with a native Thai	Number	174	54	χ^2 13.22, df=1, Yates continuity correction 12.4, $p<0.01$
	% within age	36.94	55.6	
Total	Number	371	97	

(Valid responses=468)

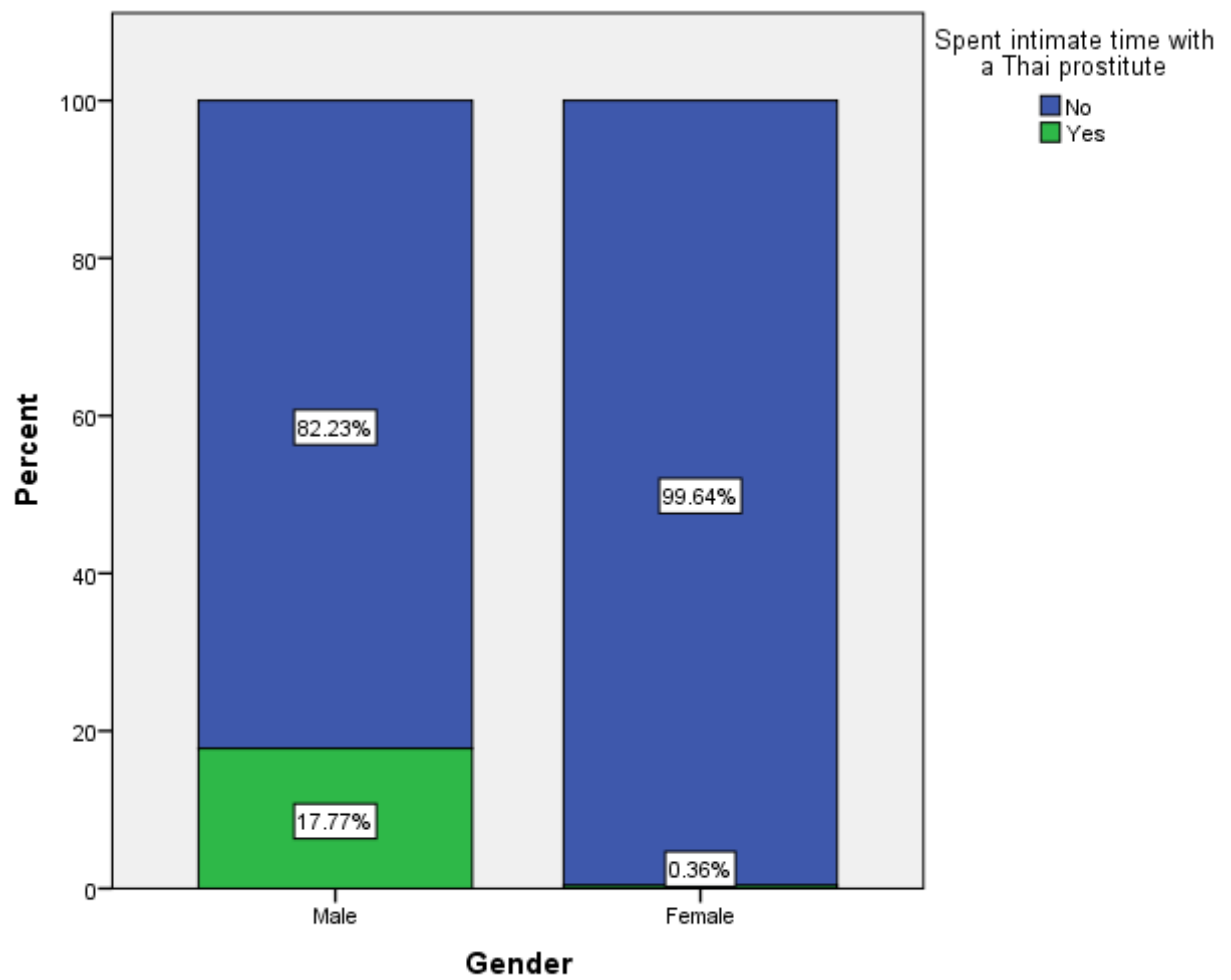
Table 7.7: Sex-Trade Involvement Gender Cross-Tabulation

Sex-Trade involvement (multiple response)		Gender		χ^2 Value
		Male (n=287)	Female (n=276)	
Went to 'go-go bars' or strip clubs	Number	80	24	χ^2 34.36, df=1, Yates continuity correction 33.1, p<0.01
	% within gender	27.87	8.70	
Watched a sex /ping pong show	Number	47	35	χ^2 1.54, df=1, Yates continuity correction 1.26, p>0.05
	% within gender	16.37	12.68	
Spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute	Number	51	1	χ^2 50.86, df=1, Yates continuity correction 48.8, p<0.01
	% within gender	17.77	0.36	
Was in a romantic relationship with a native Thai	Number	178	49	χ^2 117.45, df=1, Yates continuity correction 115.59, p<0.01
	% within gender	62.02	17.75	
Total	Number	356	109	

(Valid responses=465)

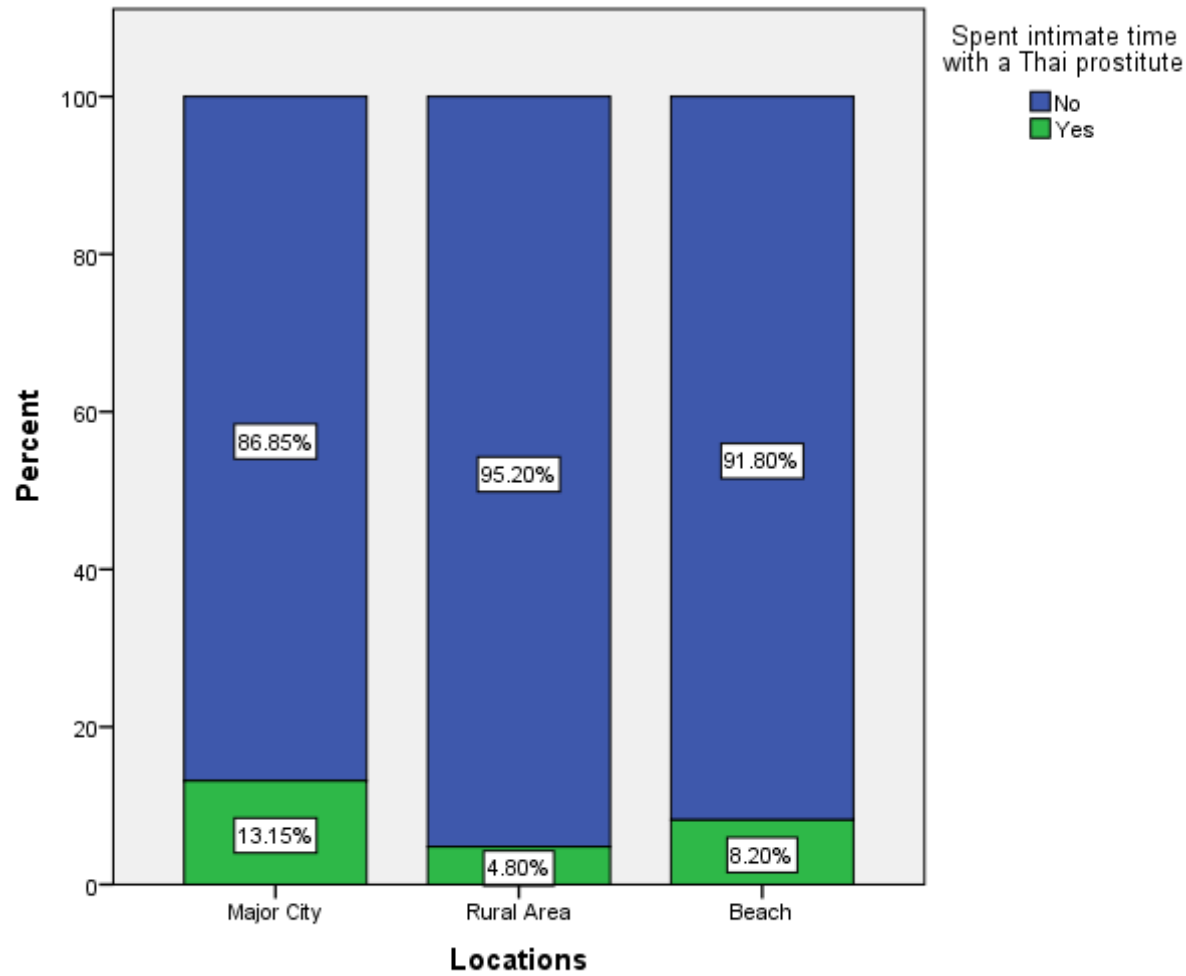
For many, notions of sex tourism centre around connotations of commodification and prostitution (Graburn, 1983). Nine point three percent of respondents in research phase two stated that they had spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute. This accounted for 17.8% of males and 0.4% of females (χ^2 50.86, df=1, p<0.01, Yates continuity correction 48.80) (figure 7.11). These respondents were most likely to be located in a major city (67.3%) and most were single (78.8%) (see figures 7.12 and 7.13). The majority of these respondents were aged over 30 (66%). Although there was a general positive correlation (χ^2 33.7, df=6, p<0.01), there was an exception for those aged 22-25 who made up the second most common age group likely to spend intimate time with a prostitute (see figure 7.17).

Figure 7.11: Thai Prostitute Gender Correlation



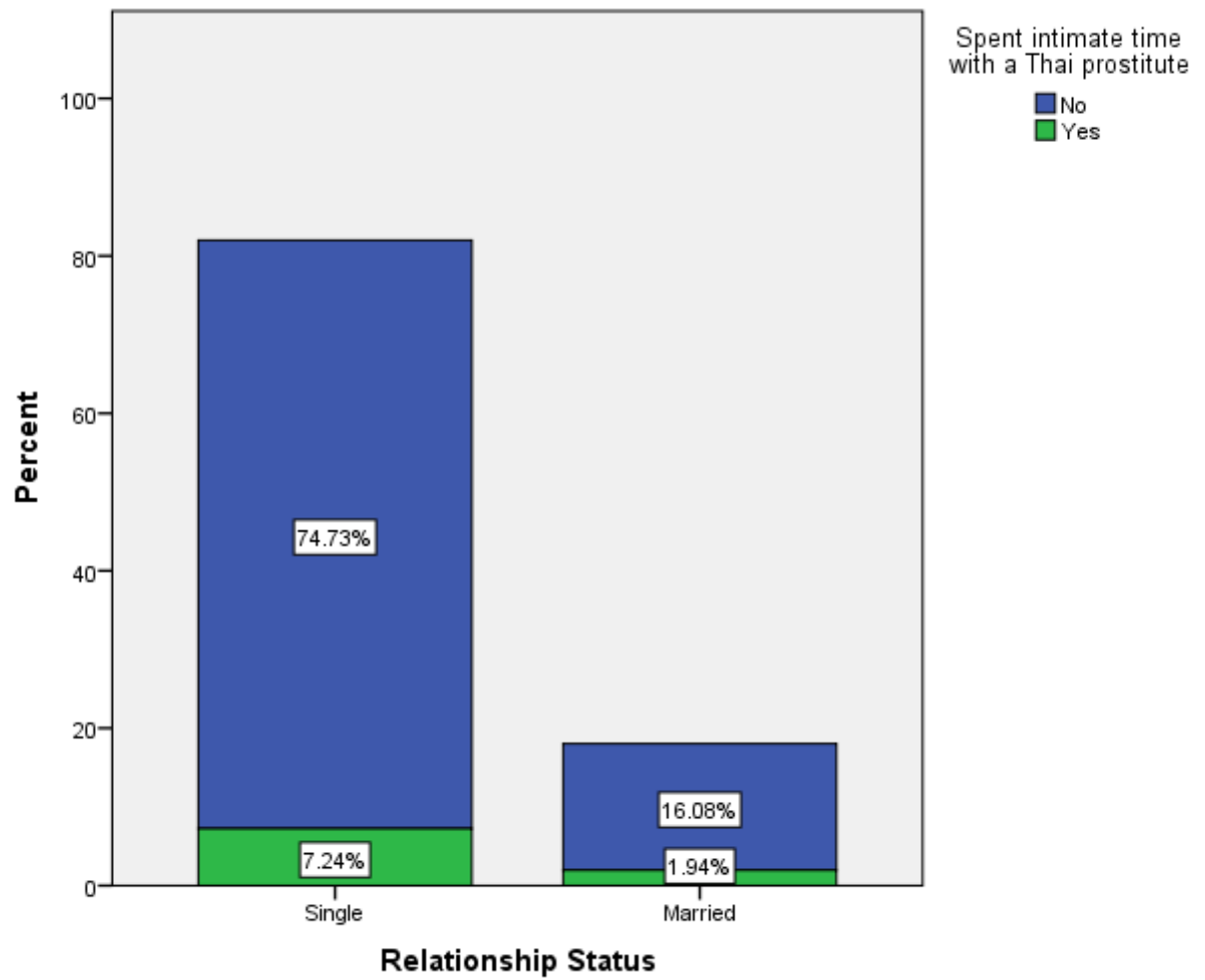
(Valid responses=567)

Figure 7.12: Thai Prostitute Location Correlation



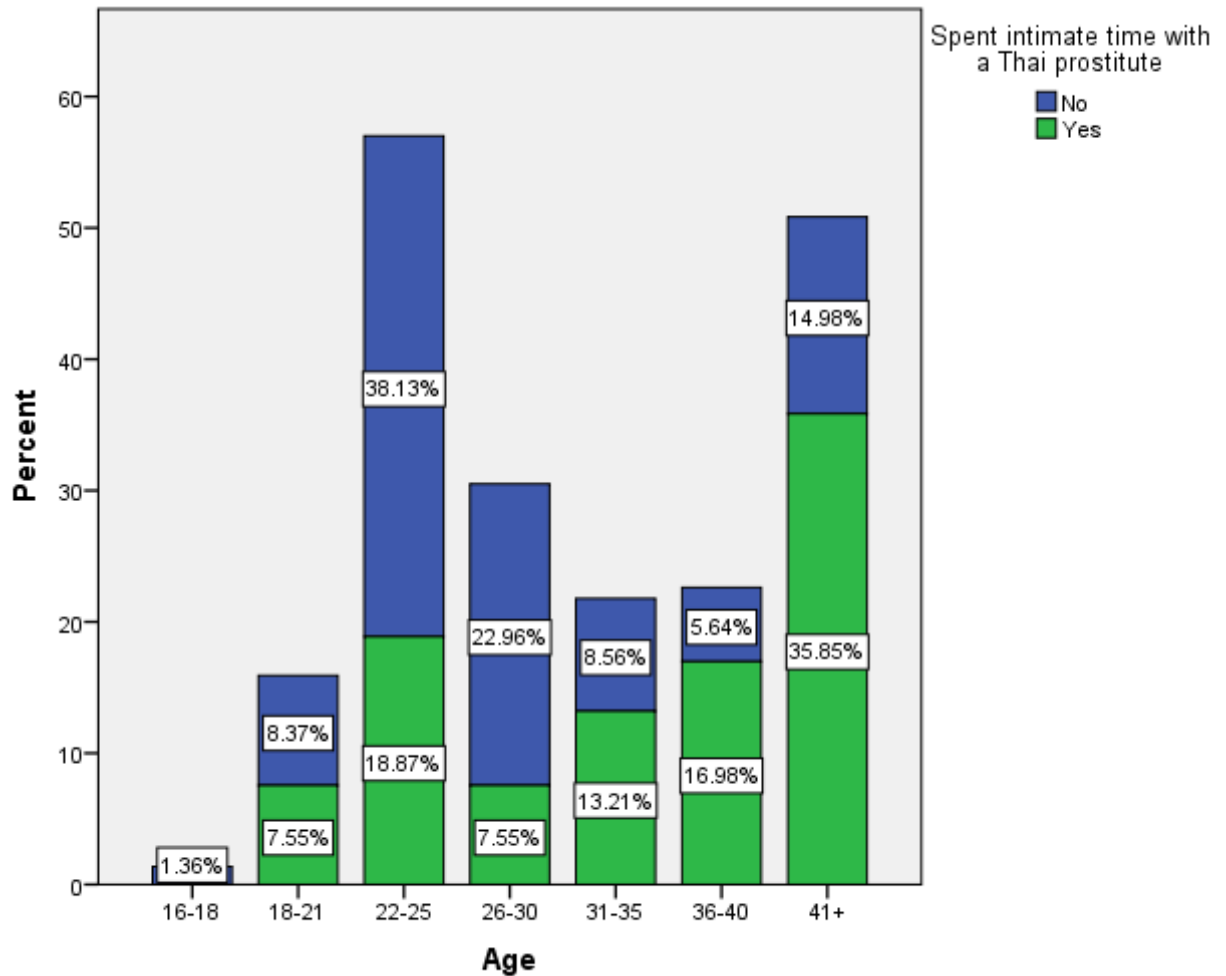
(Valid responses=567)

Figure 7.13: Thai Prostitute Relationship Status Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

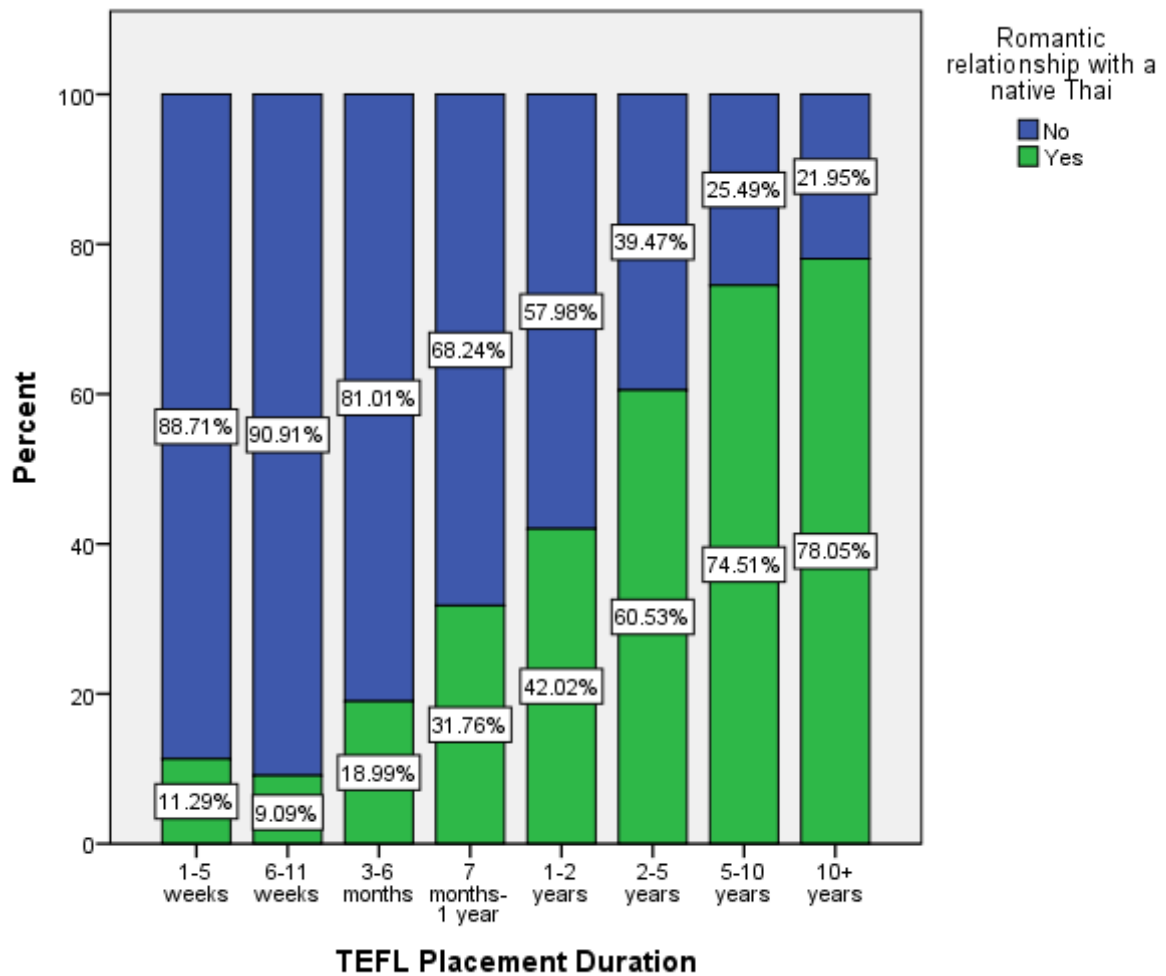
Figure 7.14: Thai Prostitute Age Cross Tabulation



(Valid responses=567)

With the exception of those who undertook short term placements (1-5 weeks), figure 7.15 indicates a positive correlation (χ^2 110, df=7, $p<0.01$) between the duration of teaching and being in a romantic relationship with a native Thai. This data does not however tell us whether the teacher is more likely to forge a relationship as a result of a long-term placement or whether the placement length is extended as a result of a relationship.

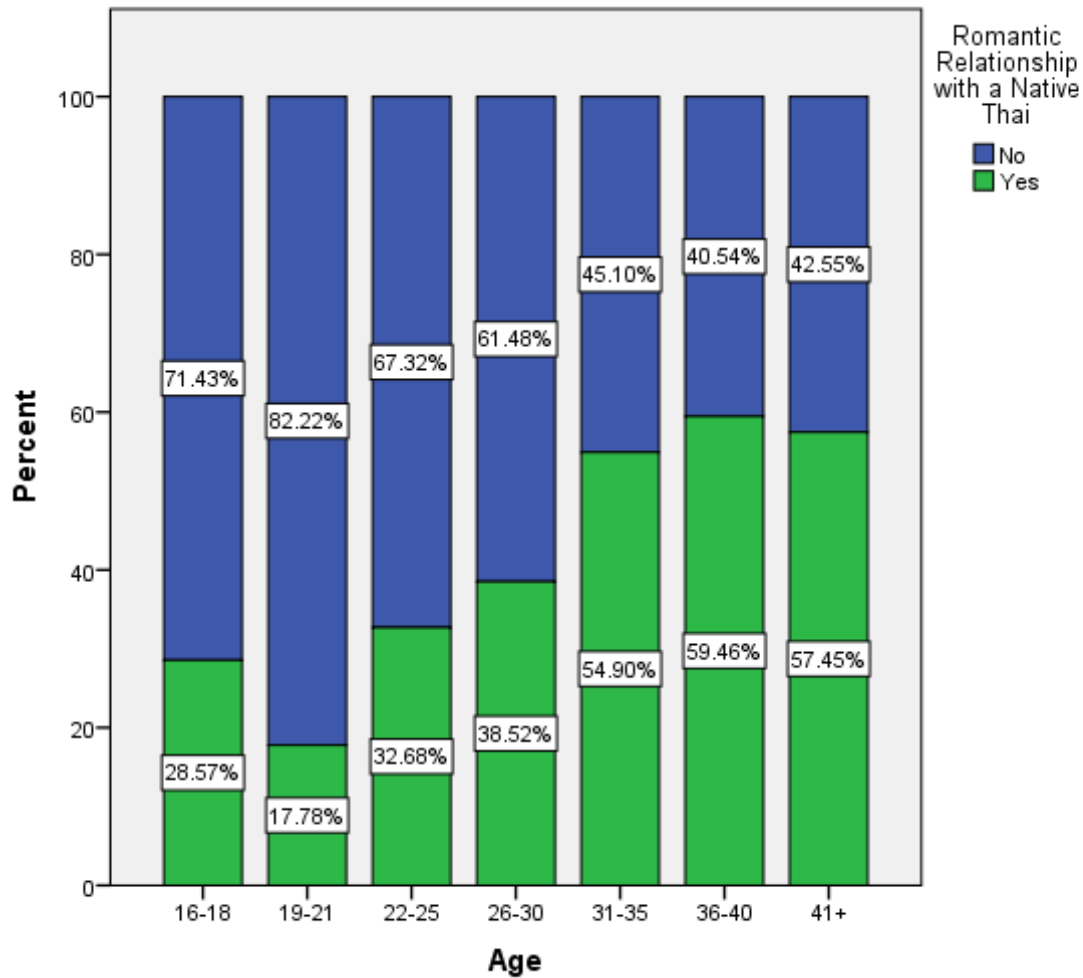
Figure 7.15: Romantic Relationship TEFL Duration Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

Finally, there was a significant relationship between romantic relationships with native Thai and age ($\chi^2 36.52$, $df=6$, $p<0.01$) (figure 7.19), where the number of respondents in romantic relationships with a native Thai increases with age, with the exception of placements of 1-5 weeks in duration. However, in view of the fact that only seven respondents were in this age group, the figure only represents two respondents. Overall however this supports previous claims (page 107) and the literature (Howard, 2009) that older, males with Thai partners is common in Thailand.

Figure 7.16: Romantic Relationship Age Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

In support of Ryan's (2000) claims, the most prevalent sex tourism activities undertaken by respondents were facilitated by 'mail bride' type relationships, where foreign men were in long-term relationships or marriages with Thai women (Cohen, 1982; Sarker *et al*, 2013). Findings of this research demonstrate that the sex tourism industry manifests itself amongst TEFL teachers also in areas of prostitution, sex shows and strip clubs. Whilst there are clearly ethical concerns in relation to the associated practices, these are currently under-researched and beyond the scope of this thesis.

7.8 Conclusion

In summary, this chapter demonstrates that there is a strong theme of leisure and tourism amongst TEFL bloggers and respondents; however this appears to take precedence during weekends and school holidays. It can thus be argued that TEFL teachers cannot be classified as either tourists or teachers, but rather that their role shifts according to the day of the week, the people who they are with and their location. The theme of leisure is most prominent amongst younger teachers, where the importance of leisure time increases with the duration of the TEFL placement.

Findings indicate that it is common for respondents to regularly travel away from their placement location to undertake leisure pursuits. During their free time, respondents undertook a wide range of activities that replicated both the traditional tourism elements associated with Thailand, such as those involving sea, sun and sand, together with more unusual activities, congruent with the introduction of alternative forms of tourism, such as sustainable, eco and responsible tourism. The most frequent activities were those involving sea, sand, sun and nature, animals and alcohol and drugs. Whilst most activities undertaken represented hedonistic intentions, there was also evidence of travel philanthropy, where respondents took part in activities such as visiting an orphanage. The concept of philanthropy within the TEFL experience is further addressed in chapter nine.

The most prominent themes identified were those of cultural, nightlife and sex tourism. Culture is a recurring theme throughout this thesis and this chapter demonstrates that this extends beyond classroom-based experiences. Cultural tourism was evident in two distinct spheres; firstly activities involving the consumption of cultural products such as temples or museums and secondly the inevitable cultural integration facilitated through community engagement. Whilst there may be a strong theme of culture during some elements of their TEFL placement, for many respondents this was abandoned in exchange for pleasure-based nightlife pursuits which frequently involved the consumption of alcohol and drugs. The theme of sex tourism was evidenced not only through nightlife-based activities, such as visiting go-go bars or watching sex shows, but

also through the use of prostitution and 'mail bride' type relationships. Whilst this chapter has addressed the first research objective by analysing the tourist-based elements of the TEFL experience, the following chapter proceeds to analyse the classroom-based elements.

8.1 Introduction

Continuing to address the first research objective, this chapter discusses findings in relation to blogger and respondent experiences inside the TEFL classroom in Thailand. Whilst the literature on pedagogical practice is abundant, this does not tell the prospective TEFL teacher or other associated stakeholders, such as teacher training university recruitment teams or future employers, what the TEFL teacher's everyday employment might entail. Agencies offering TEFL packages (see table 3.1) offer few specific details of the day-to-day TEFL experience, instead they are vague and inconclusive. This thesis subscribes to the philosophical assumption of the concept of ethnocentrism, where all concepts are formed through subjective interpretations based on prior knowledge and experiences (Neuman, 2013), facilitating top-down processing, where stored knowledge makes inferences about what is perceived (Gregory, 1970). Based on the expectation that many stakeholders will perceive the TEFL experience in Thailand based on associations with their own experiences in their home countries, this chapter outlines the similarities and differences between teaching expectations in the UK, Ireland, USA, Australia and South Africa and the classroom experiences of the bloggers and respondents examined in this research.

8.2 Classroom Activities

It is widely recognised in Western countries that teaching quality is the most important factor affecting learning outcomes (Ingvarson and Kleinhenz, 2007), yet despite Thailand's educational programmes increasingly beginning to replicate the West through associated doctrines, ideologies and practices (Wilkinson, 2016), there is little indication that teaching quality in Thailand is approached with the same degree of importance. In terms of the ethnocentrism previously discussed, it could be argued that TEFL teachers whose perceptions are based on Western practices are well placed to aid in the implementation of similar approaches within the Thai education system. However, as suggested by Liddicoat (2003), this 'copied' approach fails to take

interculturality into account. When asked in an open-ended question about their frustrations during research phase two, one respondent stated;

'It's not my country. I don't have the right to impose my frame of reference for standards and expectations that inform Western modes for producing knowledge... Only self-important pompous asses walk into a class thinking they are the masters of learning. They are the masters of squat. Most TEFL/TESOL instructors are tourists, physically and behaviorally. They embarrass those who are really trying to teach something while understanding what most Westerners consider the "natural" order of things are merely conditioned thought processes...Presupposing Western values reflected in classroom standards of student behavior, student performance, and instructor expectations is the height of arrogance. Perhaps the biggest frustration I dealt with are arrogant, self-possessed Westerners from the States and Britain who most likely couldn't get a job anywhere else, but are able to get a job just because they are white and "papered," and decide they're going to "fix" those people...Frustration only illustrates the limits of one's own arrogance.'[sic]

Whilst, as suggested by one respondent, there may be ethical implications in imposing Western values in TEFL teaching, Gregory (1970) would argue that this is a natural result of top-down processing and cross-cultural integration. Examination of the concept of imperialism in relation to the TEFL industry is beyond the scope of this thesis, but is another area worthy of further examination. Similar ethical implications are suggested as a result of the racially hierarchical employment in Thailand (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016; Persaud, 2014), where white-skinned teachers may be recruited based on physical appearance rather than the skills they have to offer. Blogger K explained that:

'Some teachers find that they can get away with doing anything they like, including simply playing games and watching movies, but in most cases those teachers are posted out in the sticks, are the only foreign teacher in the village and the schools are happy just to have a farang face to show off.'

Whilst blogger K appears to speak of playing games derogatorily, games were a substantial theme throughout both research phases with many positive comments made:

‘There is no greater feeling in teaching than seeing your class bouncing out of class with a beaming smile on their face because they are still buzzing from your incredible game that you have just played.’ (Blogger B)

Fifty-six percent of bloggers made reference to teaching practices adopted. Every one of these references discussed games. As a result of the strong emergence of this theme, respondents in research phase two were asked to state which classroom activities they utilised whilst working as TEFL teachers in Thailand.

Table 8.1: Classroom Activities

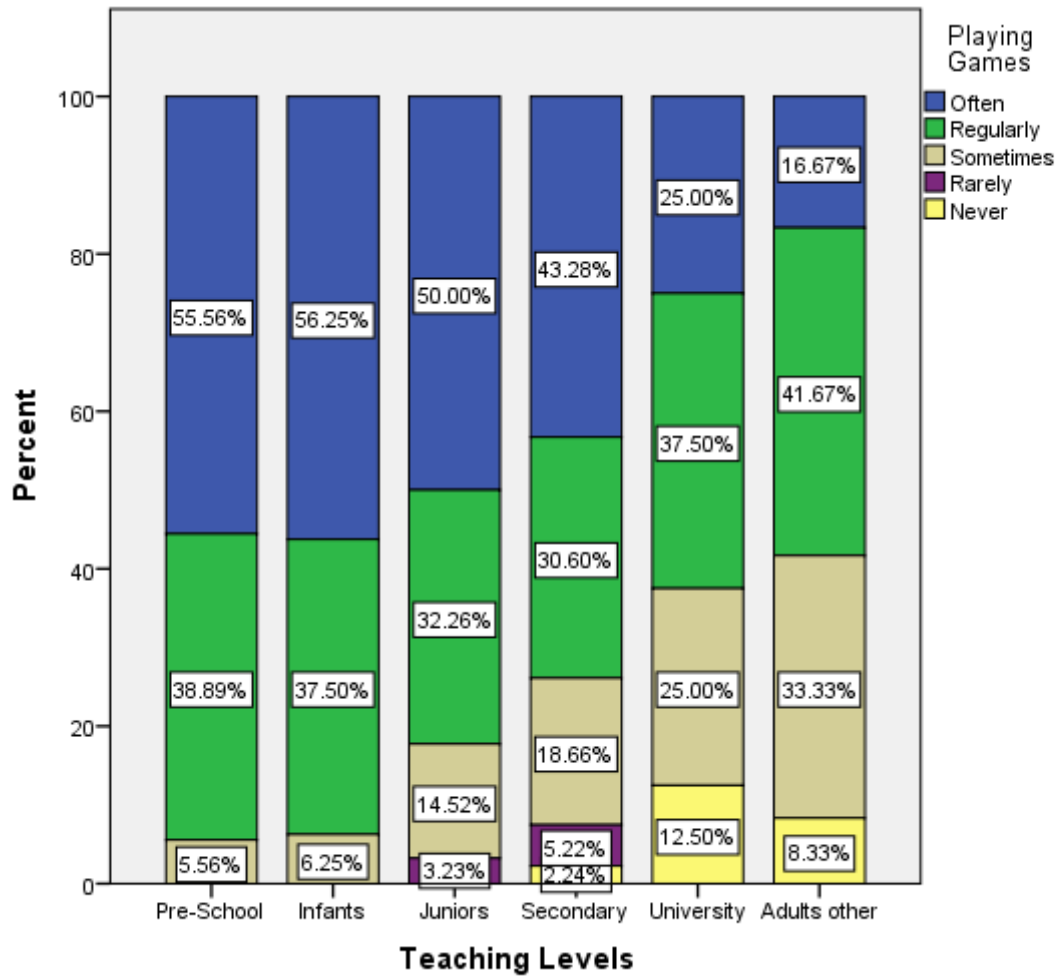
Method of Teaching (multiple response)	Number	Percent
Playing games	560	98.8
Worksheet/text-books	544	95.9
Writing tasks	542	95.6
Group work	531	93.7
Competitions	519	91.5
Acting/drama	514	90.7
Flashcards	514	90.7
Singing songs	484	85.4
Story Telling	468	82.5
Arts and crafts	460	81.1
Making posters	448	79.0
Watching videos	410	72.3
Spelling tests	383	67.6
Religious/cultural education from home country	318	56.1
PowerPoint presentations	303	53.4

(Valid responses=6998)

As indicated above, playing games was the most common activity undertaken by respondents in the classroom, with almost all respondents in research phase two (98.8%) utilising this teaching method. Respondents were most likely to play games with younger students (figure 8.1), demonstrating a negative correlation between the

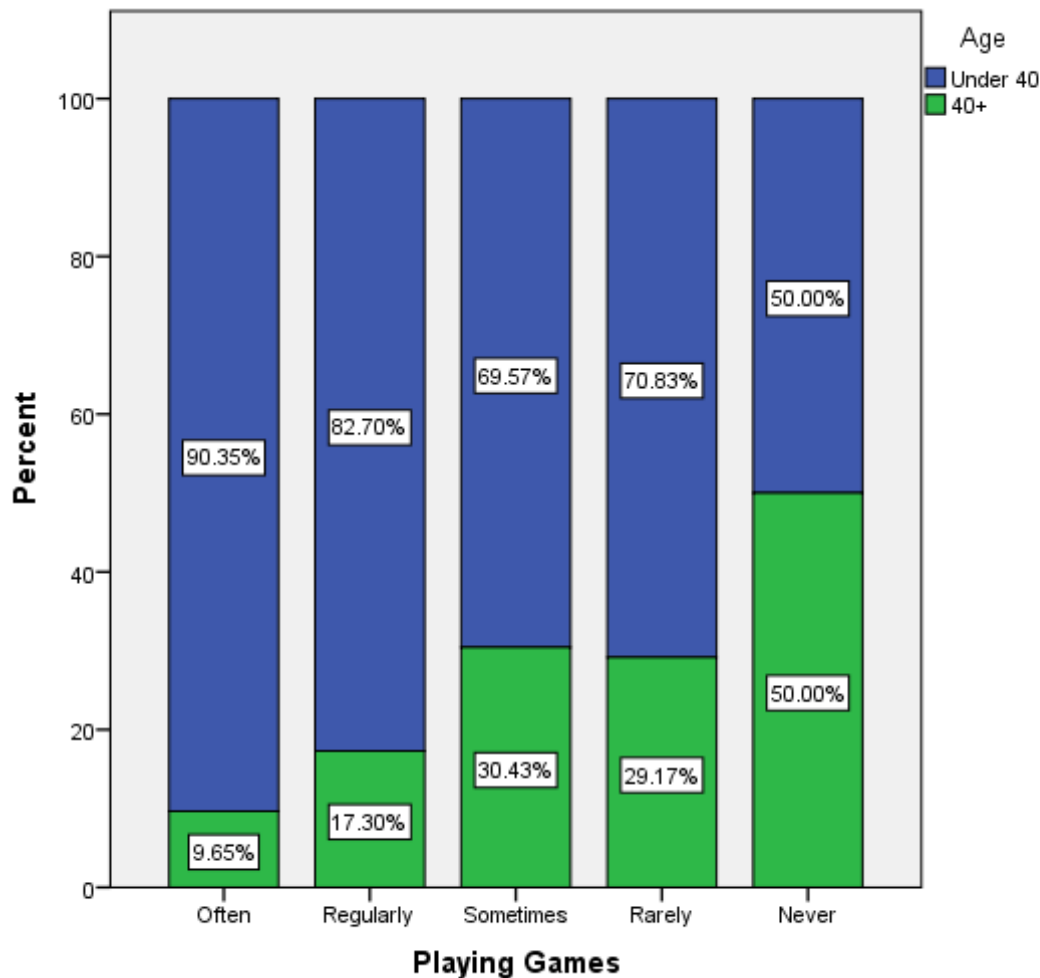
frequency of playing games and education level. It can also be seen that the frequency of playing games reduced with age, with the exception of respondents who identified that they never played games (figure 8.2). This indicates that younger TEFL teachers are more likely to play games with students than older teachers.

Figure 8.1: Teaching Level Games Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

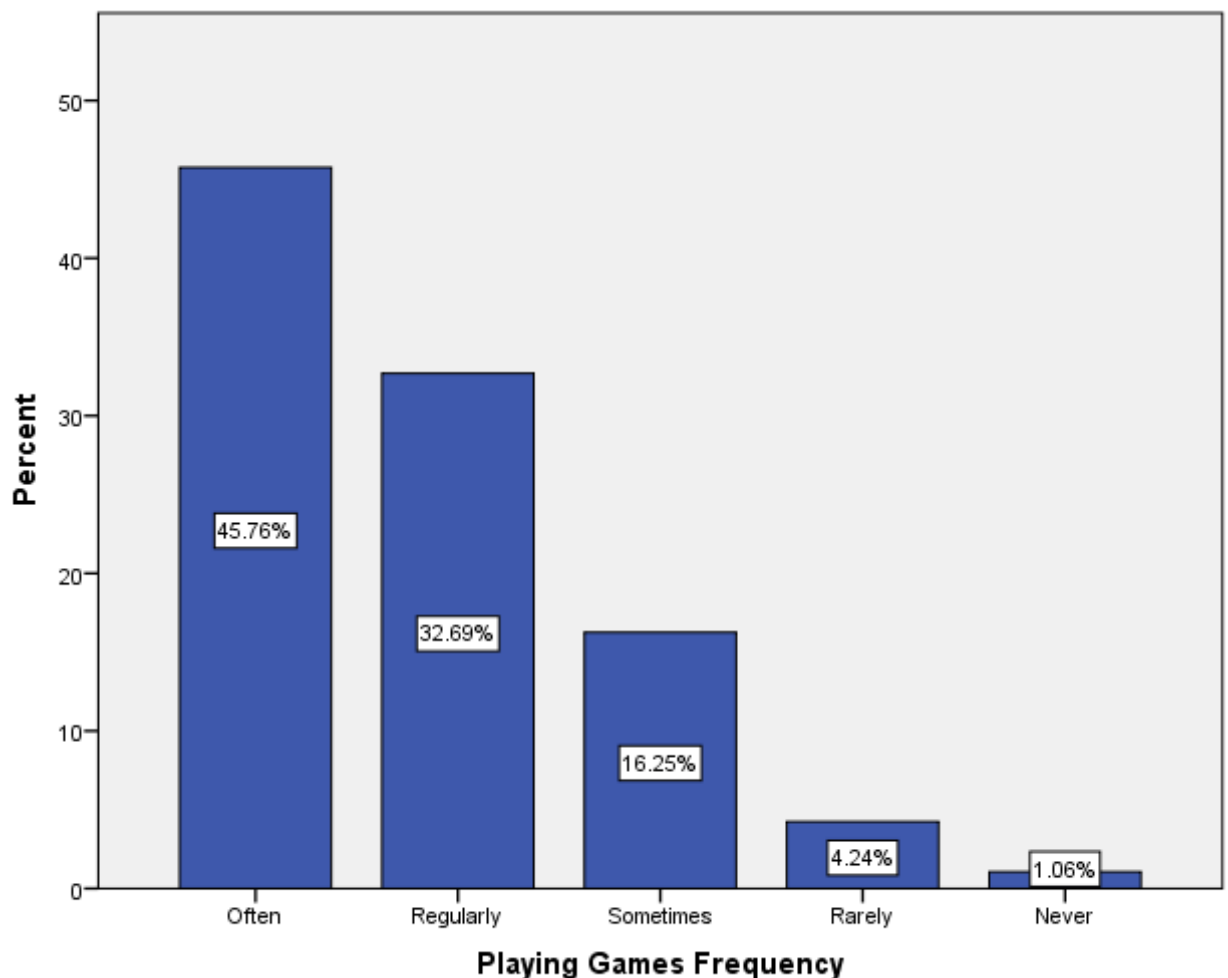
Figure 8.2: Playing Games Age Correlation



(Valid responses=566)

Whilst playing games may be aligned with the 'sanuk' element of Thai culture, where psychological philosophy is grounded in the concepts of fun and merriment (Komin, 1990), the overuse of such teaching practices may not yield the best educational results. As demonstrated in appendix five, the expectation is that lessons are planned effectively, incorporating a range of teaching strategies (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; USA Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011). Whilst determining the extent to which various teaching activities are incorporated by any one teacher into any one lesson is beyond the scope of this thesis, the frequency of games utilisation as a teaching practice indicates that over-use is a possibility (figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3: Frequency of Playing Games in Class



(Valid responses=567)

Whilst playing games can be argued to be the antithesis of existing teaching practice in Thailand, critiqued for its dry and unengaging teaching style (Foley, 2005), this does not necessarily mean that it is the solution to improving English proficiency. Blogger W, a qualified teacher from the USA stated:

'Christ, this aint teaching, it's just playing games! Any person can stand up in front of a bunch a 5 year olds and play what's the time mr wolf or duck duck goose, where are the skills in that? I genuinely feel for these kids as they're not being taught proper. At the same time though, I do also feel for the teachers, they genuinely think they're teachers but all they really are is glorified entertainers!'[sic]

Blogger W raises an important ethical issue, suggesting that TEFL teachers may believe that they are gaining the correct skills and experience they need for a teaching career in their home country, when in reality they are not. This premise lays the foundation for the comparison of teaching expectations in Thailand compared with Western nations discussed in this thesis.

8.3 Teaching Adaptations

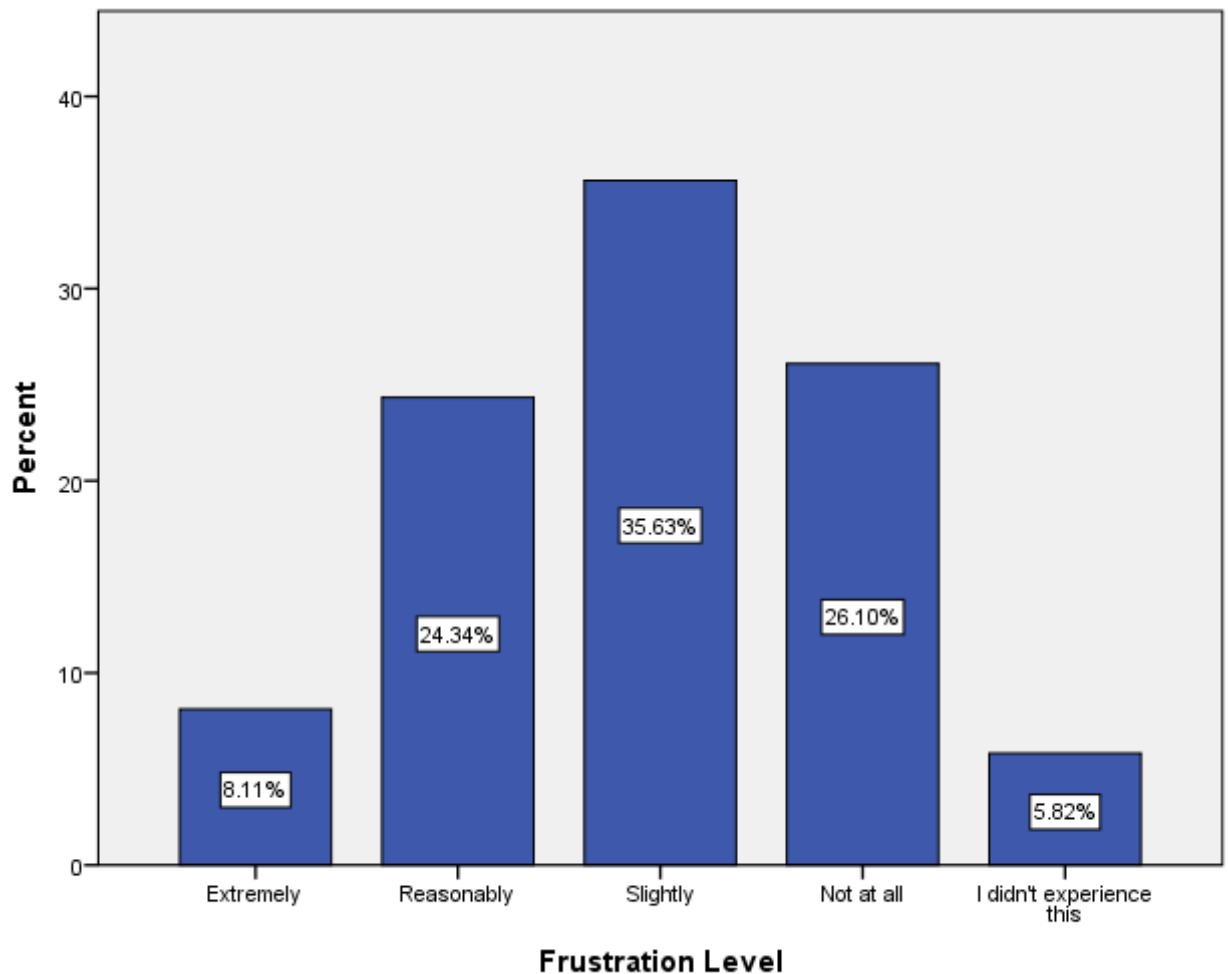
With reference to the concept of ethnocentrism, it can be argued that blogger W's perception of 'proper teaching' is reflective of culture in the USA rather than Thailand, thus failing to take into account interculturality (Liddicoat, 2003). As demonstrated throughout this research, culture is a central tenet of the TEFL experience. This is perhaps most prevalent in the classroom. Findings from this thesis support Deveney (2005) who found in her research that cultural differences were a major source of frustration to TEFL teachers.

In line with Western doctrines, Thailand has attempted to introduce CLT into their approaches to learning. Whilst there was evidence of bloggers and respondents incorporating this in their teaching practice through the use of games and other activities, Thai culture dictated that students were shy and reluctant to speak aloud, thus inhibiting respondents ability to teach as intended. Blogger C1 explained that:

'The hardest part about teaching English is getting the students to actually speak English. Thai students are just so darn shy. They have no problem talking to each other during class, but when you ask one of them a question in English, their eyes widen and they freeze up. I think it's a cultural thing.'

Wiriyaichitra (2001) suggests that this is a common problem in the Thai educational system, where learning is frequently hindered as a result of a reluctance on the part of the students both to speak English in class and to take responsibility for their own learning. The frequency of this problem is demonstrated in figure 8.4 and table 8.2, where it can be seen that 94.2% of respondents experienced overly shy students and 72.3% were frustrated by this. It is suggested that most TEFL teachers are unaware of Thai student shyness prior to their TEFL experience (Deveney, 2005).

Figure 8.4: Frustrations Experienced as a Result of Student Shyness



(Valid responses=567)

The UK Department for Education (2013) prescribe that in the UK, teachers should understand factors that may inhibit learning, such as inherent shyness, and know how to overcome this. The Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (2011), the USA Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (2011) and South African Council for Educators (2016) further prescribe that their teachers should be able to adapt their teaching practice in accordance with the culture of the students. Whilst it can be suggested that the Thai Government is attempting to incorporate this approach by requiring all foreign teachers to undertake an official Thai culture and language training course prior to commencing employment (Griffith, 2014), the levels of frustration identified during this research as a result of culture indicate that this training may be inadequate. Blogger T reflects on the cultural aspects of TEFL teaching;

'You simply have to accept that things are different, often in a negative or frustrating way from what you might experience teaching at home. 'Mai pen rai' takes over. The Thai culture is so relaxed that it hinders the education of students, for example Thai culture is inherently shy so students are reluctant to take part in speaking exercises (which is obviously important when learning a language!). Students, and teachers are frequently late, and they don't see an issue with last minute changes or not letting you know about an event or something. This is simply part of their culture, it's the way it is and as a teacher you just have to get on with it and accept it.'[sic]

As noted in the literature, the term 'mai pen rai', which roughly translates as 'no worries', is deeply ingrained in Thai society (Cai and Shannon, 2010). Whilst not all (75.8%) respondents felt frustrated by this attitude directly, it can be argued that this ethos is encompassed in many other frustrations (see table 8.2), where, for example, lack of communication or last minute timetable changes might be the result of a 'no worries' attitude. As such, it is evident that most respondents experienced frustration as a result of the nature of Thai culture at some point during their TEFL experience.

Table 8.2: Frustrations Experienced

Frustration (multiple response)	Number of Respondents Effected	Percent of Respondents Effected	Number of these who Felt Frustrated	Percent of these who Felt Frustrated
Lack of communication	538	94.9	508	94.4
The way that the education system was run	500	88.2	424	84.8
Poor management at the school	503	88.7	419	83.3
Last minute timetable changes/errors	493	87	410	83.2
Being asked to award unjustified grades	420	74.1	348	82.9
Students cheating	486	85.7	383	78.8
Large class sizes	494	87.1	382	77.3
Lack of facilities	494	87.1	380	76.9
Students being late for class	473	83.4	359	75.9
The 'mai pen rai' attitude	483	85.2	366	75.8
Students too shy to contribute in class	534	94.2	386	68.08
Students not turning up for lessons	452	79.7	302	66.8
Not being paid at all/on time	243	42.9	136	56

(Valid responses=6113)

Lack of communication appeared to be a particular issue, with 94.4% of respondents who experienced this experiencing a level of frustration. Blogger D1 explained this in practice;

'Yesterday was the first day of teaching in Kraburiwittaya School, Kra Buri, Ranong. The whole day was just plain, typical Thailand with nothing being on time, and no one really telling me exactly what I have to do. Just as an example, it was 8.20am when all the teachers had made it into the office and I still had no timetable, after a lot of re-drafting and photocopying I received my timetable at 8.35am which informed me that I had my first lesson at 8.30am, brilliant. You never fail to surprise me Thailand!'

A respondent from research phase two similarly emphasised his frustrations stating that:

'Generally [the main frustration] was really only the lack of communication. I can roll with whatever my bosses want, but only when they TELL me what they want. I'm perfectly happy to change anything/ add anything, but I need to KNOW that I need to. There would be times when I didn't know whether or not I was supposed to teach because there were dance practices, or I didn't know if I had off because it was a holiday but nobody had said anything. I didn't when know the last day of class was until it was the last day of class. I'm pretty easygoing, but I just wanted to be in the loop.'[sic]

Another respondent indicated during research phase two that;

'Thai society is a fuedal, "closed" society. As a foreigner, you are not "real" and communicating with you is completely "optional."'

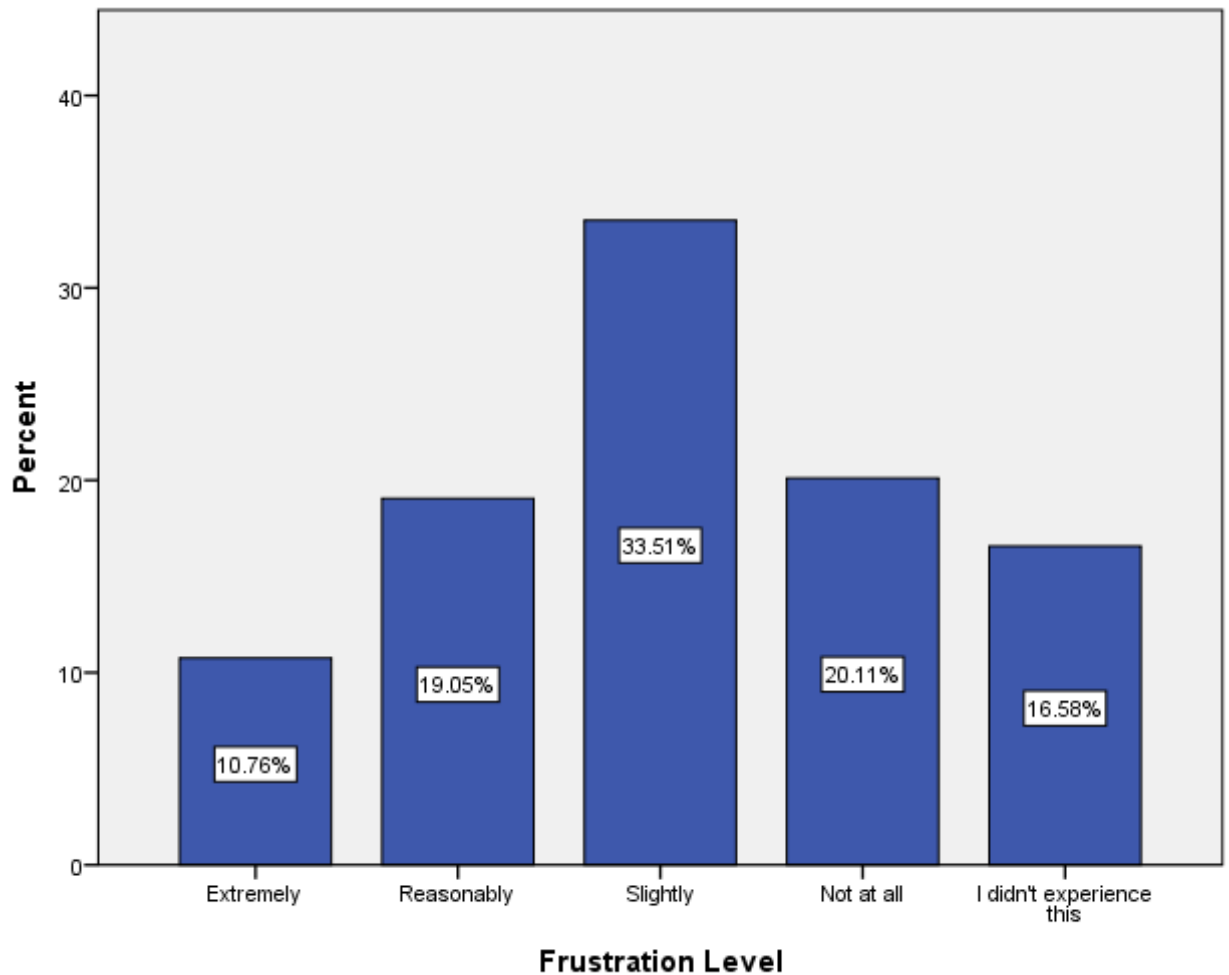
This lack of communication can in part be explained by the Thai ego orientation (Komin, 1990). Thai people generally believe that in order to create and maintain good relationships with others, face-to-face conflicts and confrontation must be avoided as this can cause either side to 'lose face' (Kitiyadisai, 2005). There was, for example, no evidence in the data of parent-teacher meetings, which is in contrast to the teaching expectations identified in appendix five, where all the nationalities from which respondents emanated required teachers to communicate effectively with parents (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; USA Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011; South African Council for Educators, 2016). It is suggested that the risk of confrontation with the teacher if the student was under-performing or behaving inappropriately was the reason for this (Kitiyadisai, 2005).

Findings also indicated levels of frustration as a result of student lateness and absenteeism (figure 8.5 and 8.6). This is explained by blogger I and blogger H respectively;

'My students have a habit of coming to my classes at the wrong time; they turn up an hour late, an hour early, a day or even a week late... How they hell am I supposed to teach a decent lesson when in reality I know no idea who will turn up and when?!'

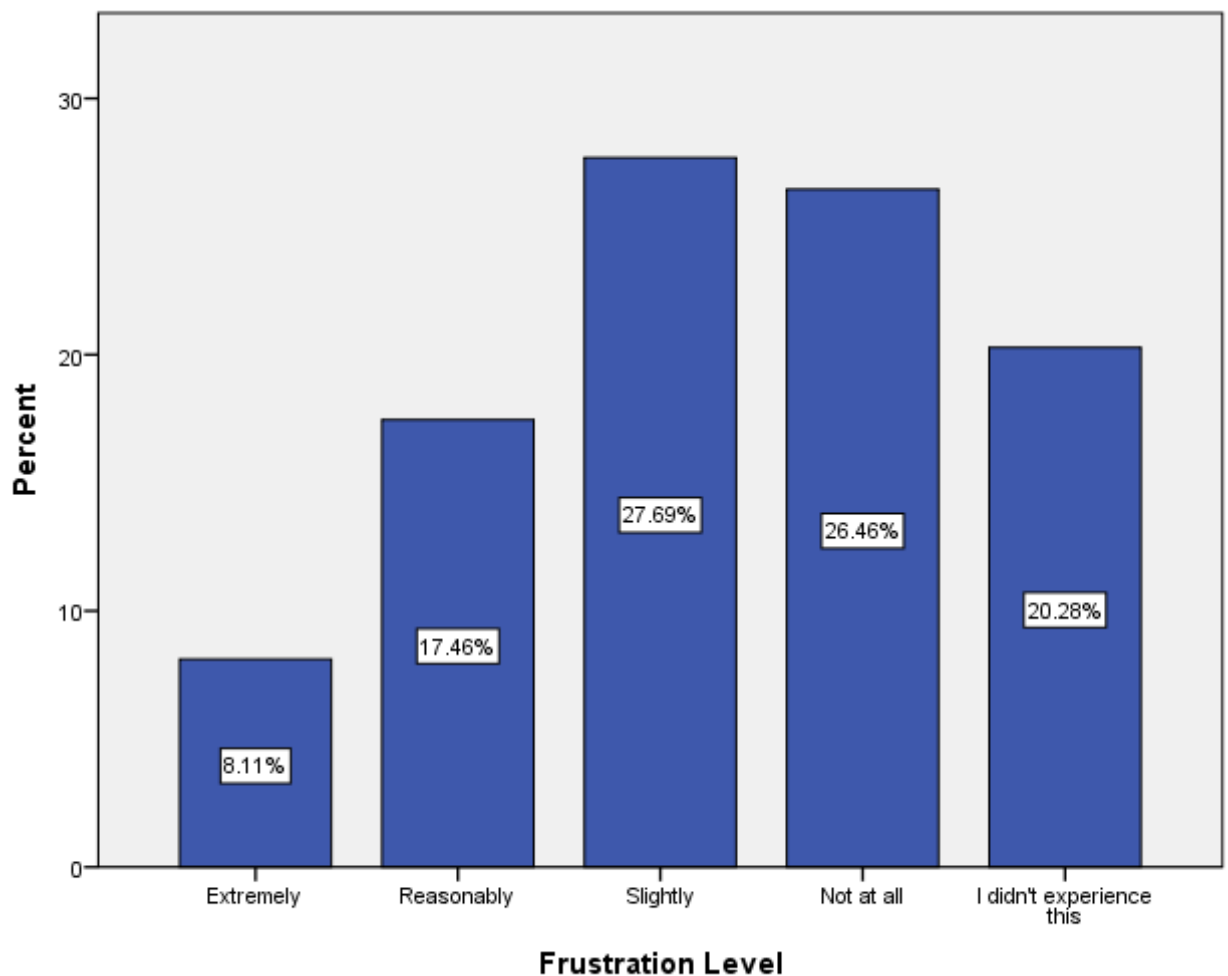
'In Thailand, Thai time prevails, one of my pet hates! I see 21 different classes once a week for 50 minutes. The classes are actually 30-45 minutes long because of "Thai time"... All of the students are late for class. It's just the way it works here.'

Figure 8.5: Student Lateness



(Valid responses=567)

Figure 8.6: Student Absenteeism

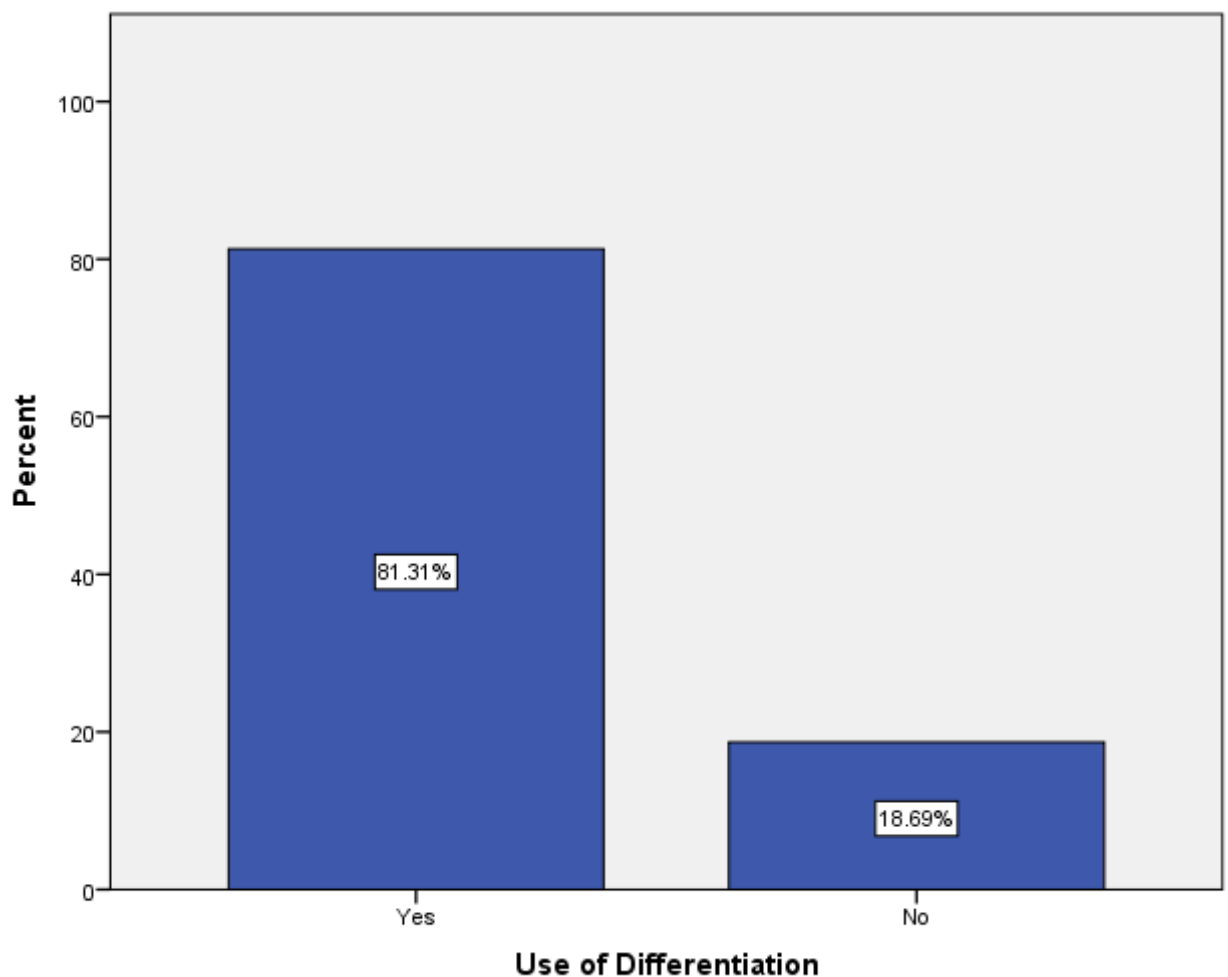


(Valid responses=567)

Whilst the problems of lateness and absenteeism may also be experienced in Western countries, it is unlikely that the 'mai pen rai' approach in Thailand would be replicated in other destinations or educational institutions with different cultural and teaching philosophies. This creates potential for the TEFL teacher to adopt practices that may not be suitable in other destinations. Lateness and absenteeism can be linked with the concept of differentiation where, as prescribed by many educational systems (e.g. Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; Interstate Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011), teachers should adapt their teaching according to the individual requirements of students, which includes those who have missed all or part of the formal classroom input.

Despite the need for differentiation when students are late or absent as a result of them missing the intended classroom input, Thai culture is collectivist in nature (Kiddle, 2014), thus implying that the individualisation needed to facilitate differentiated tasks is not prevalent in the Thai educational system. This is in part supported in figure 8.7, where 18.7% of respondents did not differentiate at any point during their teaching practice. Although the remaining 81.3% of respondents claimed to differentiate within their teaching practice, the data provided no evidence of frequency or effectiveness. It can be argued that due to a lack of pedagogic knowledge as a result of limited qualifications and experience, as discussed in chapter six, some respondents may not understand what it means to differentiate tasks in the classroom.

Figure 8.7: Use of Differentiation



(Valid responses=567)

It can be argued that differentiation is encompassed within many of the key teaching areas identified by the nations in appendix five. Teachers are expected to set goals that stretch and challenge students, acknowledge learners' prior knowledge and capabilities, plan lessons effectively, adapt teaching according to varying abilities, cultures and languages (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; Interstate Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011; South African Council for Educators, 2016). It can thus be argued that the lack of differentiation as part of the TEFL experience is not representative of teaching expectations in many Western countries. Blogger G reflects on her experiences:

'I don't feel I challenge the bright kids enough and I know I don't do enough to support the kids who struggle. It's just so hard with such mixed ability in one class and having 40 kids all wanting your attention, plus I haven't been trained how to please everybody. I feel that I am doing the kids an injustice, I feel like I'm not good enough as a teacher.'

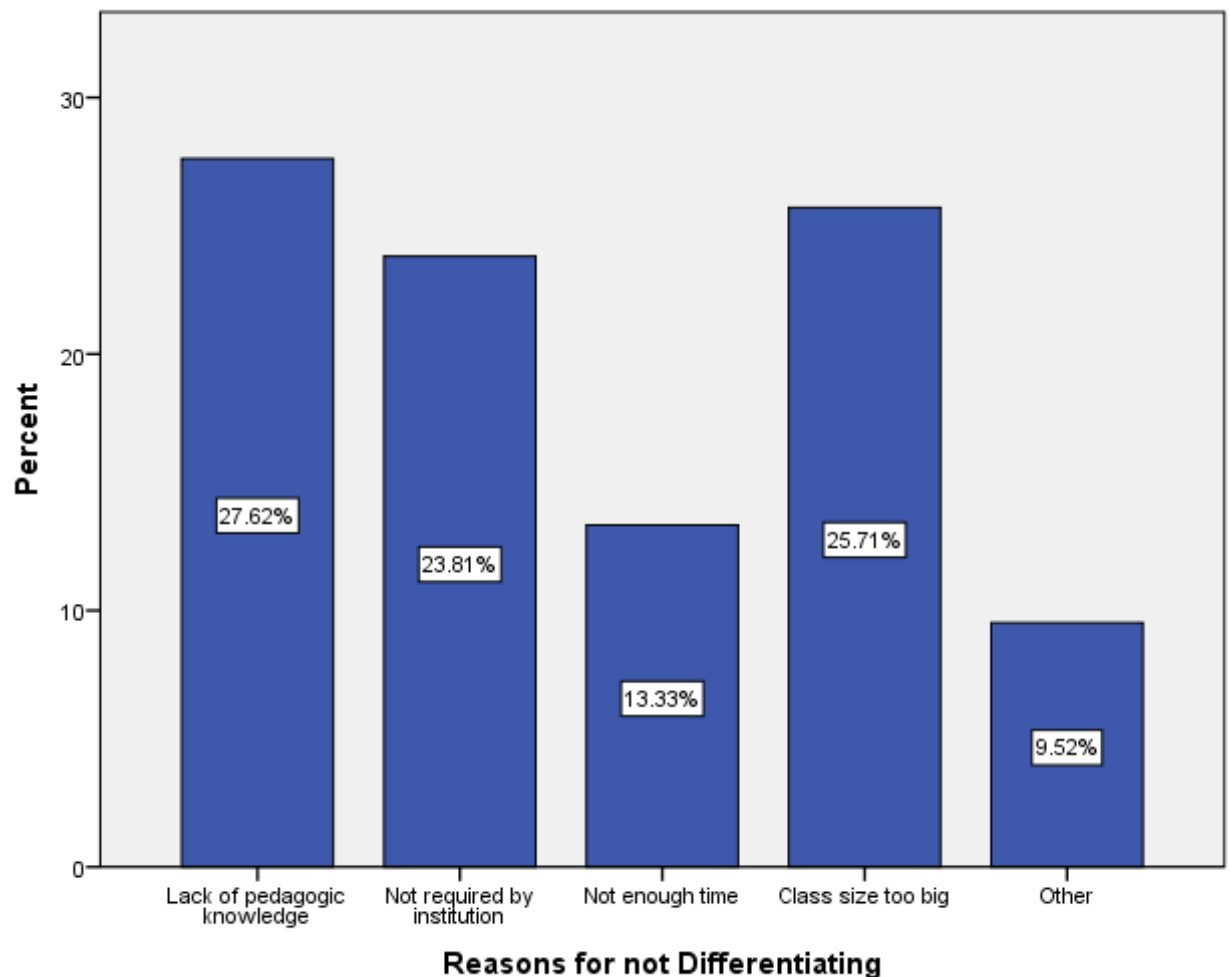
In contrast to claims by ONEC (2004) and Traiwicha (2016) who suggest that the Thai educational system has improved in terms of their ability to differentiate through the integration of disabled students into mainstream educational institutions, it is suggested that this has a negative impact on students by putting additional pressure on the teacher to organise his/her lessons in a way that they may not have been trained to do. One respondent stated:

'Learning disabled kids are lumped into the same class as other students, yet I'm supposed to grade them all the same. They were better off in a specialist school as I can't do everything.'[sic]

Whilst these comments demonstrate self-recognition that the blogger and respondent do not have the required skills to facilitate differentiation in the classroom, it is important to note that many TEFL teachers may not be aware of this concept, indicating a level of ignorance, perhaps as a result of a lack of pedagogic knowledge. This is demonstrated in figure 8.8, where it is suggested that 27.6% of respondents did not differentiate because they did not have the required skills. This figure derived from an

open-ended question where respondents either stated that they did not know how to differentiate, or provided an answer that indicated that they did not understand the concept, thus indicating that they did not possess the required skills.

Figure 8.8: Reasons for not Differentiating



(Valid responses=105)

Blogger G suggests that the problem is not down to lack of skills possessed by the teacher, but attributes it to the way that the Thai educational system is designed:

'There is another potential problem with the Thai system, it's very much set in stone- The system is too generic and doesn't meet the diverse needs of the students. Teaching methods, student responses etc. – there isn't any room for creativity or thinking for yourself... There is no initiative or room for individual thought and I find that very sad. The beauty of having young minds is that there are so many options for thought. They're

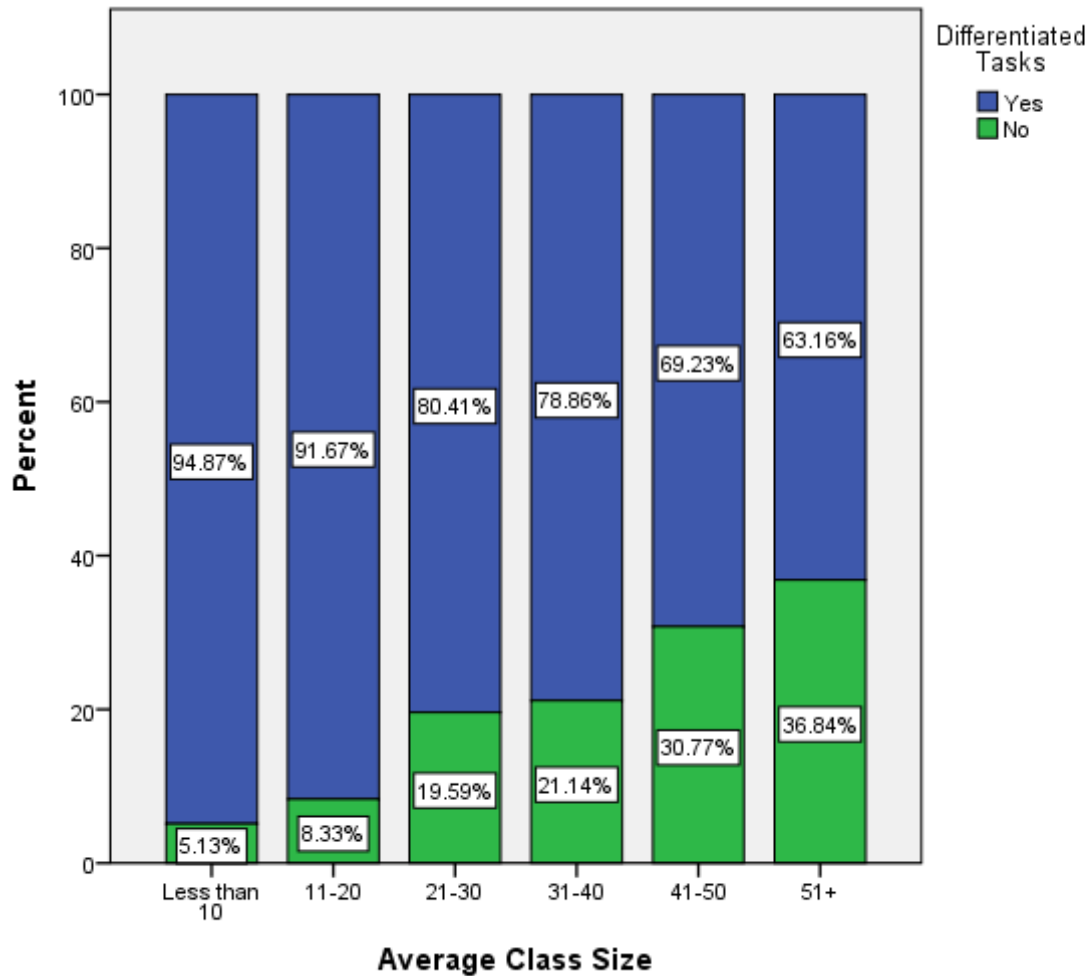
impressionable, they can take ideas and they can help them grow. When you take that away or don't allow for it to flourish then to my mind you take away the joy of education. And let's face it – education is a joy and a privilege. We should want it to be the best that it can be – people die for education, people go through unspeakable things for an education and we need to give something back for that.'

The notion that a generic system limits opportunities for differentiation was demonstrated by 23.8% of respondents (figure 8.8), who stated that it was either not required, or in some instances not allowed, by the educational institution in which they worked. One respondent explained that:

'The native teacher told me that "some students will fail because they are not smart enough", and we were not to give extra help. We must stick to the text-book.'

Whilst it appears that Thai culture is not conducive to a differentiated classroom, the data also indicated that large class sizes prevented teachers from being able to differentiate, with a negative correlation between the number of respondents who differentiated and class size (χ^2 22.89, df=5, $p<0.01$) (figure 8.9).

Figure 8.9: Class Size Differentiation Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

It is recognised that smaller class sizes facilitate better teaching (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016; Mishel *et al*, 2002; Valiente, 2008), and it is thus no surprise that differentiation became a greater challenge for respondents as student numbers increased. This challenge was emphasised by two respondents who, when asked why they did not differentiate, explained;

'[There are] Too many students in the class, to cater for I am not an octopus and I don't have eyes in the back of my head, seriously...'

'When you average out the amount of teacher time, per student, I would have roughly 1 minute with each student per week. It simply wasn't enough to customize anything for

the slower kids, and if a kid was good at something, that was great as it meant I could then spend more time helping a student who wasn't good at it.'

Blogger M also explained that;

'As you might imagine – and I experienced firsthand – the classroom environment is a little frustrating. Large class sizes inevitably limit the amount of student interaction and the rote learning is, in my opinion, not the best way to engage students in learning a foreign language.'

Despite the matter of class size discussed here, section 6.3.7 identified that on average, class sizes in Thailand are were not dissimilar to those in the UK and other OECD countries (OECD, 2015). As such, it can be concluded that whilst TEFL teachers who are subjected to large class sizes may not have the opportunities to develop their differentiation skills as opposed to their counterparts who have smaller classes, this is not expected to be a significant issue across the board. Instead opportunities may be limited as a result of the typically passive, group orientated learning culture in Thailand, teachers having limited time and a lack of pedagogic understanding.

8.4 Planning and Curriculum

In contrast to the lack of encouraged creativity suggested by blogger G (page 211), findings indicated that for many bloggers and respondents this was a prerequisite of the role of TEFL teacher as there was no curriculum provided. Research phase two indicated that 43.3% of respondents were required to design their own curriculum. Blogger R commented that this was not an anticipated part of his TEFL experience;

'The next shock was that there was no course syllabus for me to follow. The teachers had been using a textbook (what sort of a curriculum is that!?), but when I tried to use it I found that it was far too basic for a conversation class... I decided to leave the textbook to the Thai teachers, and they seemed pleased with this suggestion. I would need to create my own syllabus, but this was going to be a challenge.'

The lack of curriculum provision demonstrates that there are no consistent standards for TEFL teachers to work towards in Thailand, which is in contrast to other countries

where teachers are required to work with set frameworks, such as OFSTED in the UK. Although Pells (2015) maintains that this bureaucracy is one cause of high stress levels and low retention rates amongst teachers, thus indicating that having an educational system with less bureaucracy and regulation may benefit TEFL teachers in Thailand, it can be argued that this is not reflective of, nor preparatory for, a career in teaching in countries that utilise such systems.

It would be expected that respondents who were required to design their own curriculum would spend a greater amount of time planning lessons than those for whom curricula were provided. There was however no evidence of this.

Blogger W indicated that her ability to plan lessons was impacted by the lack of organisation in the school;

‘That’s another difference between Thai and American education. Teacher’s only plan a week ahead instead of planning a whole semester. Things change so often that it wouldn’t be productive for a teacher to spend all of his/her time planning a semester because it probably wouldn’t happen!’

Although it was not possible to obtain specific data to identify the average number of hours spent lesson planning in the five countries examined in table 4.2 in order to facilitate direct comparison, claims that teachers in these nations work long hours outside of their formal contact hours in the classroom (Comins, 2016; General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland, 2007; News Limited, 2015), suggest that the average time dedicated to lesson preparation is likely to be less in Thailand than in many Western countries. This highlights another difference between TEFL teaching in Thailand and teaching in the five destinations from which bloggers and respondents emanated.

8.5 Assessment

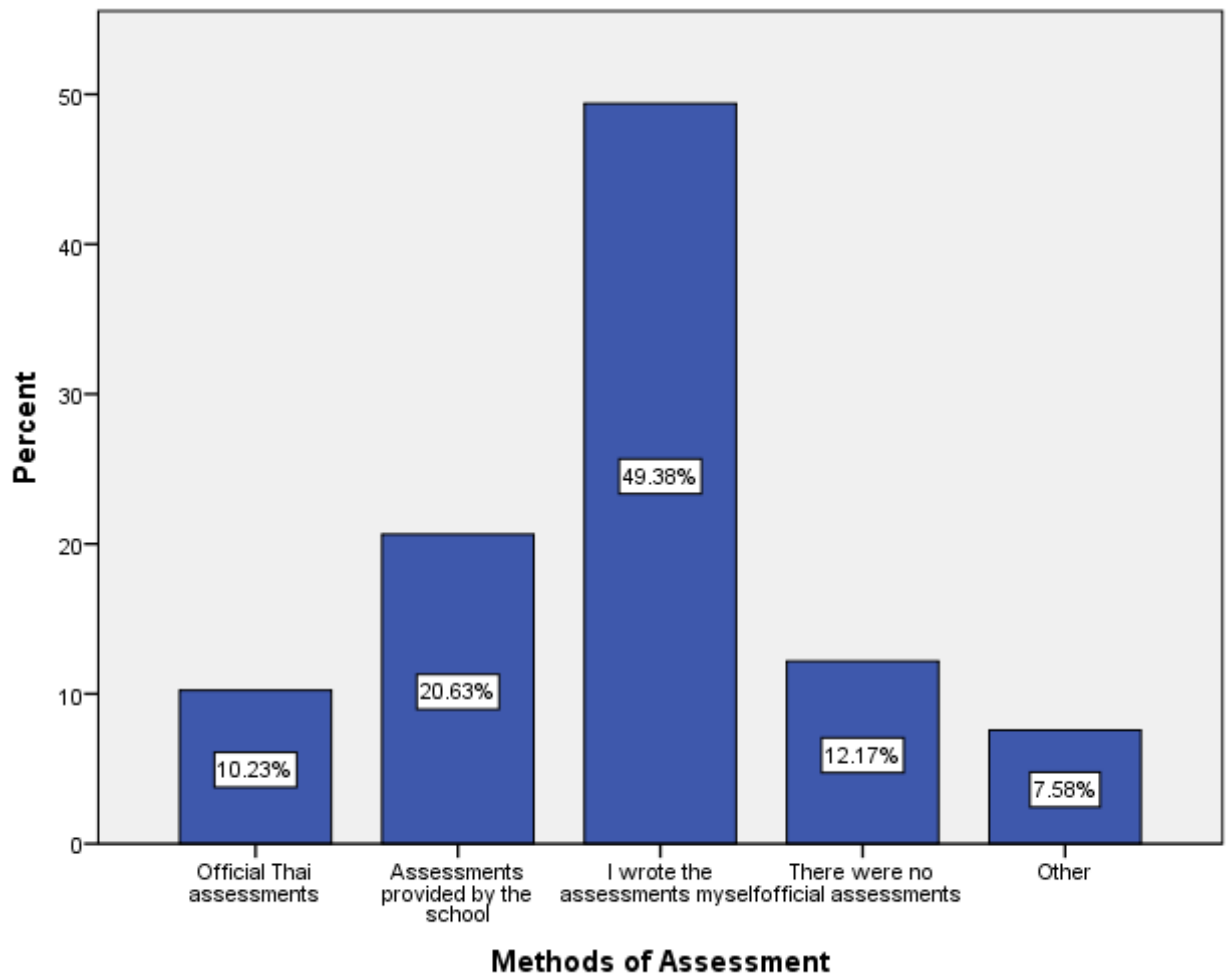
Not only did many bloggers and respondents indicate that they had to design their own curricula, there also appeared to be inconsistencies across methods of examination (figure 8.10).

Blogger I and W, together with 49.4% of respondents in research phase two wrote their own assessments;

'On top of everything else I had to do I had to design my own mid term exams – one for each of 5 subjects I taught. The material they wanted me to use was too difficult for students, the managers who wrote it are just so far removed from what actually happens in the classroom and the students abilities. I tried to prove my point to my manager, but he didn't want to hear about it. I felt sorry for my pupils.' [sic] (Blogger I)

'I've just spent my entire weekend making up exams. Note the term MAKING UP. Who the hell am I to write my own assessments? This is really quite a joke, the educational system here is a complete mockery.' (Blogger W)

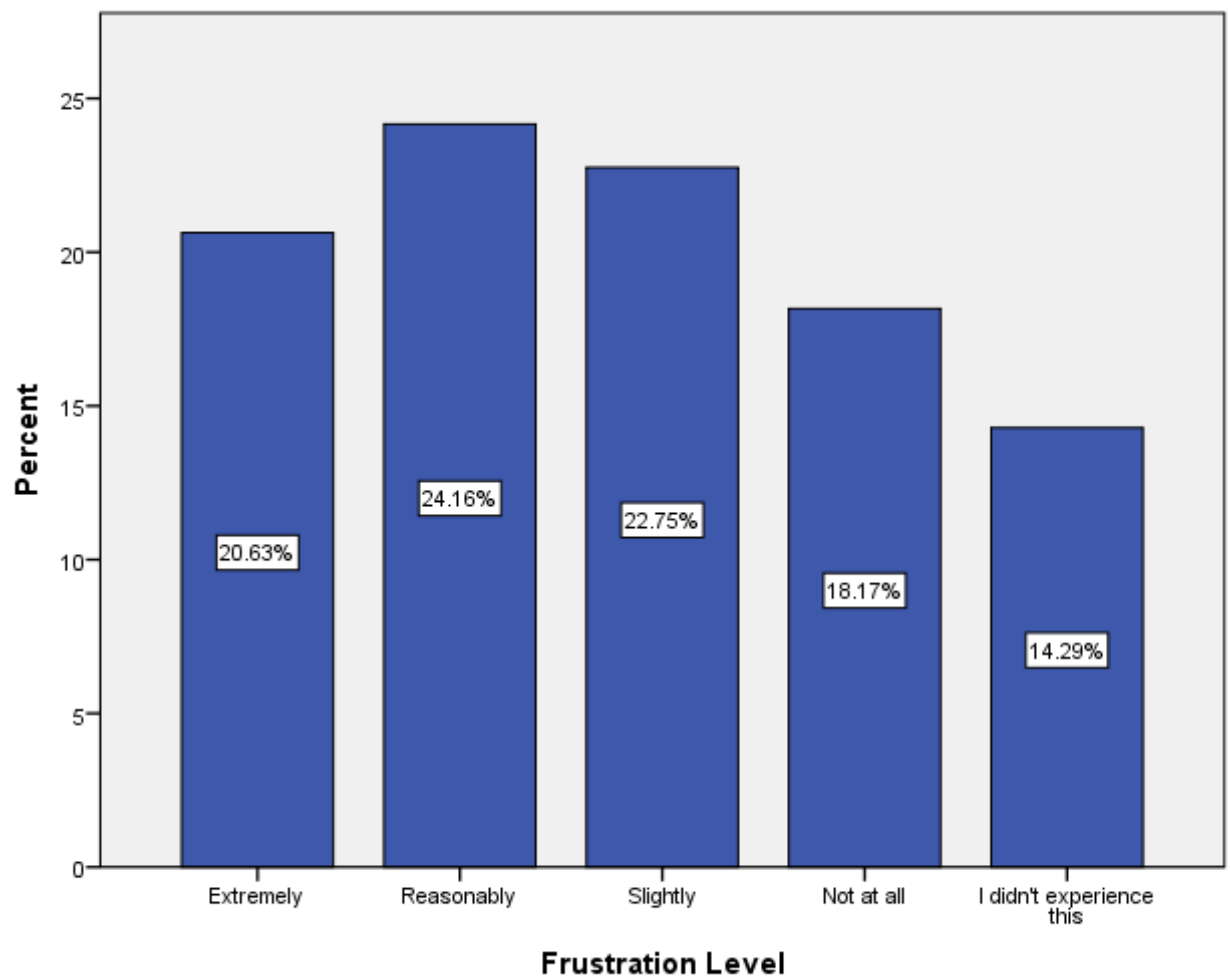
Figure 8.10: Methods of Assessment



(Valid responses=567)

One of the dominant markers of Thai culture is that of flexibility and adjustment orientation. This relates to notions of uncritical compliance, preservation of harmony, non-confrontation and the avoidance of giving displeasure (Komin, 1990). In the context of the classroom, this has resulted in a culture in which cheating is rife, where teachers do not fail students to avoid the risk of them 'losing face' (Young, 2013). Whilst it was suggested in section 8.3 that TEFL teachers should adapt their teaching according to the culture in which they are working, the issue of cheating was ill-received by respondents.

Figure 8.11: Levels of Frustration as a Result of Cheating



(Valid responses=567)

Figure 8.11 demonstrates the scale of cheating, with 85.7% of respondents experiencing this whilst working as a TEFL teacher in Thailand. Of these respondents (n=486) 78.8% felt frustrated by this issue. This was exemplified in research phase one by blogger R:

'Cheating is rampant and not just confined to the students. Some of the teachers are studying for higher qualifications and just last week one of them just cut and pasted a whole English article from a web-site and submitted it as his own work without any qualms. He didn't even bother to hide this blatant plagiarism because it is obviously something he has been doing all his life. This is not an isolated incident but a frequent occurrence.'

Blogger T further criticised the Thai educational system stating his frustrations:

'The crazy thing about tests and exams in Thai schools is that you cannot fail anyone. OK, they can fail, BUT you have to retest them – and keep retesting them – until they pass. The system is flawed because students know they cannot be failed... I know that some teachers make their assessments too easy to make their life easier and there is literally NO consistency, what what can you do? The education system, largely influenced by their culture of 'nobody can be made to look bad' is a complete and utter joke.'[sic]

One respondent in research phase two indicated that this frustration subsequently effected his motivation:

'Even in my short time as a TEFL instructor, I've found it incredibly difficult to care about whether or not class happens. I also don't see the point in really giving out/stressing about grades since it won't matter in the end anyway. It's difficult for a teacher to teach when the students know that they can goof off, not listen to you, and still pass'

Demotivation in this way indicates that TEFL teachers may not work to the best of their ability, subsequently undermining the positive outcomes intended by the Thai Government in their desire to improve their position in the global economic and social marketplace (Kirkpatrick, 2012; Punthumasen, 2007). Such experiences also indicate that TEFL teachers may acquire skills and practices that are not acceptable in other countries, where academic rigour is more highly valued (Nicholls and Apiwattanakorn, 2015). It can be argued that condoning cheating and teaching practices such as these sacrifices the professional integrity and ethics of the teacher and their associated educational institution, an aspect afforded particular importance in many educational systems throughout the world (Australian Institute for Teaching and Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; USA Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011; South African Council for Educators, 2016).

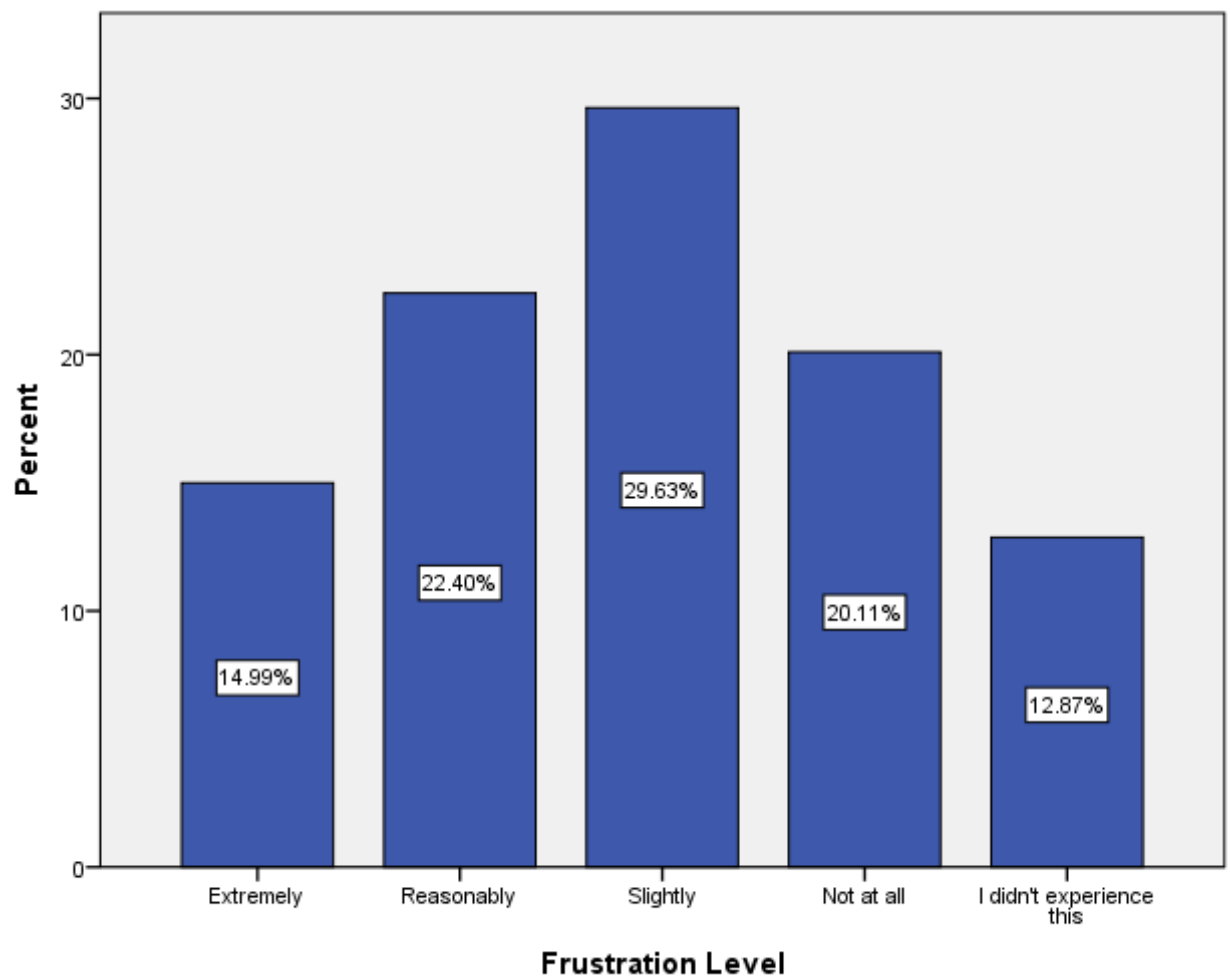
8.6 Facilities

Biyaem (1997) and Foley (2005) highlight that learning in Thailand is often hindered as a result of inadequately equipped classrooms and educational technology. Data obtained in this research supports this contention. Blogger K elaborated;

'I was placed in a very large government school (over 3000 students) that does not have enough classrooms for students, and often not enough chairs or desks in those classrooms either. Rooms designed for 30 students have to house on average 45-50 students. Wooden chairs and desks are crammed in to the room in tight rows, with little room to move them. It was definitely not the most productive learning environment.'

A further 87.1% of respondents in research phase two felt that their educational institutions were ill equipped. Despite the contention that TEFL teachers may not be surprised by the differences in available facilities as a result of their pre-conceived perceptions of developing countries, for the majority of respondents (n=380), the lack of facilities led to feelings of frustration (76.9%) (see figure 8.12).

Figure 8.12: Frustrations Resulting from Lack of Facilities

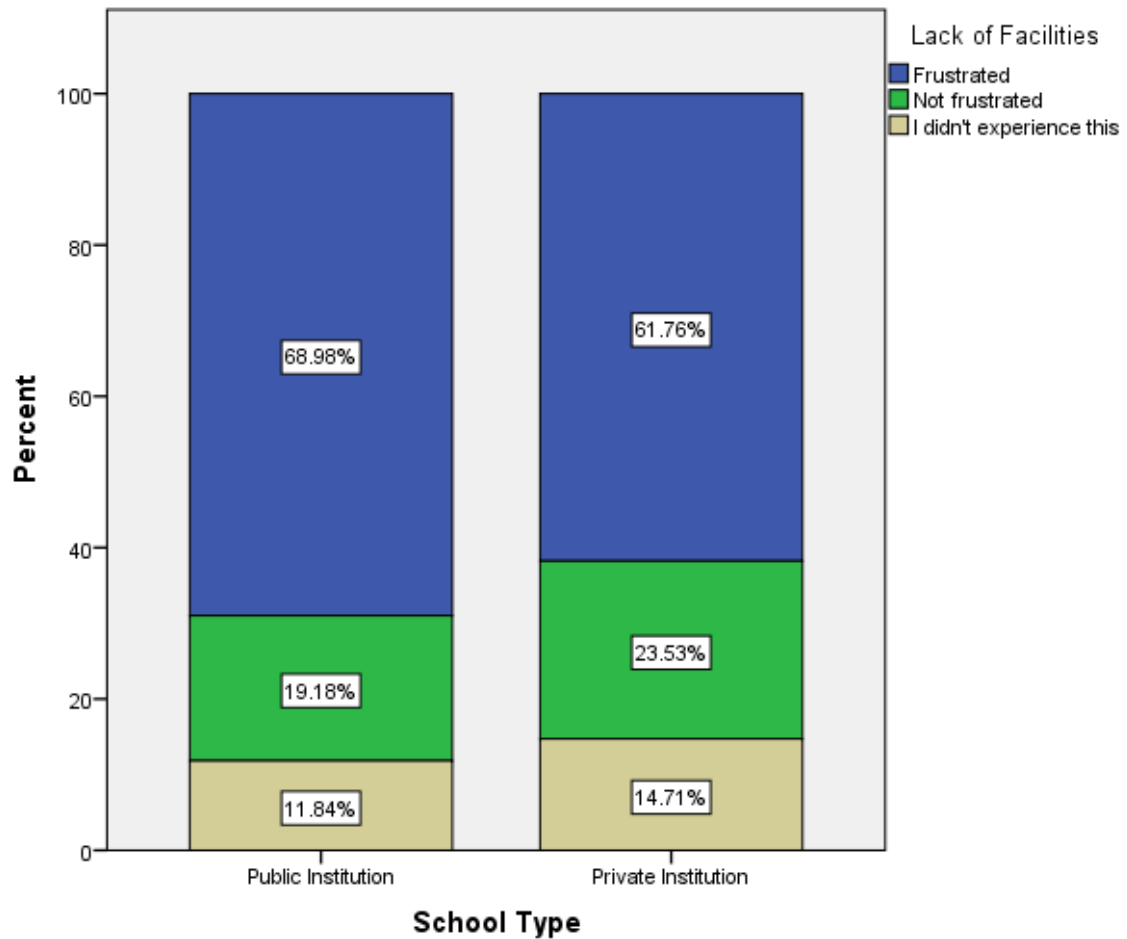


(Valid responses=567)

In line with blogger K, the largest proportion of frustrated respondents were based in public institutions (see figure 8.13), however this relationship was not proven to be statistically significant. Similarly, data collected from research phase one indicated a relationship between location and facilities (demonstrated in figure 8.14), where it can be suggested that rural areas often tend to have worse facilities than cities or coastal regions. This relationship, however, was not determined through the statistical tests undertaken and thus brings to question the extent of said relationship. One respondent in research phase two remarked;

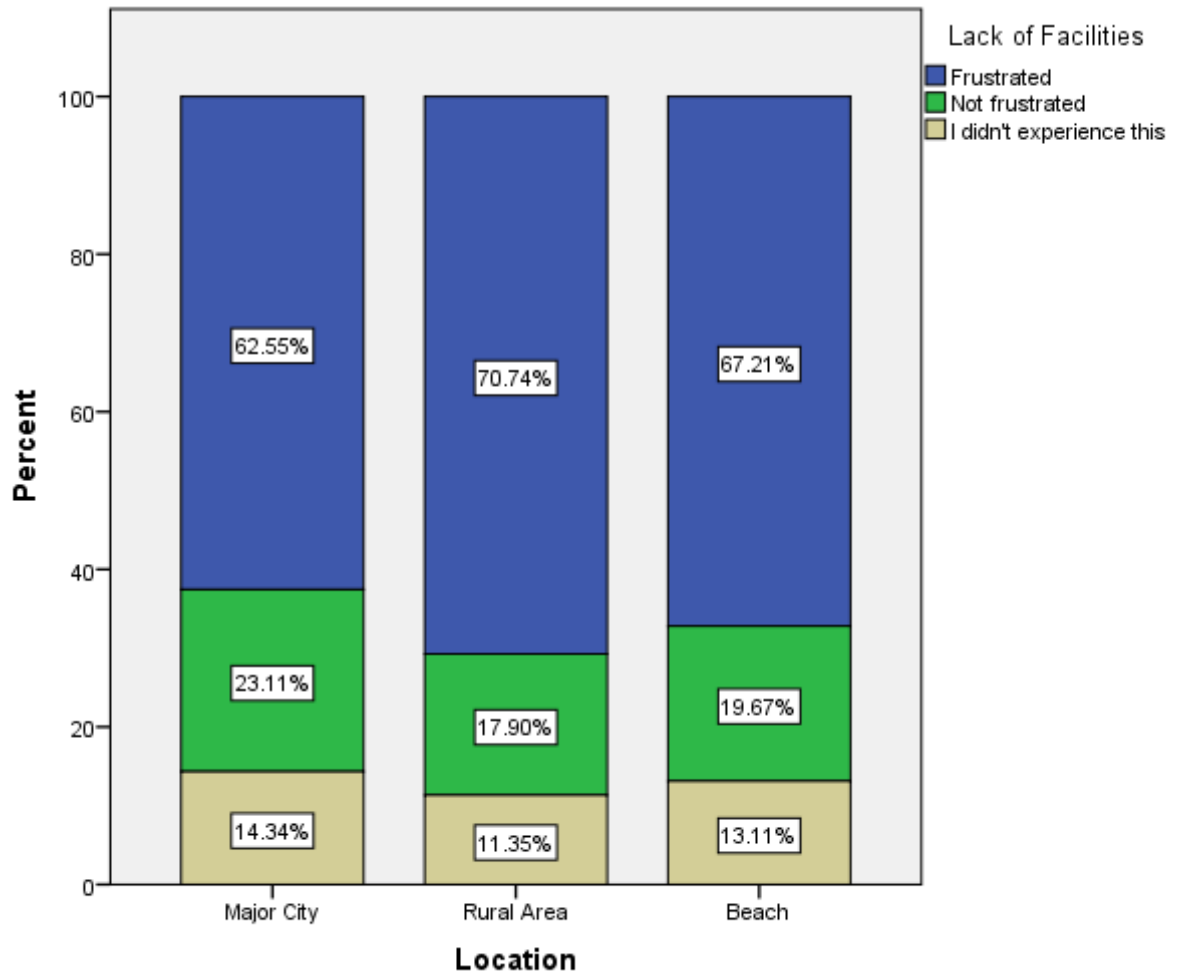
‘The biggest [frustration] was the lack of resources in the rural areas. I would need to travel back to Bangkok for decent material, or get resources off the internet and pay for them to be printed at the local printer myself’ [sic]

Figure 8.13: Lack of Facilities School Type Correlation



(Valid responses=415)

Figure 8.14: Lack of Facilities Location Correlation



(Valid responses=541)

It can be suggested that the limited resources identified in the research by bloggers and respondents may not always be the result of a lack of funds, but may be a consequence of the choices made regarding the educational institution's budget. One respondent, in response to an open-ended question stated that;

'Most of the money in Thai government schools are spent on how the school looks for events not on facilities, supplies and the students education' [sic]

This further underscores the Thai culture and ego orientation cultural marker, where the Thai people want to maintain 'face', self-esteem and pride (Komin, 1990). In the same vein as previously suggested that foreign teachers may be hired not on their merits but rather because they have white skin, since school authorities believe that this will

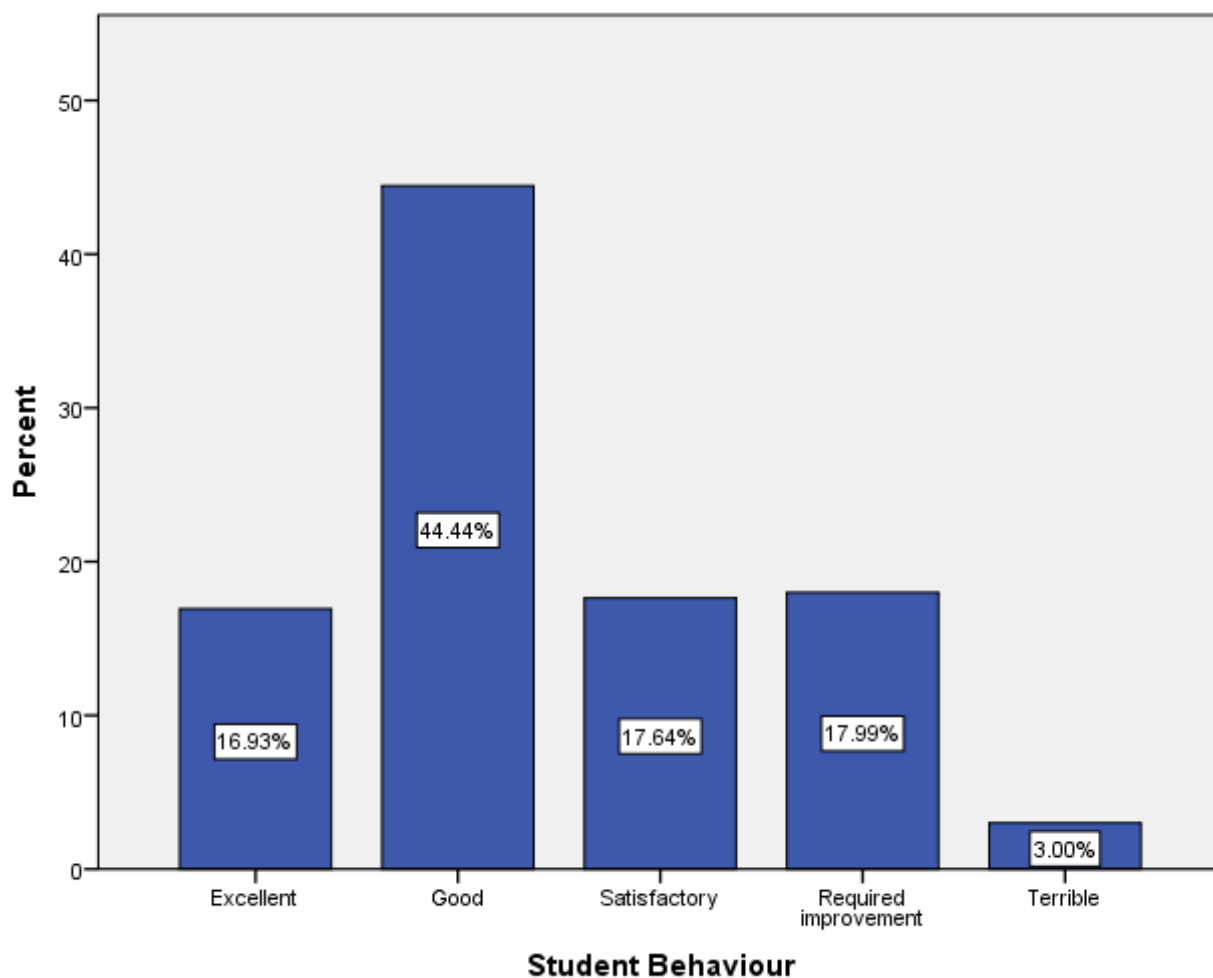
enhance their reputation, it is argued that educational institutions may angle their budget towards aspects that make the school look good, such as special events and shows (see in section 8.8), as opposed to purchasing in-class facilities. Although there is no statistical evidence to support this contention, it is an area warranting further examination in order for the Thai Government to ensure the optimum improvements they seek in the level of English in the country (Khamkhien, 2010).

8.7 Behaviour Management

The theme of culture is also relevant in the context of behaviour management. According to Komin's (1990) grateful orientation marker, Thai people have a genuine kindness, generosity, consideration and concern for others without expecting anything in return. This is known as *numjai* or 'water from the heart' (Kitiyadisai, 2005). On this premise, the teacher is believed to be representative of moral goodness, making a self-sacrifice to bestow the gift of knowledge for the good of the students, thus creating a moral debt which is repaid by students being respectful and behaving appropriately (Mulder, 2000). Whilst there is some evidence in the data to support Mulder's assertion, there is substantial variance in the way student behaviour is perceived amongst respondents (figure 8.15).

'The strict hierarchical style throughout work and family in Thailand does of course have its advantages in education. Discipline is not a major issue in the ways that it has become in a western society where such hierarchy has been reduced over recent decades. Of course children misbehave, but this only ever goes as far as horseplay and is easily stamped out.' (Blogger Q)

Figure 8.15: Student Behaviour



(Valid responses=567)

Figure 8.15 demonstrates that 38.6% of respondents described their student behaviour as satisfactory or below. A number of χ^2 tests revealed no significant correlations between student behaviour and associated variables such as location, age and school type. As such, it can be suggested that this variation in respondent opinion may be the result of the subjective interpretations of appropriate behaviour. Based on the premise of ethnocentrism, it is likely that TEFL teachers form their perceptions of behaviour based on their previous experiences. For example, those from different cultural backgrounds, geographical locations, those who attended different school types and those with prior teaching experience may define behaviour differently. Blogger E's description of her experiences in Thailand, in contrast to her teaching experience in the UK, supports this argument:

‘Very rarely in Thailand during a lesson has my heart rate sped up as if I’m running a marathon and blood pressure shot up as if I’m having a coronary, (which was a daily, nay hourly, occurrence when teaching in England). I have not heard words like “peng”, “gash”, “innit”, “laters”, “nang”, “piff” and “sick” in Thailand and the general behavior is 1000 times better.’ [sic]

Table 8.3: Behavioural Issues Encountered

Behavioural Issue (multiple response)	Number of Respondents Who Experienced this	Percent of Respondents Who Experienced this
Misbehaving in class	395	69.7
Not doing as asked	293	51.7
Talking over the teacher	269	47.4
Using mobile phones	218	38.4
No Behavioural issues	77	13.6

(Valid responses=1252)

As demonstrated in table 8.3, most respondents (86.4%) experienced behavioural issues at some point during their TEFL experience in Thailand, with the most common problem being students misbehaving in class (69.7%). Blogger D1 provided an example of frustrations resulting from student behaviour;

‘You explain the activity, act it out, go through every little detail and say to the class “understand?” with a thumbs up and they all, with big smiles on their faces, nod and reply “yes”, then the activity takes place and not one single student knows what the frig is going on. This is the single most frustrating thing a teacher experiences in the classroom.’[sic]

Again, this behaviour can be related to Thai culture. Komin’s (1990) smooth interpersonal relationship orientation dictates that Thai people avoid confrontation, whilst the ego orientation cultural marker causes reluctance from the student to ‘lose face’. In this context it can be argued that Thai students are reluctant to ask for help (Ekachai, 1990) for fear of confrontation and making themselves look bad. This is emphasised through the response to an open-ended question in research phase two

indicating that such frustrations derive not only from student behaviour, but also from parental involvement;

‘[the biggest frustration is] Parents making ridiculous excuses for their children’s behaviora or poor performance like “Maybe he punched the other boy because the sun was in his eyes” etc’ [Sic]

It is argued that the methods used to manage behaviour in Thai educational institutions are of particular concern due to the associated ethical and moral connotations. Despite the intention to follow Western nations and assign punitive activities, suspensions or probations as a means of punishing poor behaviour (Walker *et al*, 2004), physical punishment remains socially, if not legally, accepted in many educational institutions (Jampian, 2012). Physical punishment was witnessed by the majority (53.3%) of respondents (table 8.4). This is contradictory to the professional and ethical values prescribed by Western educational systems (for example, Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; USA Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011; South African Council for Educators, 2016).

Table 8.4: Methods of Behaviour Management

Behaviour Management Methods Witnessed (multiple response)	Number of Responses	Percent of Respondents
Physical punishment	302	53.3
Confiscation of mobile phones	194	34.2
Parental meetings	134	23.6
Teachers cutting student’s hair	128	22.6
After school detentions	106	18.7

(Valid responses=864)

Bloggers C1 and V explain their experiences;

‘Many of my Thai co-teachers will actually smack a student as a punishment for smacking another student. A teacher would get canned in a heartbeat if they tried that in an American high school!’

‘Mr Sirichild picked up his long wooden cane. The sound of wood slapping on the back of Nung’s legs was enough for me to never take a student to Mr Sirichild again. Nung was quiet (and couldn’t sit down), for a week, but in my eyes it was too much.’

In many parts of the world, practices such as this are viewed as a violation of human rights and respect for dignity and physical integrity (Global Initiative to End all Corporate Punishment of Children, 2016; UNICEF, 2016). As a result, the majority (94%) of respondents admitted to feeling uncomfortable at some point in their position as a TEFL teacher when witnessing such methods of behaviour management (table 8.5). Blogger V elaborated;

‘I just hate it [physical punishment]. Why is this necessary? We don’t do it at home and our kids don’t behave too badly? It really upsets me and I was genuinely shocked when I saw the kids being hurt like that. I wish I could stop it, but its out of my control.’ [sic]

Table 8.5: Physical Punishment Felt Uncomfortable Cross-Tabulation

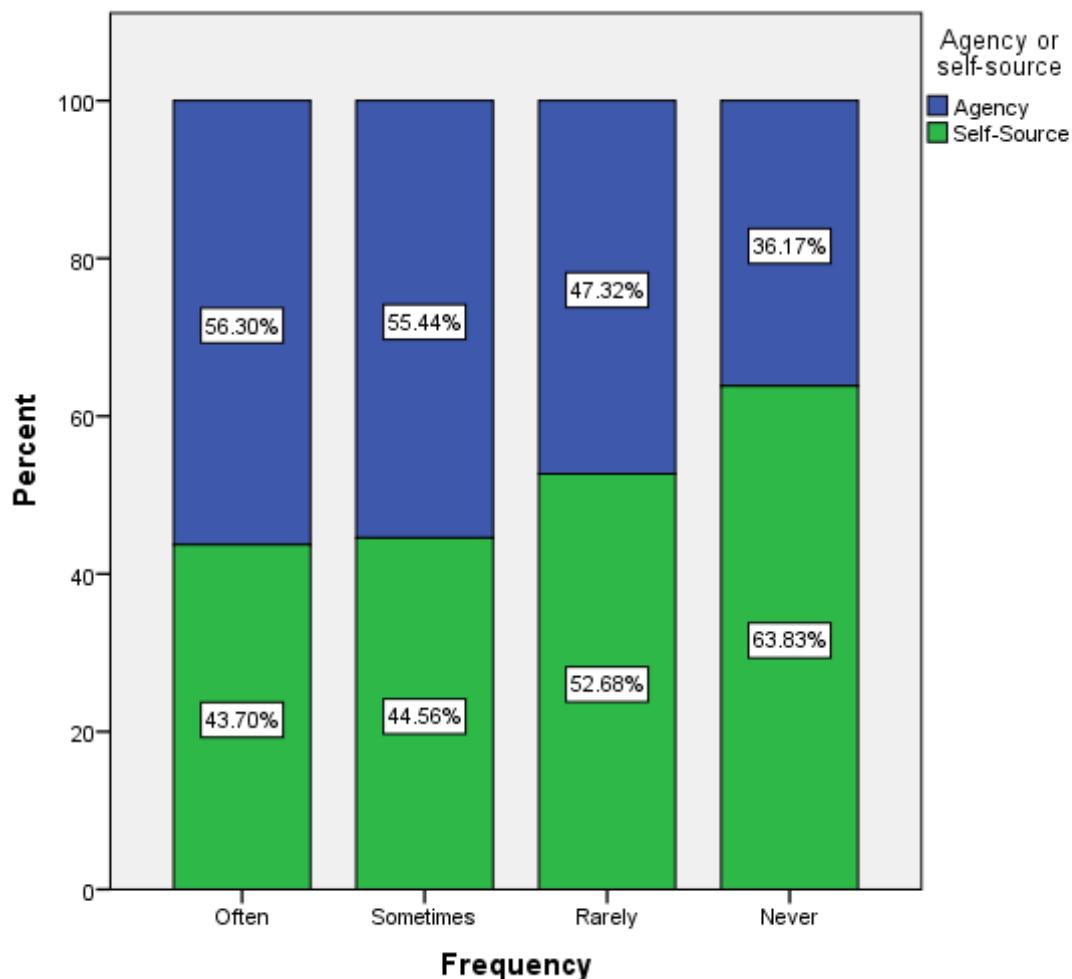
Physical Punishment		Felt Uncomfortable or Disagreed with the Methods of Discipline				Total
		Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	
No	Number	9	59	73	124	265
	% did not Witness Physical Punishment	3.4%	22.3%	27.5%	46.8%	100.0%
Yes	Number	110	134	40	18	302
	% within did Witness Physical Punishment	36.4%	44.4%	13.2%	6.0%	100.0%

(Valid responses=567)

Although examination of the ethical and moral implications of Thai classroom management is beyond the scope this research, it is clear that the use of corporal

punishment in the classroom is ill-received by most respondents. This further emphasises that it is important that stakeholders, including prospective TEFL teachers or future recruiters have an accurate perception of the TEFL experience. It is suggested that as a result of the lack of evidence of this type of behaviour management on the websites and promotional materials of the TEFL agencies examined in table 3.1, that stakeholders are largely unaware of such practices. This contention is supported in the research, with a χ^2 test demonstrating a significant relationship between methods of sourcing the TEFL placement and the frequency with which respondents felt uncomfortable with methods of behaviour management (χ^2 15.145, df=3, $p<0.05$). Eighty-one point seven percent of respondents who booked their TEFL placement via an agency at some point felt uncomfortable with the methods of behaviour management that they witnessed compared with 68.6% of those who self-sourced their placement (figure 8.16).

Figure 8.16: Frequency that Respondents Felt Uncomfortable with Behaviour
Management Techniques Agency or Self Source Correlation



(Valid responses=565)

Based on the evidence presented in this section, it can be concluded that there is a high likelihood that TEFL teachers will feel uncomfortable as a result of the methods of discipline witnessed whilst working as a TEFL teacher in Thailand. This may have detrimental effects on teacher motivation and retention whilst potentially affecting them psychologically, although no literature to confirm this was available at the time of research. It also provides the teacher with an experience that is not only not reflective of practices in most Western nations, but is the antithesis of the ethical and professional practices prescribed in these systems (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; USA

Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011; South African Council for Educators, 2016). This is an area warranting further research in order to ensure that TEFL teaching practices in Thailand invoke optimum learning, with punishment-based methods widely known to stop bad behaviour only temporarily and have negative impacts on student-teacher relationships and the students emotional stability (Martin and Pear, 2003; Sailor, 2010).

8.8 Wider Professional Responsibilities

As identified in appendix five, the educational systems examined require teachers to fulfil their wider professional responsibilities. One expectation of the examined educational systems noted in appendix five particularly prevalent in findings of this research was ‘to make a positive contribution to the wider life and ethos of the school’. Whilst this is rather vague and could encompass any number of far-ranging responsibilities, there were a number of teaching duties identified by respondents that are not evident in other teaching systems. Based on the concept of ethnocentrism, it can again be argued that the actual TEFL experience may not be as anticipated due to differences between the TEFL teacher’s home country and Thailand in the duties required of a teacher. Typical duties are outlined in table 8.6.

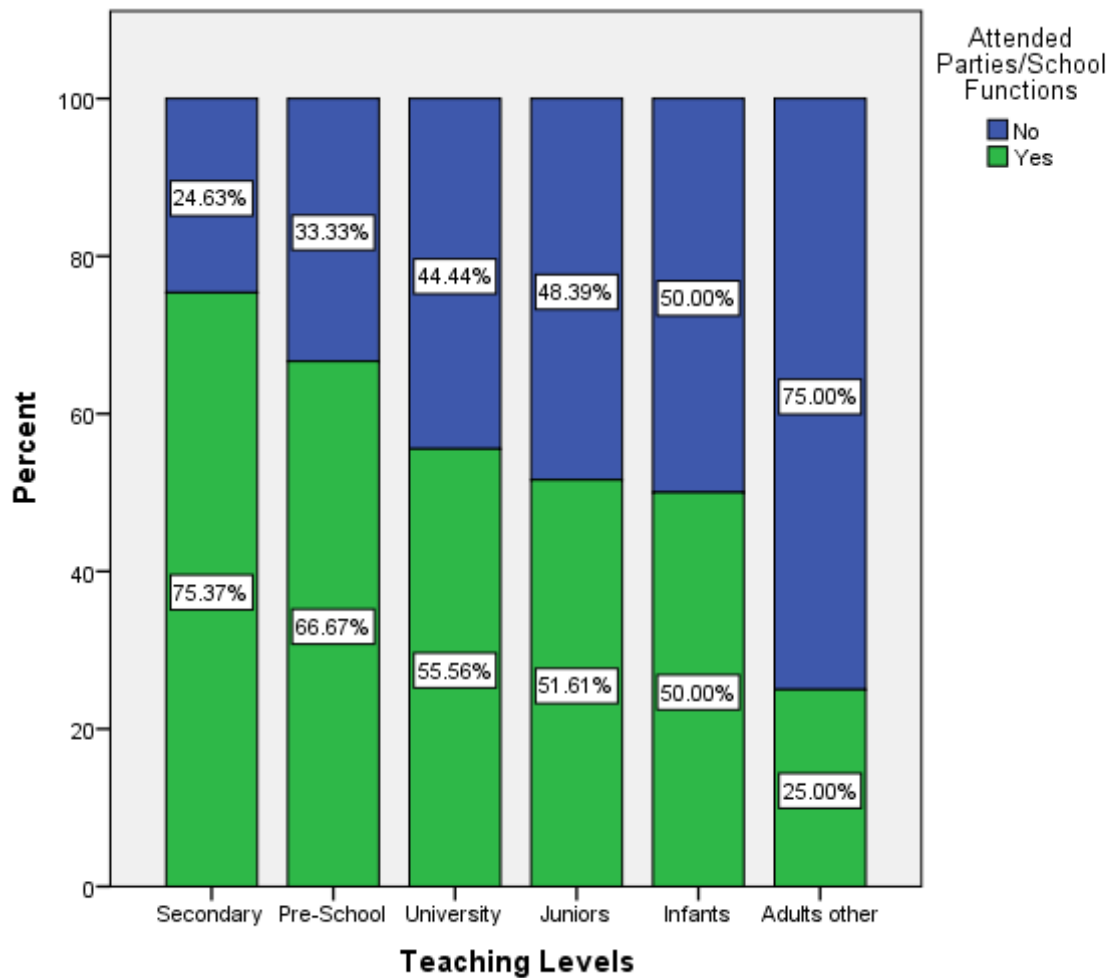
Table 8.6: Teacher Duties Institution Type Cross-Tabulation

Duty (multiple response)	Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents	Percent of Respondents in a Public Institution	Percent of Respondents in a Private Institution
Attend parties and school functions	363	64.02	61.2	61.8
English camps	318	56.08	61.2	45.3
Paperwork	303	53.44	41.2	56.5
Assembly	293	51.67	54.3	48.2
Gate duty	244	43.03	42.9	40.6
English competitions	227	40.04	40	31.8
Public singing/dancing/speaking	191	33.69	33.9	32.9
Organise/attend parent meetings	127	22.40	13.1	28.8
School plays	125	22.05	16.3	27.6

(Valid responses=2191)

Both research phases indicated that attending parties and/or school functions was the most common duty undertaken. Data from research phase one indicated that the types of functions varied and included events such as sports days, Buddhist ceremonies, children's day, Thai language day, school shows and parties. Such events were discussed by 58% of bloggers in research phase one. This was the most frequent NVIVO code in the teaching duties category. Data from research phase two identified that this duty was consistent between school types, however figure 8.17 demonstrates differences in the frequency with which respondents were required to undertake this duty across the different teaching levels (χ^2 21.30, df=5, $p < 0.01$). Although attending parties and/or school functions is common across most of the education spectrum, ranging from 75.37% of secondary teachers to 50% of infant teachers, it is much less common for those teaching adult education (25%).

Figure 8.17: School Functions/Parties Teaching Level Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

An explanation for the frequency of such events is the importance placed on ceremonies and rituals practiced by the Thai community, where a deep appreciation for their land and life opportunities is an important part of their culture (Forman, 2005). This does however not necessarily justify the TEFL teacher's involvement. Rather, bloggers R and B suggest that this is the result of the inherent positive racial discrimination present in Thai culture (Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016; Persaud, 2014), where the white-skinned foreigner is treated in a celebrity-like fashion (Mostafanezhad, 2013; Wright, 2014) in order to enhance the ego orientation of the institution and its staff (Komin, 1990).

'On top of all of the exams, there are various other activities throughout the year, from special projects to functions to Teacher's day - and this often means that classes are cancelled. As crazy as it sounds, I can remember one semester where I had at least one class canceled every week for an entire semester. Much importance is placed on other activities (to the detriment of their general education sometimes) and the foreign teachers are expected as their presence adds a certain amount of "face" to the schools reputation.' [sic] (Blogger R)

'We had to do speeches in front of all the staff and students – about 3500 people! I knew that having new English teachers from abroad was a big thing just by the amount of giggling there was from groups of girls as we walked around school but this was far above what I had expected, my own little bit of fame!' [sic] (Blogger B)

This is similarly the suggested reason for the frequency with which respondents were required to take part in public speaking, singing or dancing (33.7%). Blogger L voices her frustrations:

'Seriously, its sooo embarrassing, just because Im the white face around here means that I always get dragged up on stage at every event so they can 'show me off'. I cant even understand what they saying most of the time, I just stand there with a fake grin on my face secretly wishing I could get the hell out of there!!' [sic]

There is no evidence that public performances are a part of a teacher's job description in the educational systems examined (appendix five). It is thus likely that stakeholders such as prospective TEFL teachers and future recruiters may not be aware of such requirements. Depending on personality type, this factor could potentially have detrimental effects on the TEFL teaching experience, teacher self-esteem and their motivations to continue teaching. This re-enforces the need for stakeholders to be provided with the details of what the TEFL experience comprises of.

Whilst many TEFL teachers are likely to have an understanding of what an assembly is, based on prior knowledge and experiences, assemblies in their home countries are likely to differ considerably from those in Thailand due to their strong cultural focus. Blogger M described that;

'As 8am approaches each day the students begin to descend, literally in their thousands, to the school playground for assembly. The Thai flag is raised as the national anthem plays. The students sing along, some more enthusiastically than others, and bow when the anthem ends. After five weeks I've got so used to the anthem I find myself singing along in my head; something which at first struck me as bizarrely patriotic has now just become a normal part of my day. The rest of the assembly is filled with what seems to be prayer chanting, notices, presentations and student dance performances. Then, for fifteen minutes before lessons each day a strange sort of mass-aerobics exercise session takes place in the playground.'

Fifty percent of bloggers described assembly experiences in this way, indicating that this is common practice. This further exemplifies the way in which Thai culture and religion is ingrained in the TEFL teaching experience (Komin, 1990). Table 8.6 demonstrates that 51.7% of respondents took part in assembly.

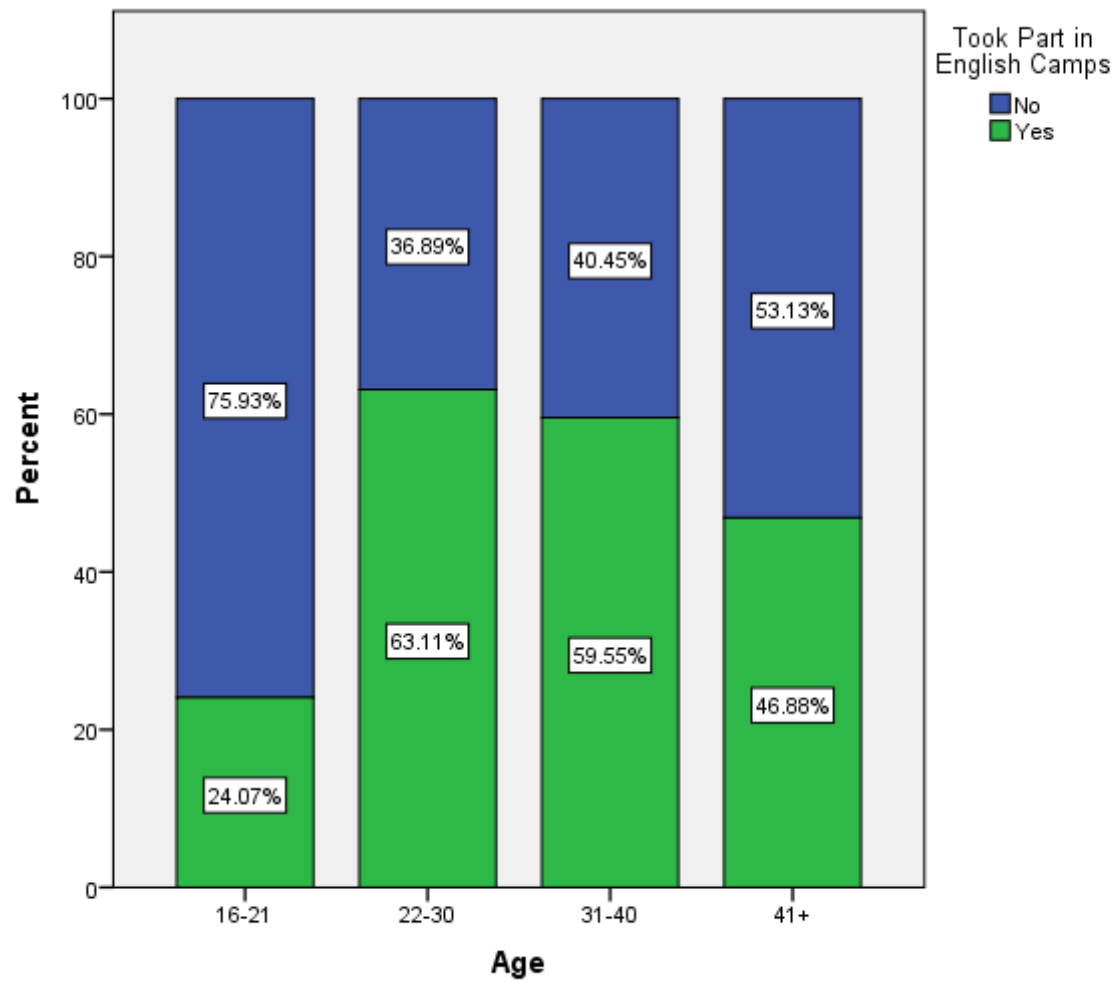
The second most common duty identified was undertaking English camps, discussed by 36% of bloggers in research phase one and noted by 56.1% of respondents in research phase two. There was little evidence of this in the promotional material of the agencies examined in table 3.1, indicating that TEFL teachers would not necessarily be aware of English camps or what they entail. Blogger O described that;

'English camps are short, intensive courses where kids get sent to fully immerse themselves in English for a period of time, usually around 1 week- 1 month. The idea is that they are only allowed to speak English for the duration of the camp... It's a bit of a mixture really but the majority of people who work at English camps are the 'teach-travel' type. Normally aged between 22-35, people are traveling in Asia and want to bolster their travel fund. There are also an older group of teachers who may be retirees.'

A χ^2 test demonstrated that there was a significant correlation between those who took part in English camps and age (χ^2 32.77, df=3, $p < 0.01$), supporting blogger O's claims that those who teach at English camps are typically aged 22-35 (figure 8.18). Blogger O also implied that the opportunity to travel was important to these teachers. A cross-tabulation in research phase two supported this claim with 89.9% of those who took

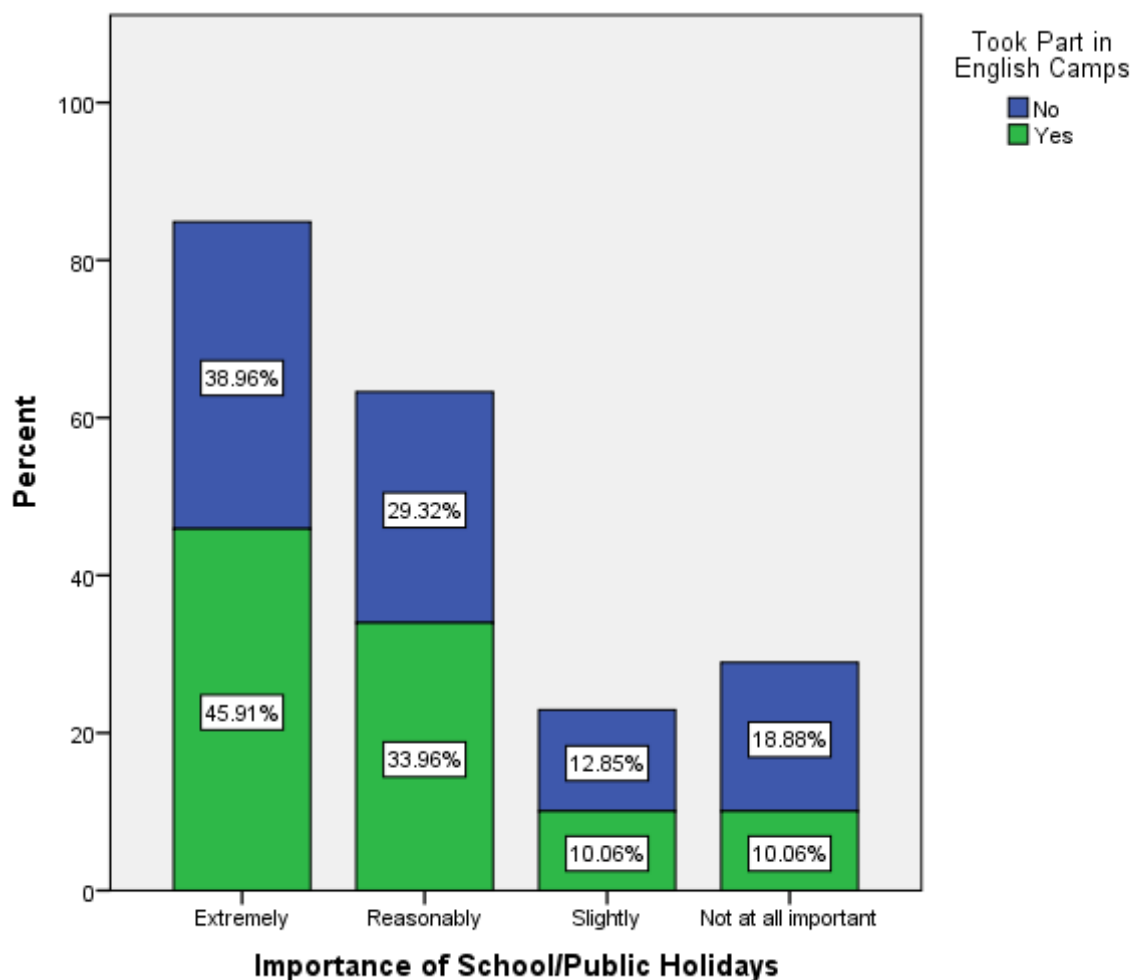
part in English camps viewing the opportunity to travel during school/public holidays as being important (χ^2 11.28, df=3, $p<0.05$).

Figure 8.18: English Camp Age Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

Figure 8.19: Importance of School/Public Holidays English Camp Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

In contrast to teaching in the UK, where the amount of administration required by teachers is a serious concern (Pells, 2015), administrative duties and parental meetings were mentioned by only one blogger in research phase one, indicating that this was not a significant part of the role of TEFL teacher. In order to highlight the differences between teaching in the UK and in Thailand, and to demonstrate that the experience is not always reflective of teaching in the UK, this was tested further during research phase two. There was evidence that 53.4% of respondents had administrative duties as part of their role as TEFL teacher, comprising of 56.5% of those teaching in private institutions and 41.2% in public institutions (see table 8.6).

Only 13.1% of TEFL teachers working in public institutions and 28.8% of those in private institutions (table 8.6) took part in parent's evenings. In many educational systems parental information and liaison is a core part of a teacher's role (e.g. Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; USA Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011; South African Council for Educators, 2016). Parent-teacher contact however is limited in Thailand as it is believed that, due to the high status of teachers, parents have no place in the educational system (Deveney, 2005). In this regard, experiences gained by TEFL teachers may not be reflective of practices in alternative destinations.

Although TEFL teachers in Thailand may appear to have less administrative duties than their Western counterparts, there were remarks made in research phase one with regard to workloads. Blogger R indicated his frustrations when asked to cover additional classes;

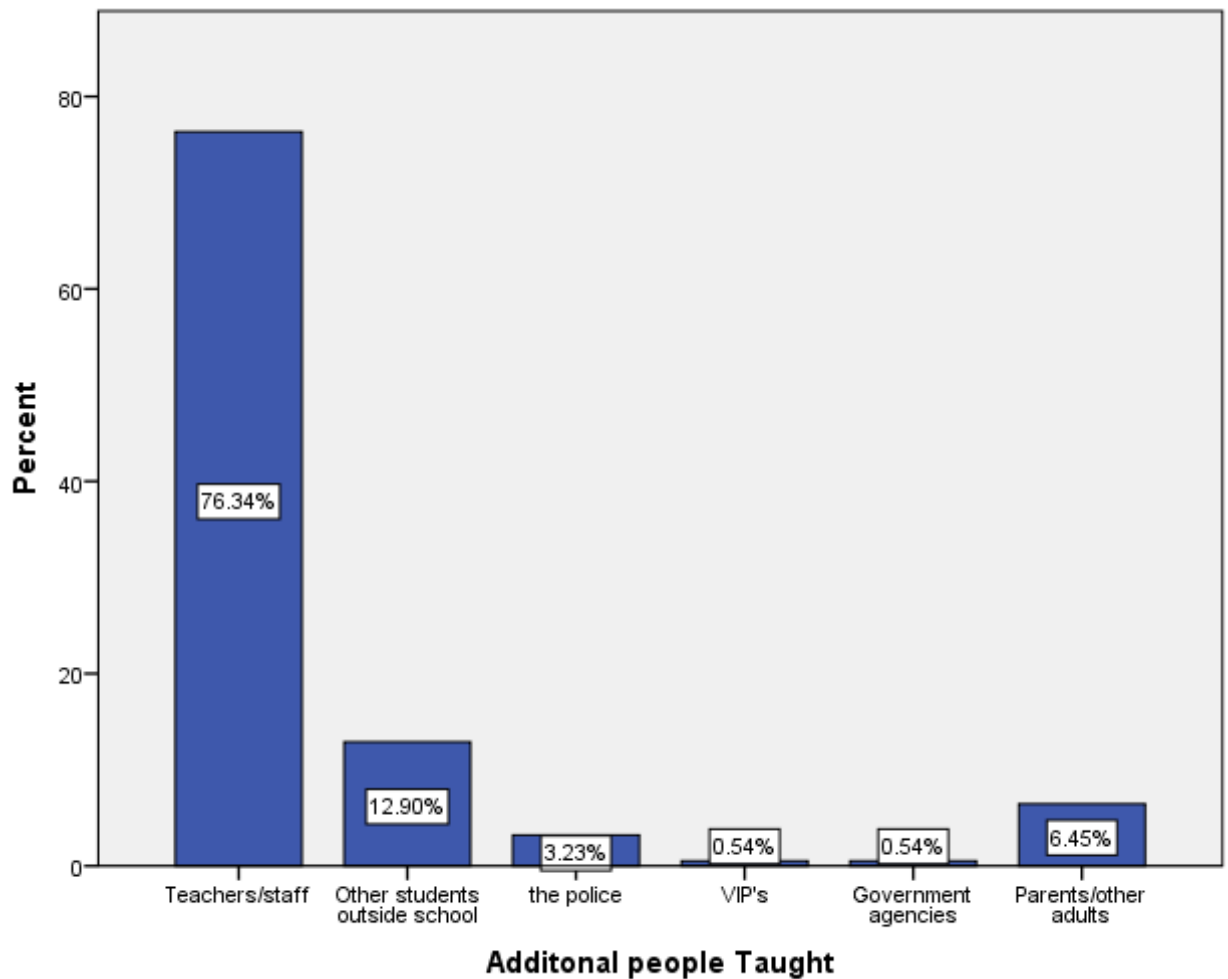
'These harmless looking slips have the power to completely ruin my day, because written on each one is information about any substitution class that I will be expected to cover. On a bad day I could end up with as many as three of these loathsome notes; this means three extra hours of work that I hadn't been expecting and won't be getting payed for.'[sic]

Whilst covering classes may be an expectation in Western countries, it is argued that TEFL teachers should be made aware of this possibility since it can be deemed unfair to require a person to work longer hours than expected when they initially signed up for their TEFL experience. Upon reviewing the associated literature and websites of the organisations named in table 3.1, there was no evidence of information in this regard.

There was also no evidence in promotional material indicating that TEFL teachers may be required to teach people other than their students. Seventeen percent of bloggers discussed having to teach people other than their students as part of their role as a TEFL teacher, namely Thai teachers and the Thai police. This was echoed by 35.8% of respondents in research phase two, where the majority of respondents (76.3%) who

taught those other than their students taught English to their teaching colleagues (figure 8.20).

Figure 8.20: Other People Taught by TEFL Teachers



(Valid responses=186)

Blogger U implies that this is the result of the hierarchically positive discrimination of the white-skinned foreign teacher in Thailand;

'Being an English teacher in Thailand (and because you are the famous village/town farang!) means you get asked to do all sorts of things from getting students ready for speech competitions, fixing documents for the Thai teachers, teaching the Police English to being a judge at Regional and National English Competitions.'

Based on research findings, there appear to be many wider professional responsibilities of the TEFL teacher that are not in line with practices in Western destinations and information in this regard is not necessarily presented on agencies' promotional material. There are thus a number of duties required of the TEFL teachers that they will be largely unaware of.

8.9 Professional Integrity

The concept of othering gives rise to questions regarding the professional integrity of the educational institution that the TEFL teacher works within and its associated staff. The area of professional integrity and standards of ethics demonstrated in the summary of teaching standards (see appendix five) is the most prominent, indicating that this is an area of particular importance within the teaching expectations of the Western countries identified. These expectations are based predominantly on the integrity of the teacher with regard to their students and their own personal professional conduct. For example, to 'treat students with dignity' or 'avoid sexual relations with students'. Whilst these are important ethical issues, they do not encompass the professional integrity shown to TEFL teachers by colleagues. This was a strong theme in the research and forms the basis for this section.

Based on the associated literature (e.g. Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo, 2016; Mostafanezhad, 2013; Persaud, 2014) and the findings of this research, it can be suggested that TEFL tourism facilitates a type of race-imposed celebrityism, where the white-skinned TEFL teacher is subjected to positive discrimination through preferential treatment, being offered employment based on skin colour as opposed to merit, and as a means of adding 'face' to the educational institution. This racial hierarchy, as described by Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo (2016), is not evident in the marketing material of the agencies examined in table 3.1, thus indicating that stakeholders are not likely to be aware of this. Unlike volunteer tourism where it has been suggested that some volunteers are motivated by the prospective notions of fame and attention (Mostafanezhad, 2013), this research indicates that the pseudo-celebrity status

experienced by TEFL teachers is a consequence of their TEFL placement in Thailand rather than a motivation for undertaking such placement.

Wright (2014) suggests that some volunteer tourists are viewed through a similar lens as a celebrity by the host population due to their ability to perform duties that the locals may not, such as teaching English, in addition to their often material, social and aesthetic differences. Findings of this study support this contention, with 81% of bloggers in research phase one discussing experiences where particular attention was focused on them because they were a 'farang' (foreigner).

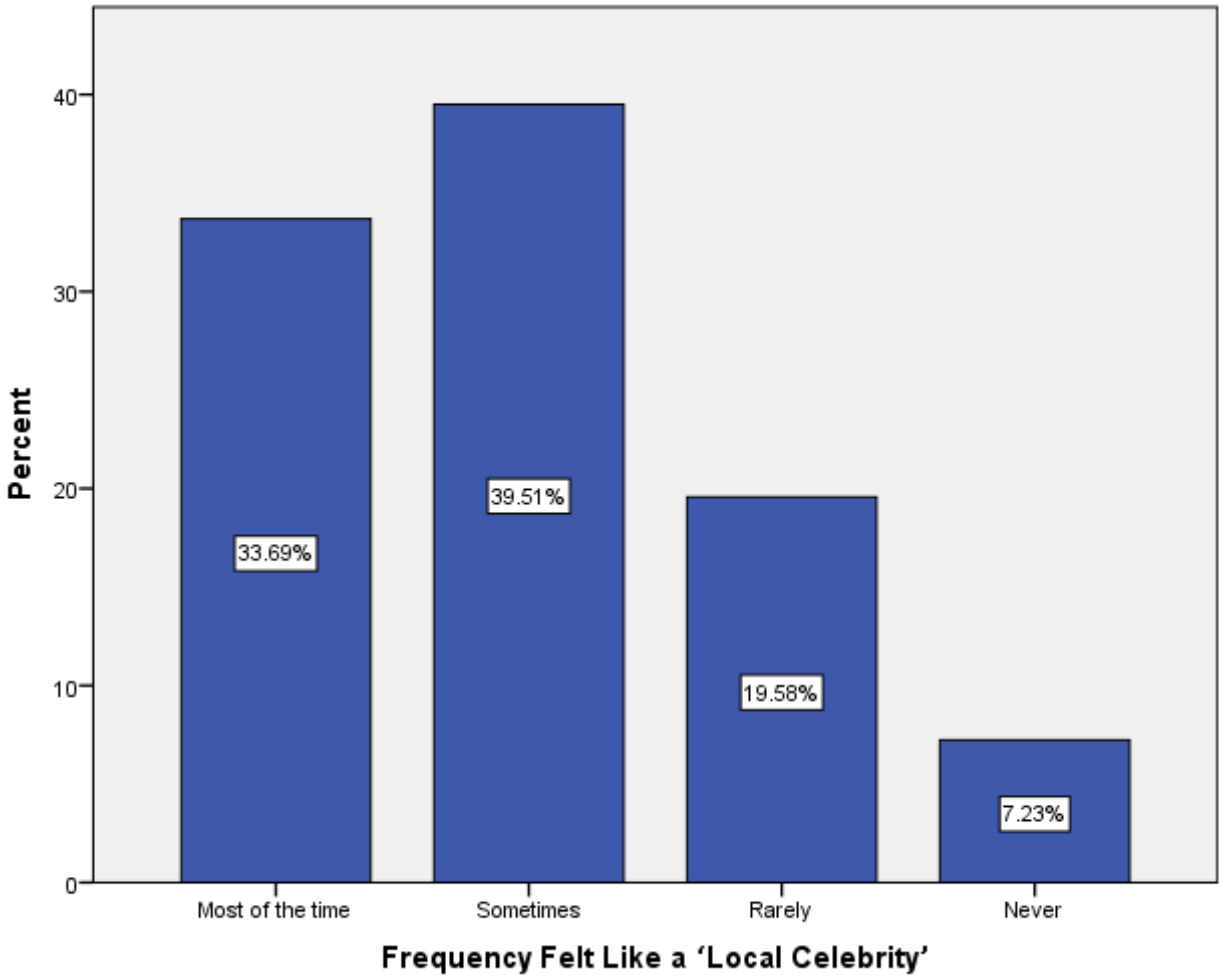
'I felt like a celebrity when I rolled down the tinted electric window and waved out of the open space to my students as they ran along beside the car.' (Blogger I)

'I spent a couple of hours at the roadside completing police reports and posing for photographs (not for any official reason - for the officers' personal collections - look, the day I helped a farang! How bizarre.'[sic] (Blogger K)

'The first day of my stay at Nathom Wittaya (Secondary) School basically consisted of being wheeled around like a prize pony at the country fair, except no one has ever got that excited about ponies before. Students and teachers alike were almost shellshocked to have a Western 'Farang' (foreigner) in their midst... Teachers flocking around to say 'Sawasdee' and children scrambling over one another just to have a good old stare, it's all I can do to keep telling myself that this is just the first day, and soon they'll get used to me. How wrong I was.' [sic] (Blogger B1)

This concept of celebrityism was supported by the majority (92.8%) of respondents in research phase two who at some point stated that they felt they were treated like a 'local celebrity'. Over a third (33.7%) stated that they felt they were treated like a pseudo-celebrity most of the time (figure 8.21). The number of celebrityism cases was 3830 in total, with almost all (97.7%) respondents stating that they experienced at least one of the encounters listed in table 8.7.

Figure 8.21: Frequency Respondents Felt Like a ‘Local Celebrity’



(Valid responses=567)

Table 8.7: Celebritism Encounters

Celebritism Encounters (multiple response)	Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
People called out 'farang' (foreigner) when they saw me	437	77.07
People stared at me	432	76.19
I was told I was beautiful	388	68.43
People were excited to see me because I was a foreigner	375	66.14
People took photographs of me	345	60.85
People I didn't know wanted to speak to me	338	59.61
The school paraded me to promote that they had a foreign teacher	329	58.02
People told me that they loved me	295	52.03
People would watch/follow me	288	50.79
People would buy me gifts/drinks/food because I was the foreigner	249	43.92
I had to make public speeches because I was the foreigner	209	36.86
Police stopped me because they wanted to talk to the foreigner	145	25.57

(Valid responses=3830)

Research phase one indicated that some bloggers looked positively upon their pseudo-celebrity experiences;

'Thanks to the fact that I am the only farang at school I am treated as a sort of a mascot during various activities. My manager usually takes me to lunches and encourages me to taste typical Thai food I would never have thought of trying (forget pad thai, buffalo meat tartar is the new thing now!), I attend various ceremonies (most of them pretty boring, but there are a lot of interesting things, too), I get to meet new people (like governor of Chiang Mai), I make friends with Thai people and generally I enjoy myself.'[sic] (Blogger I)

'I'm relishing the opportunity to be the only native English speaker here. Everyone wants to talk to me; I don't want to share my school with another farang!'[sic] (Blogger E1)

In contrast however, there were several bloggers that were made to feel uncomfortable as a result of this treatment. Blogger D1 described that;

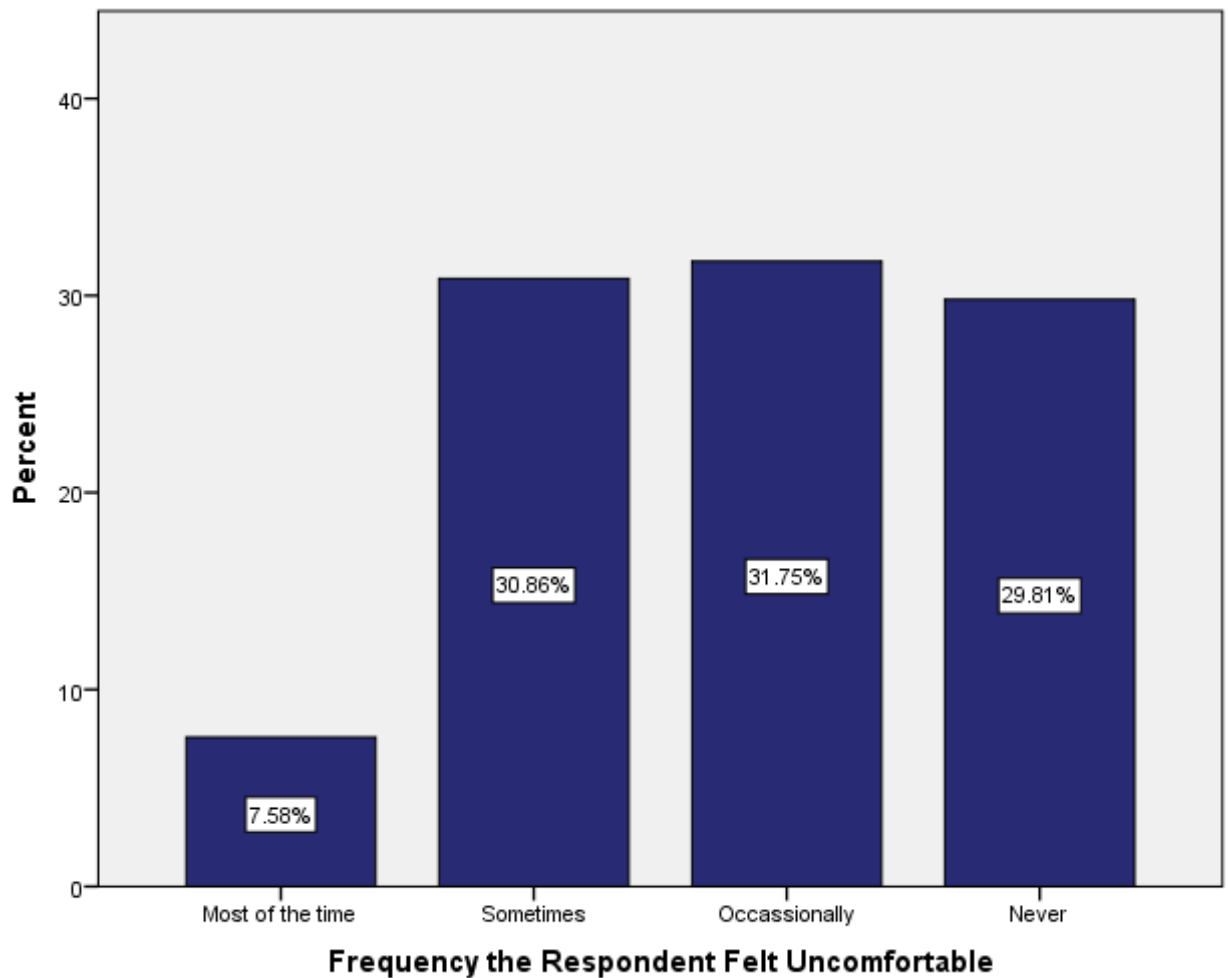
'Being the only farangs in town with no prior warning we were told on Monday that we were teaching English to the Thung Yai police at the local police station. Instead of teaching children we were designing worksheets and getting appropriately dressed-up for visiting 30 policemen. The Director didn't find our dresses "pretty" or "girly" enough so we were forced into some very pink, frilly, ghastly dresses pulled out from the costume cupboard, and of course policemen like women in a full face of slap, so the Director insisted she give us a make-over. Now, Thailand seem to have picked up their fashion/make-up sense from the late 90s/early 00s so there's lots of colour, pink and glitter. There is no place for glittery pink eyeshadow and bright blue eyeliner in 2015, I felt like a complete and utter twat-this is NOT what I signed up for!' [sic]

Similarly, blogger E stated that;

'I do not get children frequently asking 'what happened?' and 'what's wrong?' whilst pointing at my freckly arms in England. In England I also do not get teaching assistants explaining that my arms look the way that they do (as in freckly) because I was burnt and irreparably scarred by boiling water as a child (according to one Thai assistance this was the "easiest" way to explain my skin). This makes me feel generally awkward and uncomfortable.' [sic] (Blogger E)

In support of these comments, research phase two found that most (70.19%) respondents felt uncomfortable as a result of these experiences at some point (see figure 8.22).

Figure 8.22: Respondents Who Felt Uncomfortable as a Result of Celebrityism



(Valid responses=567)

There have been a number of studies (for example, Benson and Wearing, 2012; Butcher and Smith, 2010; Palacios, 2010; Raymond and Hall, 2008) that have argued that othering can give rise to neo-colonial construction of the Westerner as racially and culturally superior. Whilst this might be true for the white-skinned TEFL teacher, it appears to be the opposite for those with dark or black skin. To date, Methanonppkakhun and Deocampo (2016) appear to be the only scholars to have identified this problem, highlighting in their study that teachers with dark or black skin were less likely to secure employment, more likely to lose their jobs and were frequently subjected to prejudice from the school, students and parents. Findings of this research support this contention of racism. For example, one respondent in research phase two,

when asked whether their trip was part of a gap year, educational trip or missionary project, stated that;

'I'm not a backpacker, nor do I travel like one. Plus, being the "colored" one, I was always mistreated where ever I go. So, I decided not to spend the extra baht on a country that's disgustingly plagued with uneducated racists [sic].'

It can be argued that this form of racial discrimination is not compliant with the behaviour of Thai peoples based on their cultural markers, with Komin (1990) stating that Thai society promotes harmony, non-confrontation and the avoidance of giving displeasure. Blogger C elaborated on her experiences;

'Obviously, this is about race... My first day here, I went to the school where I will be teaching to meet the director and other Thai teachers. The most common things they noted about me (and said out loud to me and my recruiter) were along the lines of "she's not as dark as I feared" and "oh, she is very dark, maybe the parents won't be happy" depending on the commentator. There I was, jetlagged and about to die of heat stroke, while a bunch of people I'd just met discussed the level of my darkness. This is not mentioning the amount of pictures I have had taken by complete strangers, usually without asking my permission, or the shy Thai girls who have run up to me and quickly touched my hair before running away like I was some wild animal that might bite them. This is surreal... living in a place where everyone else around me is hyper-obsessed about my skin color is...new. There are shelves upon shelves full of products that promise to whiten your skin. The posters featuring beautiful women all highlight the same shade of absolute, paper whiteness. And the ladyboys and other ladies of the night all wear foundation that's several shades lighter than their skin tone. In the middle of all this, here I am: black. And, at the very least, I am making them uncomfortable. In one day, I have been turned away from two apartment buildings who didn't want to rent to me. I've been called "disgusting" by a fat, red-faced man with a German accent, and I have been propositioned by a wrinkly old white man from Florida who told me he'd "always wanted a negro girl." (Blogger C)

As there was only one blogger from research phase one who discussed skin colour in this way, it was not identified as a key theme and was thus not incorporated into the survey questions. Rather, this theme was arrived at inductively through the open-ended qualitative response options in research phase two, together with the initial remarks made by blogger C. As such, it is not possible to quantify the extent to which negative racial discrimination may be a problem for TEFL teachers in Thailand, although it does raise this as an important area worthy of further examination. Furthermore, it can be argued that the possibility of experiences such as this should be divulged to prospective TEFL teachers who are not white-skinned by the agencies packaging and selling the TEFL experience in order to avoid potential psychological impacts and the dissatisfaction that such experiences may cause.

Professional integrity also appeared to be sacrificed in exchange for enhanced ego orientation and 'face' (Komin, 1990), where profits were prioritised over teaching quality. Respondents in research phase two explained that;

'I was working in a private school, and often the Headmaster was more concerned with profits than with the education of the students.'

'It seemed that ESL teaching in Thailand is very badly run. Everything is unorganized and done at the last minute. Education is secondary to making money and appeasing the parents by making them think their children are making progress when they are actually not.'

'Thai language schools are not interested in good teacher. They are purely used for government fraud, albeit money laundering or Education VISA immigration fraud. If get to shag a manager you may keep your job longer....[sic]'

'The owner of the language school I was working at turned out to be a lying, cheating, scheming, horrible excuse for a human being. Not only did he screw me over on 2 MONTHS worth of pay he also got up and left a trail of destruction and debt to other employee's and his ex-wife whose name the business was under.' [sic] (Blogger U)

Whilst there was little evidence of this in research phase one, questions relating to frustrations in research phase two gave rise to a theme in relation to commercial ethics. Claims made by respondents parallel problems identified in the volunteer tourism industry, where organisations have been seen to exploit niches such as TEFL teaching (Keese, 2011; Kogar, 2014; Tomazos and Butler, 2009), sacrificing the benevolent ideologies and intended benefits to the hosts (Benson and Wearing, 2012; Tomazos and Cooper, 2012). It is suggested that this may be due to the lack of regulation of the TEFL industry in Thailand (Scriberras, 2012; Tomazos and Butler, 2009). As in similar industries, such as volunteer tourism where the negative impacts resulting from increased commercialization have been discussed, it is suggested that there is an urgent need for further research with regard to the TEFL industry in order to avoid malpractice and, where possible, secure benefits for the hosts.

8.10 Continuous Professional Development

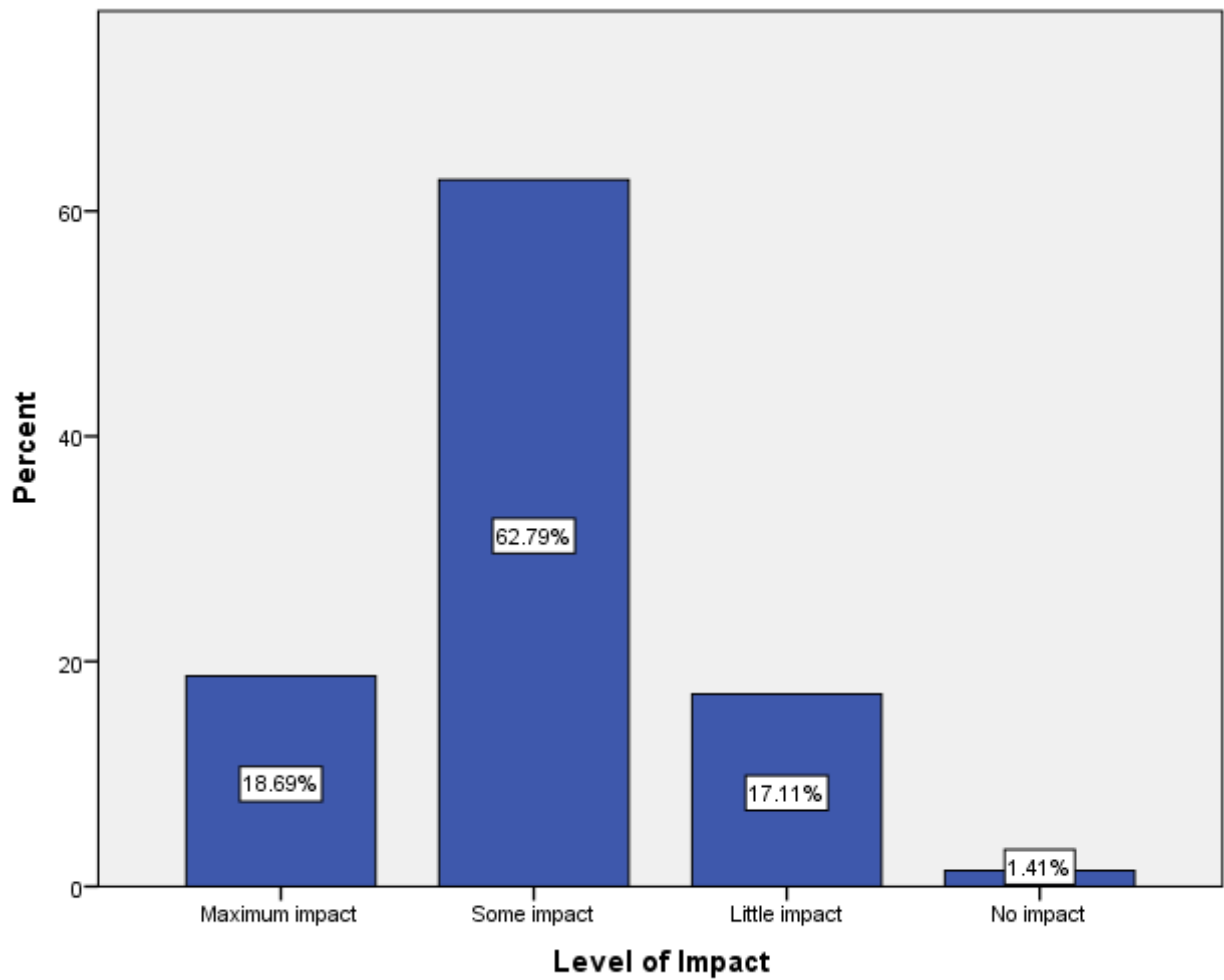
The ideals of education in Thailand are very much focussed around the concept of lifelong learning (National Education Council, 2005), which was identified in the literature as an integral part of both travel and teaching. Whilst there was strong evidence of learning on the part of the teacher, both formally and informally, there were few similarities between the CPD expectations identified by the nations examined in appendix five and the experiences of the bloggers and respondents in this research. Blogger G commented that she was not confident in her teaching abilities;

'I am not an amazing teacher – I am not particularly fun or creative and half the time I don't really know what to do with my class. This makes me sad – I'm not sure if it's just me or if I genuinely haven't been trained properly. Although I feel like a bit of a fraud when it comes to teaching. I do love the kids – all of them.'

In support of this, 81.3% of respondents in research phase two did not feel that their teaching had maximum impact on the student's education. There was a relationship between those who organised their TEFL experience via a packaged product and perceived impact, with figure 8.24 indicating a negative correlation identified between booking via a package and the educational impact ($\chi^2 9.6$, $df=3$, $p<0.05$). Whilst there will

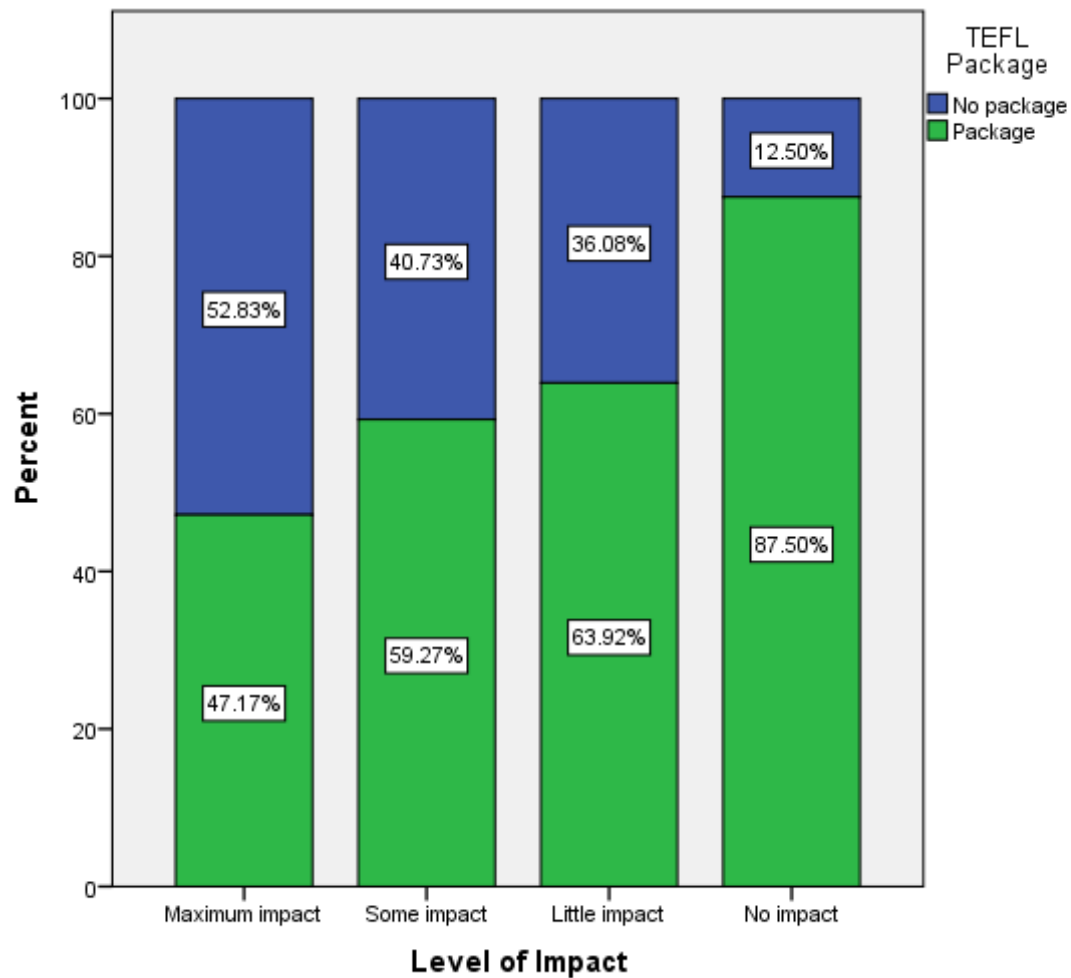
inevitably be a number of circumstances contributing to this, many of which such as class size or poor behaviour have been discussed, CPD could help to combat this.

Figure 8.23: Perceived Impact Level of TEFL Teaching on Student Education



(Valid responses=567)

Figure 8.24: Level of Impact Package Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

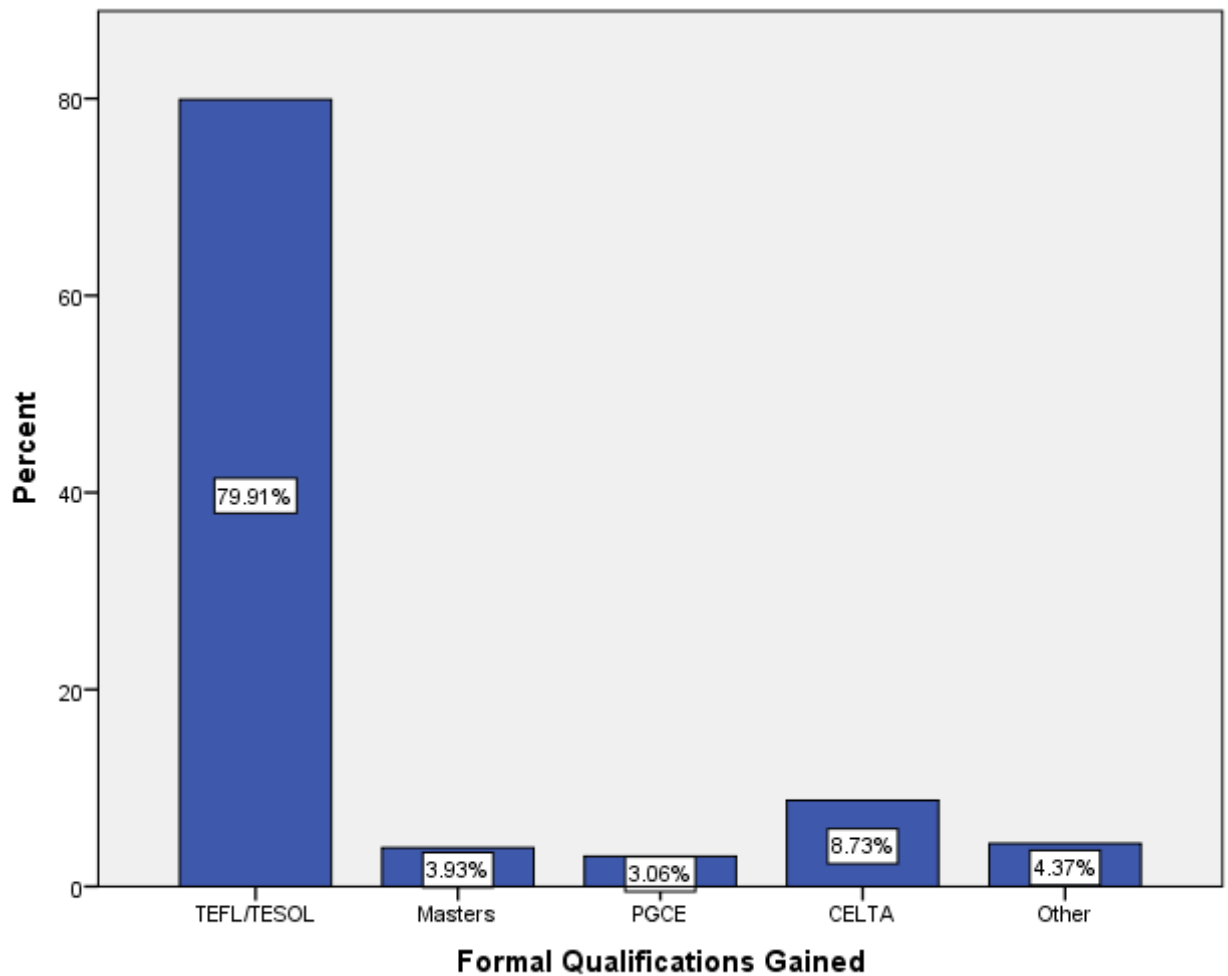
Aspects such as being responsive to constructive feedback and critical reflection of teaching practice are central to CPD in many educational systems (e.g. Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; UK Department for Education, 2013; Irish Teaching Council, 2012; USA Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 2011). Although this is difficult to measure given the variety of methods available in undertaking CPD, this was tested in research phase two with regard to teaching observations. It was identified that 61.7% of respondents' teaching had been observed. Examination of qualitative responses however revealed that many of these observations were not formal, but were rather the result of a Thai teacher sitting at the

back of the class to monitor behaviour or to facilitate translation, thus indicating that such observations may not have had the intended CPD benefits.

Despite there being little evidence in the data of CPD facilitated by the educational institution, there was evidence of learning that took place as a result of the TEFL experience. This was both formal and informal in nature.

Whilst it was not possible to determine whether formal learning was the dominant reason for undertaking the TEFL placement or whether it was secondary to the opportunity to travel (Ritchie *et al*, 2003), it is clear that this was a common element of the TEFL experience. Section 6.3.9 outlined that a TEFL qualification was a common component of the TEFL package, with 69.5% of packages incorporating this (page 136). This is further emphasised in figure 8.25, where of the 40.4% of respondents who obtained a qualification whilst undertaking their TEFL experience, 79.9% obtained TEFL/TESOL qualifications. Due to the vast range of TEFL qualifications and the lack of current regulation (Ajarn, 2014; Griffith, 2014) it is not clear, however, what the structure of these qualifications is, how they were delivered or what their value was.

Figure 8.25: Qualifications Gained as Part of TEFL Experience



(Valid responses=229)

The most prevalent type of learning identified related to the fostering of self-reflection and developments in personality traits and behaviours (table 8.8) which has similarly been noted in a number of studies focusing on the volunteer tourism industry (e.g. Alexander, 2012; Benson and Wearing, 2012; Broad and Jenkins, 2008; Gray and Campbell, 2007; Sin, 2009; Soderman and Snead, 2008; Wickens, 2011). Rather than deriving from the formalities of the classroom context (Falk and Dierking, 2010; Falk, Storksdieck and Dierking, 2007), these educational benefits, as suggested by Abrams (1979), demonstrated the holistic nature of learning through the TEFL experience abroad, where bloggers and respondents uncovered knowledge for themselves, exhibiting notions of meaningful discovery through existential learning (Boydell, 1976; Kolb, 1984; Stone and Petrick, 2013). Structural shifts on the premise of thoughts, feeling

and actions (O’Sullivan, 2002) and one’s world beliefs or assumptions demonstrates aspects of existential learning (Coghlan and Gooch, 2011; Mezirow, 1991), whilst qualities that inform future career or personal progression indicate lifelong learning (Broomhall *et al*, 2010; Falk *et al*, 2012). These aspects are identified in table 8.8 below.

Table 8.8: Self-Reflection and Development

Self-Reflection and Development (multiple response)	Number	Percent of Respondents
Improved teaching Skills	487	85.9
Changed as a person	438	77.2
Improved communication skills	423	74.6
Prefer to travel to areas with less tourists	415	73.2
Have become more conscious of my actions	371	65.4
Can speak to people I do not know more easily	362	63.8
More street-wise	361	63.7
Developed problem-solving skills	352	62.1
Material possessions are less important now	323	57.0
Can haggle	312	55.0
Have become a less selfish person	267	47.1
Can communicate in Thai	227	40.0

(Valid responses=4338)

Whilst it is beyond the scope of this thesis to examine the theoretical aspects of learning, it is evident that substantial learning did take place amongst most respondents, whether this was intentional or not. This was explained by bloggers E and F1 respectively;

‘I certainly wouldn’t go so far to say that I’m “finding myself” gap-yah style, but Thailand is definitely providing me with the mental space that I craved. I’m learning more about myself such as what I really value, who I value’[sic]

‘Living here has placed me in situations I could never have dreamt of being in, and each time I surprised myself with how I reacted. I saw with clarity some of my not so desirable characteristics, and tried my best to improve on them (namely my sometimes short temper). And in contrast it gave me opportunities and confidence to be a version of myself I’d never thought I could be (who knew I could entertain 32, 7 year olds on the spot or sing on stage without a hint of self consciousness?)... I’ve fallen in love with

places, people, food, ideas, I've done so many things for the first time and I've learnt so much about a different culture and ultimately myself.'

As discussed in section 8.3, education and culture often come hand in hand, a strong theme throughout this thesis. This was emphasised not only through the analysis of TEFL experiences (as previously discussed), it was also evident through much of the blog content that bloggers had learned a lot about Thai culture with 364 references coded as indirect-education, where the blogger described the culture but did not directly discuss the concept of education. For example, blogger B wrote:

'What is a Wai you may ask? It's a form of greeting that shows respect, whereby you create a prayer like shape with your hands with your thumbs pointing to your chest and gently bow your head whilst saying hello in Thai. As I walked through the school, students would wai and if they walked passed you, they would lower their heads as a sign of respect to you (respect for elders is huge over here).'

Similarly, blogger E details what he has learnt about a Thai festival;

'I have had the pleasure of experiencing the festival of Loi Krathong in Bangkok, where it is tradition to float flower baskets on the water, in order to pay the water respect and apologise to it for using it. As the little basket is lowered into the water it is customary to make a wish whilst giving thanks. On this particular evening, the whole of Bangkok is lit up by these little baskets with candles in the middle, floating along the water, whilst fireworks burn holes in the night sky. I missed Bonfire Night in the UK but I felt that this evening (which coincidentally was the day after) was ample compensation.'

Whilst much of the learning identified in this section does not necessarily correlate with the traditional CPD methods identified in the educational systems examined in appendix four, a strong theme of educational benefits has been identified in this thesis. Whilst there are opportunities for both formal and informal learning and professional development it is, however, impossible to determine whether the educational benefits are the results of travel, interaction with Thai culture, classroom study or a combination of all of these (Abrams, 1979). In fact, it can be argued that the TEFL experiences examined are closely aligned with the educational values in Thailand, where lifelong

learning facilitates the acquisition of knowledge and skills sufficient for leading a meaningful life and promoting social development (National Education Council, 2005).

8.11 Conclusion

It can be concluded that the typical duties of the bloggers and respondents examined in this research are not congruent with the teaching expectations in the five most common TEFL teacher originating destinations (UK, Ireland, USA, Australia, South Africa). Whilst this chapter draws upon only a summary of the pedagogy employed in the respective destinations, it does highlight several key differences warranting subsequent further research. It is suggested in this chapter that the various stakeholders are unaware of the majority of duties and practices of TEFL teachers in Thailand, due to limited literature, particularly on the websites of agencies who sell commodified TEFL packages. As such this chapter contributes to the knowledge of the role of a TEFL teacher in Thailand, whilst also highlighting several areas in need of further research beyond the scope of this thesis.

A central theme of this chapter was Thai culture, with a particular focus on Komin's (1990) ego orientation, and the impacts that this appears to have on the TEFL experience. It was suggested that this ego orientation was the precursor to the inherent shyness of students, excess cheating, racial discrimination and hierarchy, lack of parental involvement and lateness and absenteeism. It was also suggested that this was the reason for the frequency with which bloggers and respondents were required to take part in school shows and concerts and undertake public singing and dancing, a factor which subsequently made many respondents feel uncomfortable.

It was identified that many respondents were frustrated as a result of a lack of facilities, particularly those in rural locations and public schools. Furthermore, whilst educational institutions may have the funds to improve their facilities, this option is often exchanged for opportunities to increase 'face' and to make the school look good, for example by putting on additional concerts or shows. The issue of increasing face provided links to the ego orientation cultural marker. In contrast to typical Thai education methods, there was an excessive use of games as a teaching method, raising questions about the detail

of planning and pedagogic knowledge possessed by TEFL teachers. Differentiation was also limited as a result of the collectivist nature of Thai society, in contrast to the individualist approach generally taken in the five TEFL teacher originating countries examined in appendix five.

Behaviour management was highlighted as a particular concern due to the ethical and moral implications associated. It is common practice for physical punishment to take place in Thai educational institutions, despite it being illegal. Viewed as a breach of human rights in many parts of the world, this caused most respondents to feel uncomfortable. Ethical issues were also raised through the identification of the strong notions of racism, where white-skinned bloggers and respondents were frequently subjected to positive forms of discrimination and dark or black-skinned teachers were the victims of negative discrimination.

There were a large number of professional responsibilities that were required of TEFL teachers that do not appear to be requirements of teachers in the nations examined in appendix five. This included taking part in shows and concerts, public singing and dancing, assemblies, English camps and teaching people other than students, most frequently the Thai police or non-English colleagues. By contrast, there appeared to be little administration and limited contact with parents.

Finally, it was identified that there was a strong notion of CPD, although this appeared to take quite a different form from that typically expected in other destinations. This incorporated both formal and informal learning, where TEFL courses and self-reflection were the most prominent forms of learning. Although it was not possible to determine whether this learning was the intention or the result of the TEFL experience, it appeared to be generally aligned with the lifelong learning and societal balance promoted by Thai educational philosophy. The following chapter encapsulates the key themes identified in this chapter along with those identified in chapters six and seven to introduce TEFL tourism as a niche tourism form, presenting alongside a proposed definition and typology of teachers.

9.1 Introduction

As a phenomenon, TEFL tourism is a diverse, multifaceted and inter-disciplinary concept. Whilst the literature relating to educational tourism provides some linkage between the two industries of education and tourism, findings of this research throws new light on this relationship. This thesis demonstrates that in contrast to educational tourism as it has traditionally been known, the relationship between education and tourism is two dimensional, where the education need not only be received by the tourist, but the tourist can also provide the education. As was argued in chapter three, any associations between TEFL and tourism have to date been encompassed within volunteer tourism. However, whilst there are similarities and lessons that can be learned from volunteer tourism, it has been demonstrated that TEFL tourism is a different entity in terms of remuneration, packaged products, experiences and motivations.

This chapter takes into account the TEFL characteristics, motivations and experiences identified in this research in order to contribute to knowledge through the proposal of a new form of niche tourism: TEFL tourism. The chapter commences by operationalising a definition of the TEFL tourist and presenting the teacher-tourist spectrum. It then proceeds to present the TEFL typology. The typology has been developed in line with the four key themes that emerged throughout research phases one and two; leisure, philanthropy, career and expatriatism. For each theme, an index is presented based on associated motivations and experiences, where respondents were classified according to their dominant score. This classification facilitated the logistic regression, where the binary outcome of member versus non-member was tested in accordance with the associated variables. Section 9.3.5 concludes the analysis through a visual representation of the identified relationships.

9.2 The TEFL Tourist: A Definition

Rooted in the ambiguous concepts of tourism and TEFL, the TEFL tourism phenomenon is subject to a level of complexity. Geographical and cultural contexts, surging globalisation, (Khamkien, 2010; Punthumasen, 2007), developing economies (Kirkpatrick, 2012), the growing need for English teachers (British Council, 2014), lack of regulation (Scriberras, 2012) and the differences across education systems (see chapter eight) all contribute to the TEFL tourism industry being broad and diverse in nature. As such, the proposed definition of a TEFL tourist, which is developed on the case-study basis of TEFL in Thailand, is not intended to be representative of TEFL tourists across all countries, but rather as a basis from which contextualisation can occur depending on the unique circumstances of different geographic locations.

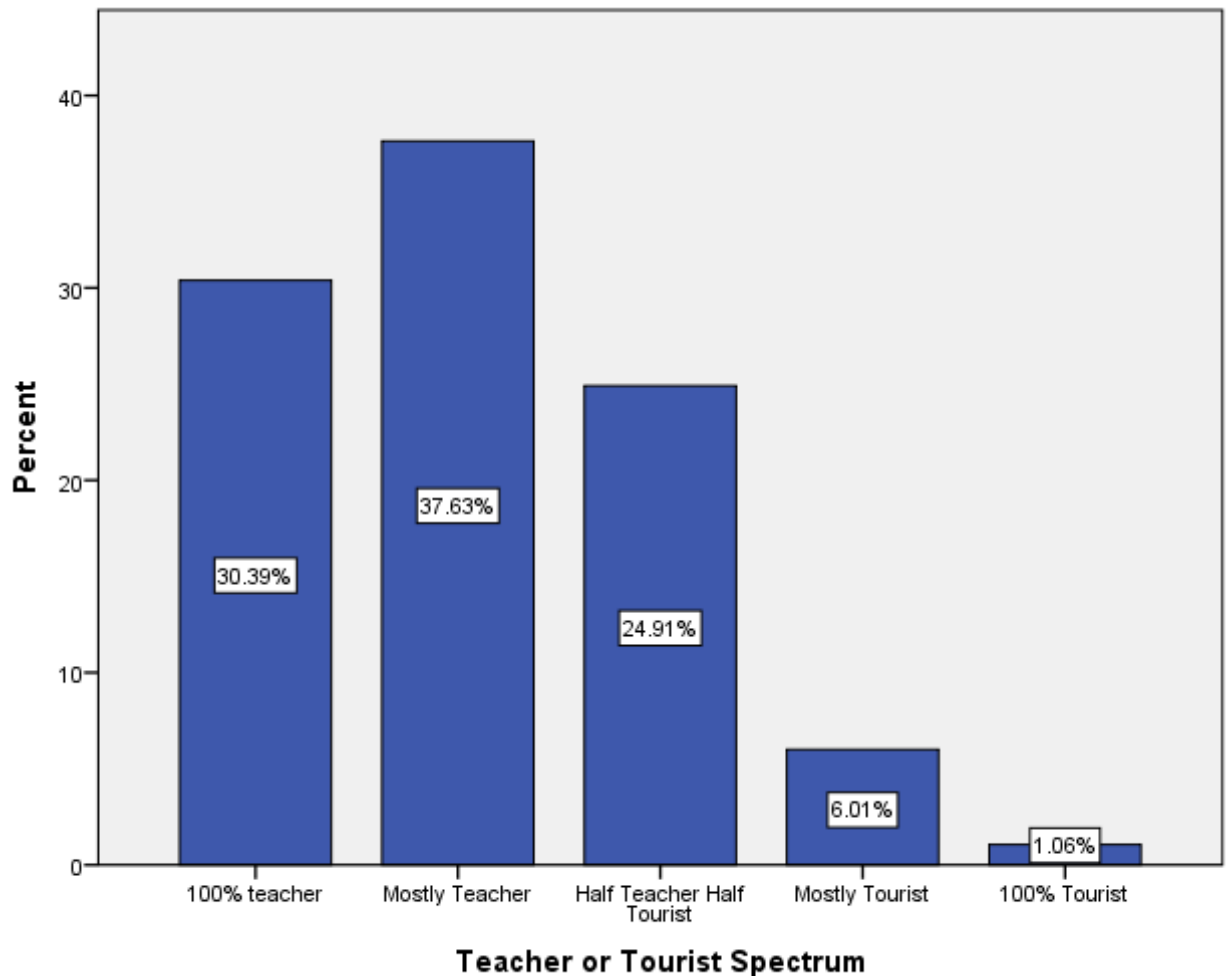
Findings of this research demonstrate that the TEFL experience generally encompasses both elements of tourism and education. As discussed in chapter three, it is argued that the TEFL teacher should be classified as a tourist on two grounds. Firstly, they travel away from their home country for a specified period of time to undertake their TEFL experience. Secondly, by undertaking tourist activities as part of the TEFL experience through the means of short breaks or day-trips, they are effectively ‘tourists within tourists’. Similarly, the research found that TEFL teachers qualify as educational tourists in two respects: they are educated, whether formally or informally as part of their TEFL experience, and they are the educators. Whilst acknowledging existing definitions of these concepts, the TEFL tourist can be operationally defined as;

‘A person who travels outside of their usual environment to teach English as a foreign language, whose role shifts between tourist, educator and educatee at various points in their trip’

The premise of interchangeable roles is particularly important, with bloggers and respondents identifying that their roles frequently shifted according to the day of the week, geographic location and the people that they are with (see chapter seven). Mustonen (2005) similarly found in his research on volunteer tourism that one may go from a tourist seeking out pleasure, relaxation or stimulation during one part of a

volunteer tourist trip, to altruistically helping the community at other times. Sin (2009) built on this notion by stating that tourists perceive themselves differently at different points of their trip. In support of this, figure 9.1 demonstrates that most (68.6%) respondents to varying degrees classified themselves as partly tourist and partly teacher.

Figure 9.1: Teacher-Tourist Classifications

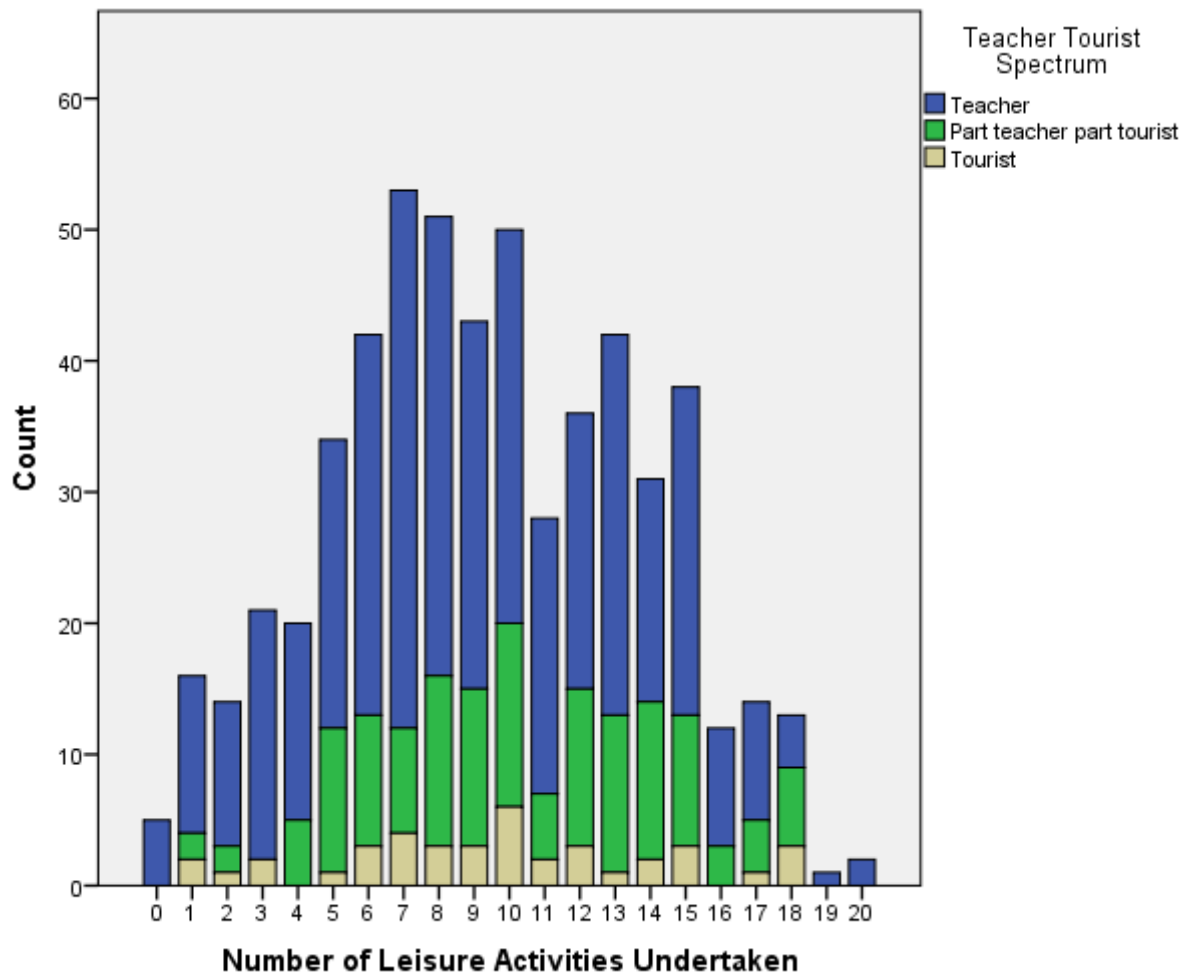


(Valid responses=567)

As suggested in the volunteer tourism literature (Wearing, 2001; Stoddart and Rogerson, 2004; Lepp, 2008), some (30.4%) respondents in this research did not perceive themselves as tourists at any point during their trip. This can, however be disputed due to the subjective nature of self-classification and a contradiction between the

classifications in figure 9.1 and the number of tourist activities undertaken identified in figure 9.2.

Figure 9.2: Number of Leisure Activities Undertaken Teacher Tourist Spectrum
Correlation



(Valid responses=567)

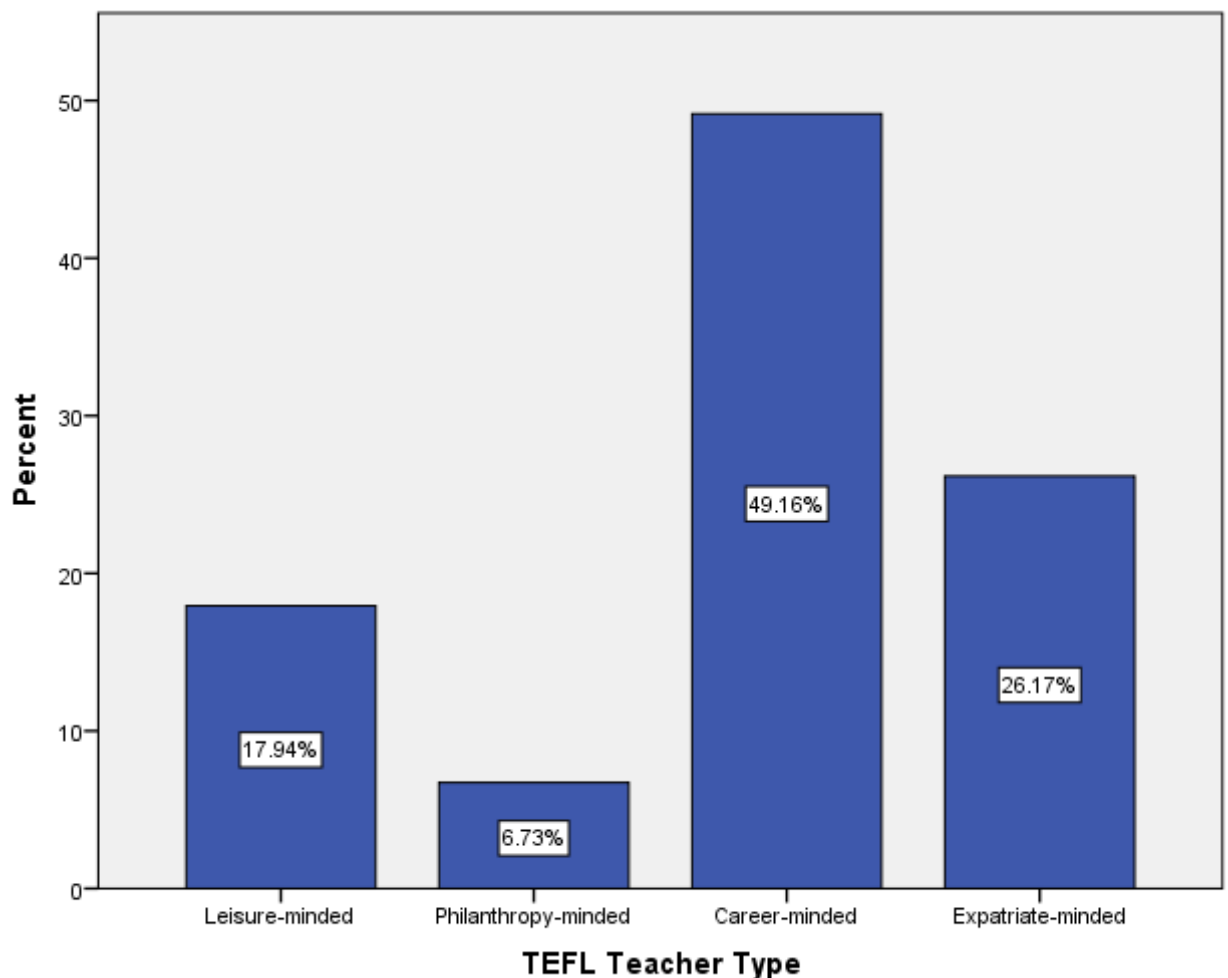
A test for the mean demonstrated that the average respondent undertook 9.3 of the popular leisure activities listed in table 7.1, with a standard deviation of 4.3. Only 0.9% of respondents, all of who classified themselves as 100% teacher, stated that they had not been involved in any of the listed leisure activities. Whilst this indicates that the majority of respondents (99.1%) took part in tourism-based activities, it does not demonstrate how many times the respondents might have undertaken any one activity. It would be expected that those who classify themselves as mainly teachers would have less involvement with the leisure activities listed in table 7.1 than those claiming to be

mostly tourists. This relationship was not however supported by the findings as shown in figure 9.1 (χ^2 39.96, df=40, $p>0.05$), indicating that whether TEFL tourists perceive themselves as being teachers or tourists is not necessarily representative of their experiences.

9.3 The TEFL Typology

As a result of the lack of correlation between respondent self-classification and stated activities undertaken, the TEFL typology was created based on respondent motivations and experiences. For each of the four themes (leisure, philanthropy, career, expatriatism) an index was created identifying the associated attributes (see tables 9.1, 9.5, 9.9 and 9.13). Respondents were awarded one point for every attribute identified and a percentage score was calculated for each theme. The respondent was then classified according to their highest score. Results are presented in figure 9.3. Whilst this categorisation does provide indication of the respondent's dominant motives and experiences, it is important to recognise that respondents identified attributes across multiple themes and that no respondent is limited solely to one category. As such this categorisation is indicative in nature rather than absolute. Respondents for whom their highest score was equal to the score of an alternative category were coded as missing and removed from the data analysis in order to ensure maximum reliability. As a result the total number of valid responses was 535.

Figure 9.3: TEFL Teacher Types



(Valid responses=535)

TEFL teacher types were then tested within a logistic regression model, where independent variables (based on findings from research phase two) were inserted into the model to determine the significance of their relationship within the model, the variance and the odds ratio (Exponential(B)). This allowed for a typological model to be developed for each teacher-type. All variables identified in the models were encompassed in the equation. The odds ratio presented is thus not for the individual relationship between the dependent and the independent variables, but rather the prediction is shared between the independent variables, which may create a suppressor effect. The following sections present the analysis for each teacher-type.

9.3.1 The Leisure-Minded TEFLer

In support of the theme of leisure and tourism presented in chapter seven, 17.9% of respondents were classified as leisure-minded TEFLers. The mean leisure score amongst respondents was 45.8% with a standard deviation of 18.4. This was the smallest standard deviation of all four themes, demonstrating that a higher number of values are bunched around the mean and therefore that there is less variance between the average leisure score between respondents than for the philanthropy, career or expatriatism TEFLers. Whilst this score indicates that on average respondents were affiliated with almost half of the attributes identified in table 9.1, it is limited in that it does not account for frequencies. A respondent's experience could, for example, be centred on regular days at the beach and getting drunk and/or taking drugs, thus accounting for only two attributes in the leisure index, despite leisure being a prominent part their TEFL experiences. Based on this premise, coupled with the strong theme of leisure identified in chapter seven, it is acknowledged that the number of respondents that should be classified as leisure-minded TEFLers may be higher than represented in this data.

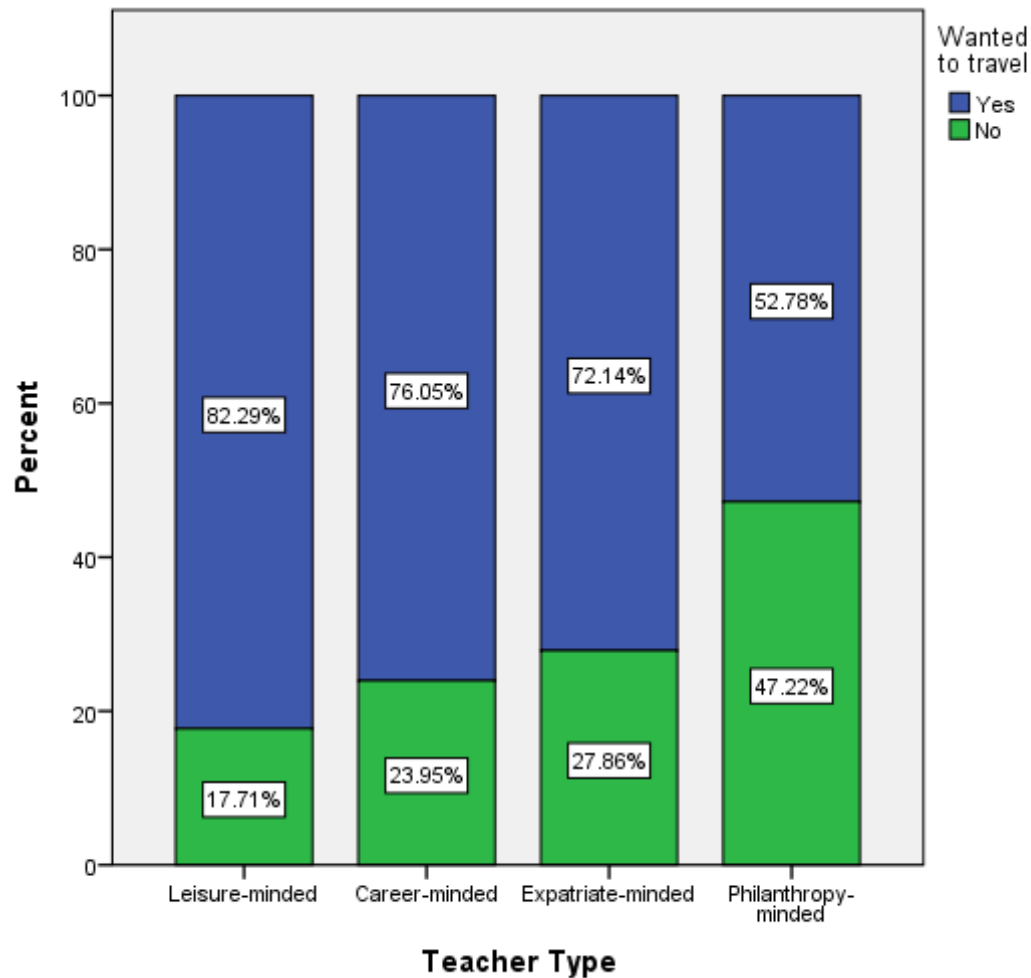
Table 9.1: Leisure Index

Leisure Attribute		Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
Perception	Tourism was important	488	86
	Craved adventure	459	81
Motivation	Wanted to travel	420	74.1
	Access to beaches	128	22.6
	The nightlife	114	20.1
	The sex-tourism-based nightlife opportunities	32	5.64
	Visited temples	436	76.9
Experiences	Went to the beach	426	75.1
	Went to bars/clubs in the local community	418	73.7
	Went shopping	402	70.9
	Visited national parks	380	67
	Visited waterfalls	375	66.1
	Visited historical sites/memorials	367	64.7
	Got drunk	348	61.4
	Went to parties with colleagues	349	61.6
	Went to bars/ clubs in the tourist areas	336	59.3
	Attended festivals/concerts/shows	301	53.1
	Visited caves	237	41.8
	Watched/took part in sport (i.e. muay Thai boxing)	212	37.4
	Went snorkelling/diving	197	34.7
	Rode elephants/visited elephant sanctuaries	198	34.9
	Went to 'go-go bars' or strip clubs	105	18.5
	Went to beach parties/full moon parties	166	29.3
	Watch a sex show/ping pong show	82	14.5
	Trekking/zip lined through the Jungle	107	18.9
	Spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute	53	9.3
	Visited tigers	81	14.3
	Took drugs	57	10.1

(Valid responses=7274)

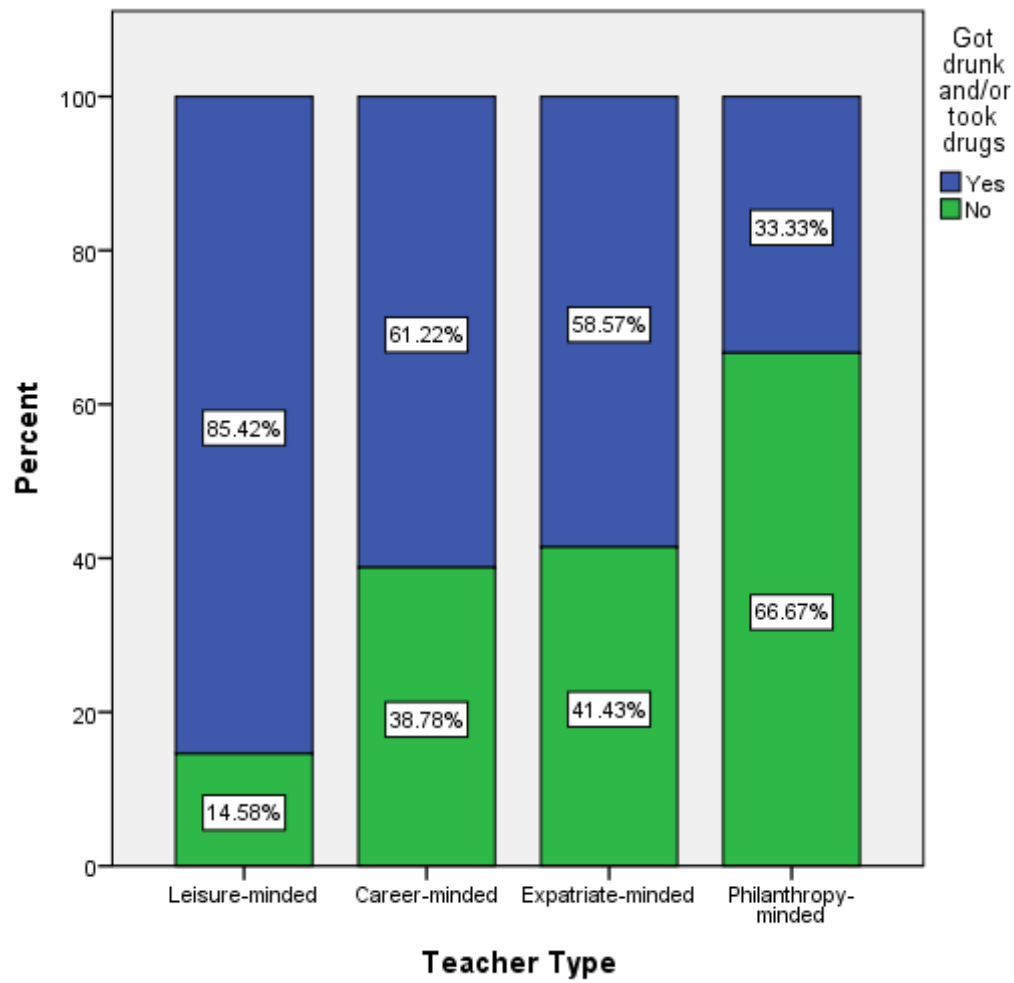
A series of cross-tabulations (see figures 9.4-9.6) demonstrated that the leisure-minded TEFLer was the most likely teacher type to be motivated to travel (χ^2 12.77, df=3, $p<0.05$), be involved with alcohol and drugs (χ^2 35.82, df=3, $p<0.01$) and participate in sex-tourism (χ^2 38.00, df=3, $p<0.01$). The group also consisted of the youngest TEFL teachers, with 88.5% of respondents being aged below 30 (figure 9.7).

Figure 9.4: Teacher Type Wanted to Travel Correlation



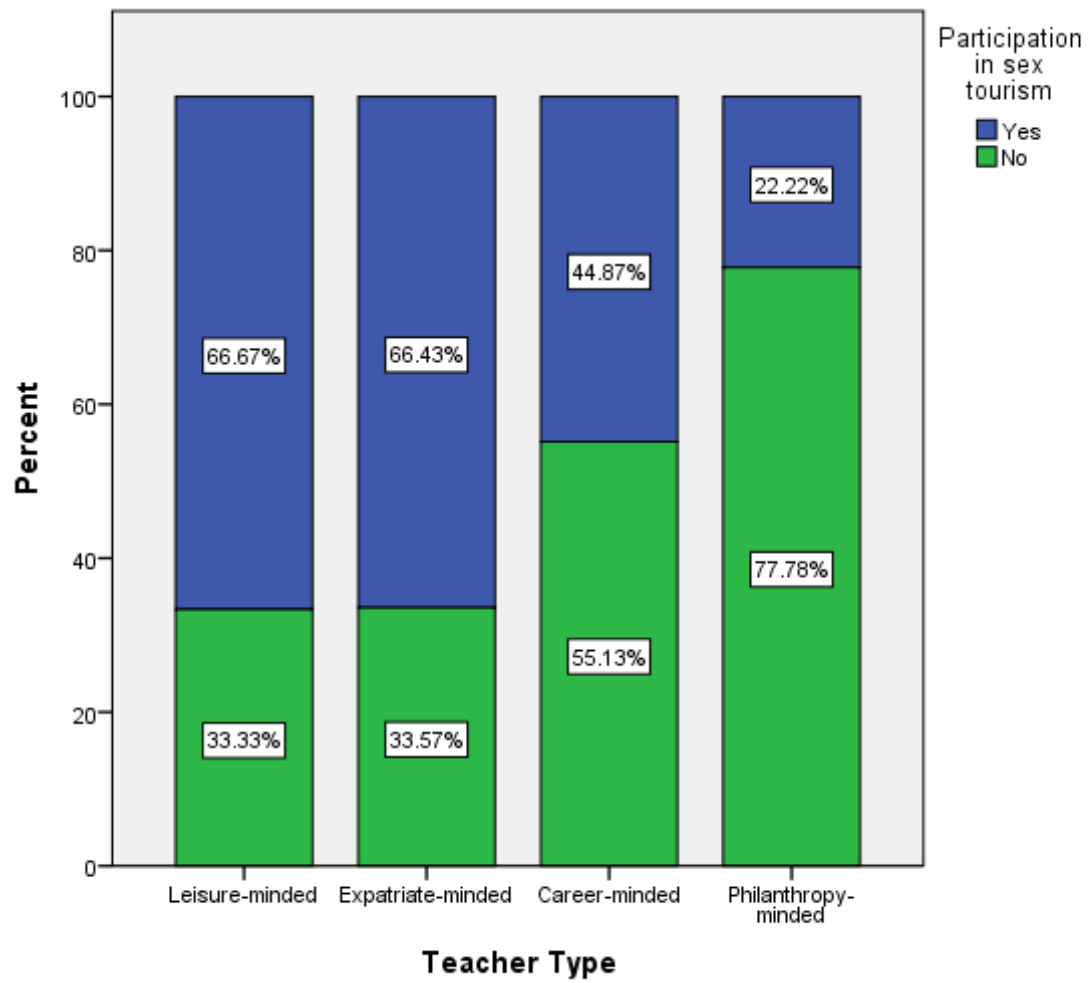
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.5: Teacher Type Got Drunk and/or Took Drugs Correlation



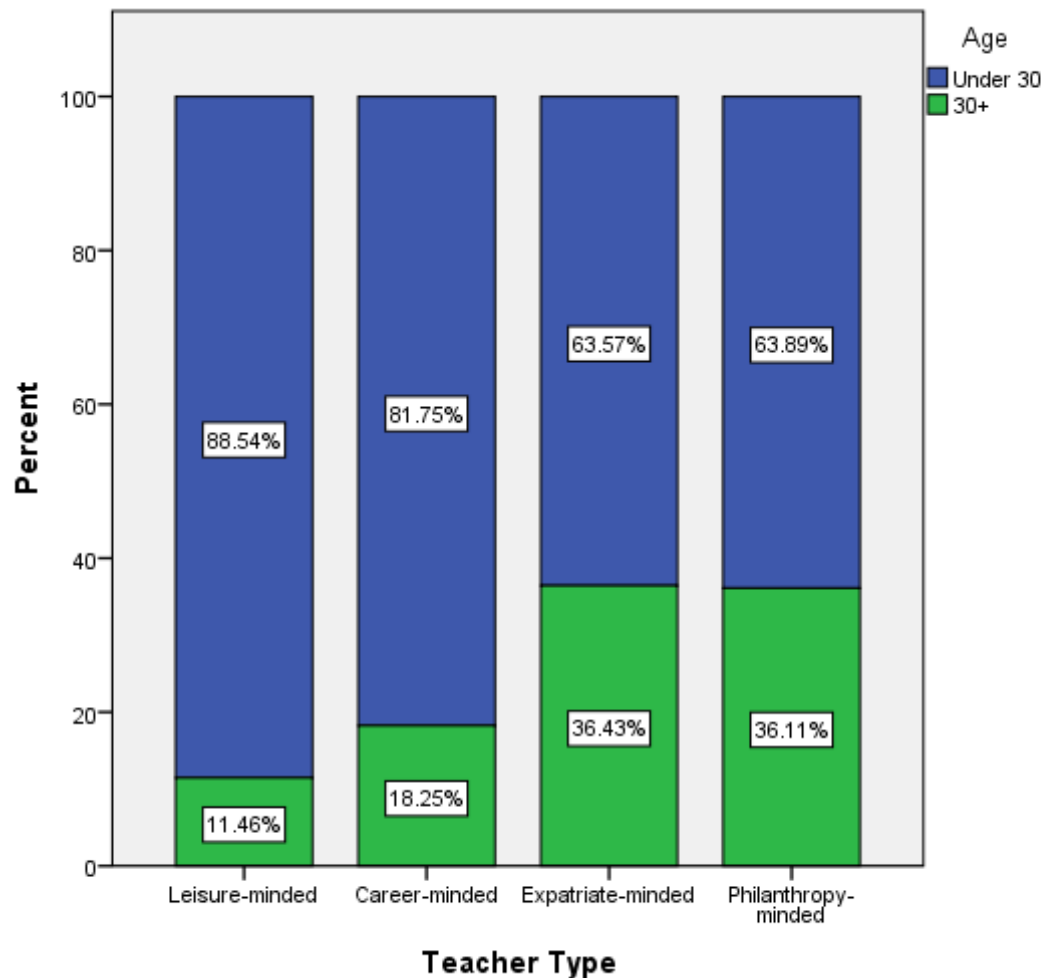
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.6: Teacher Type Participation in Sex Tourism Correlation



(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.7: Teacher-Type Age Correlation



(Valid responses=535)

A logistic regression test demonstrated that there were twelve independent variables that contributed to the ability to predict whether a respondent is a member of the leisure-minded TEFLer group. As demonstrated in table 9.2, with no predictor variables inserted into the model the null hypothesis (that respondents were not a member of the leisure-minded TEFLer group) was 82.9% correct. The ability to predict group membership was then improved to 86.3% when the independent variables were included in the model. Table 9.3 demonstrates that the model is statistically significant (χ^2 125.3, df=12, $p < 0.01$) and that 33% of the variance in the model is accounted for by the independent variables (Naglekerke R^2).

Table 9.2: Leisure-Minded Tefler Model Influence

Observed	Prediction without Independent Variables			Prediction with Independent Variables		
	Group Member		Percentage Correct	Group Member		Percentage Correct
	No	Yes		No	Yes	
Group Member No	466	0	100.0	452	14	97
Yes	96	0	.0	63	33	34.4
Overall Percentage			82.9			86.3

Table 9.3: Leisure-Minded TEFLer Model Variance

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Nagelkerke R Square
125.295	12	0.000	0.333

Table 9.4: Variables in the Leisure-Minded TEFLer Model

Independent Variables	Coefficient (B)	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Odds Ratio (Exp(B))	Odds Ratio Percent
Motivated by access to beaches	1.335	1	0.000	3.799	379.9
Got drunk and/or took drugs	1.144	1	0.002	3.141	314.1
Spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute	1.090	1	0.014	2.975	297.5
Motivated because of the desire to travel	0.676	1	0.044	1.967	196.7
Participation in sex tourism	0.644	1	0.027	1.905	190.5
Preferred to travel to areas with less tourists	-0.703	1	0.14	0.495	49.5
Motivated by prospects for a slower pace of life	-.826	1	.010	0.438	43.8
Age above or below 30	-.831	1	.056	0.436	43.6
Motivated because the cost of living was cheaper	-.868	1	0.005	0.420	42
Motivated to enhance CV	-1.125	1	0.000	0.325	32.5
Motivated because of God's intentions	-1.314	1	0.29	0.269	26.9
Was in a romantic relationship with a native Thai	-1.410	1	0.003	0.244	24.4
Constant	-.672	1	0.378	0.511	51.1

(Included in analysis n=567)

Table 9.4 demonstrates that there are five dominant variables at play in this model where the odds ratios range from 190.5% to 379.9%. These variables have the strongest impact on the model, demonstrating how many times more likely the respondent is to be a member of the model should they satisfy the independent variable criteria. Three of the five variables are associated with nightlife tourism (got drunk and/or took drugs; spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute; participation in sex tourism- see chapter three), indicating that this was an important use of leisure time. A step process demonstrated that whilst the remaining variables only have a small impact on the model, they are necessary in order to increase predictive capacity. Some variables presented a negative coefficient (preferred to travel to areas with less tourists; motivated by prospects for a slower pace of life; motivated because the cost of living was cheaper; motivated to enhance CV; motivated because of God's intentions; was in

a romantic relationship with a native Thai), thus demonstrating that the statements were not true for respondents. These were therefore not incorporated into the typology summary on page 293. The variable 'age 30 and above or below 30' was also negative, which indicated that respondents were 43.6% more likely to be classified a leisure-minded TEFLer if they were aged below 30.

9.3.2 The Philanthropy-Minded TEFLer

The philanthropy-minded TEFLer was the smallest group, representing only 6.7% of respondents, and therefore the most difficult to predict. The mean philanthropy score was 35.3% with a standard deviation of 29.9. This was the smallest mean and the highest standard deviation amongst the four themes, indicating that whilst respondents demonstrated philanthropic attributes less frequently than the other themes, for those who did indicate such attributes the philanthropy scores varied greatly from the mean score amongst respondents. It is important to note that due to the small size of this typological group, figures may not be entirely representative and are thus indicative as opposed to definitive. Table 9.5 indicates the attributes that were associated with the development of the philanthropy index.

Table 9.5: Philanthropy Index

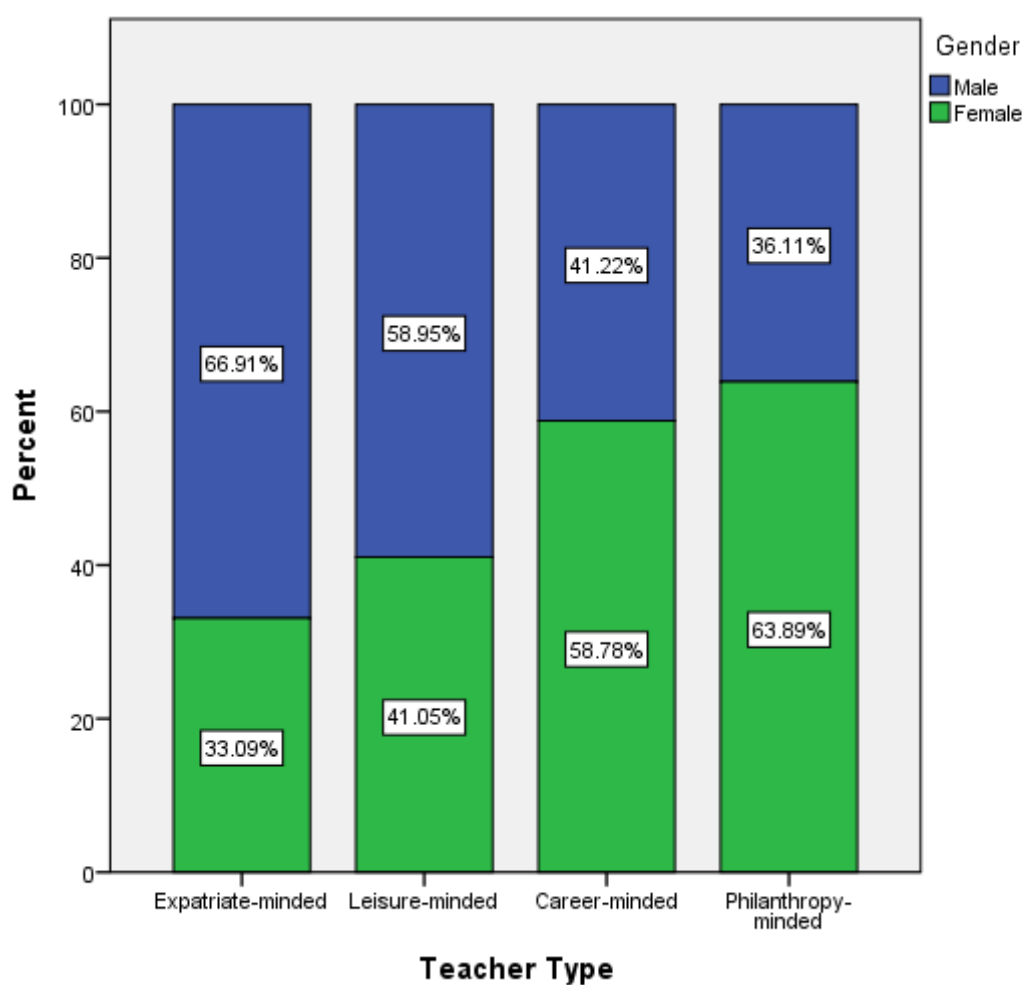
Philanthropic Attribute		Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
Motivations	To do something good	367	64.7
	It was the path God intended	76	13.4
Personal Development	Became more conscious of own actions	371	65.4
	Became a less selfish person	267	47.1
Experiences	Did missionary/volunteer work with the local community	84	14.8
	Visited a refugee camp	36	6.3

(Valid responses=1201)

There were five variables that demonstrated significant relationships with the philanthropy-minded dependent variable (figures 9.8-9.12). χ^2 tests showed that philanthropy-minded TEFLers consisted of the highest percentage of female TEFL

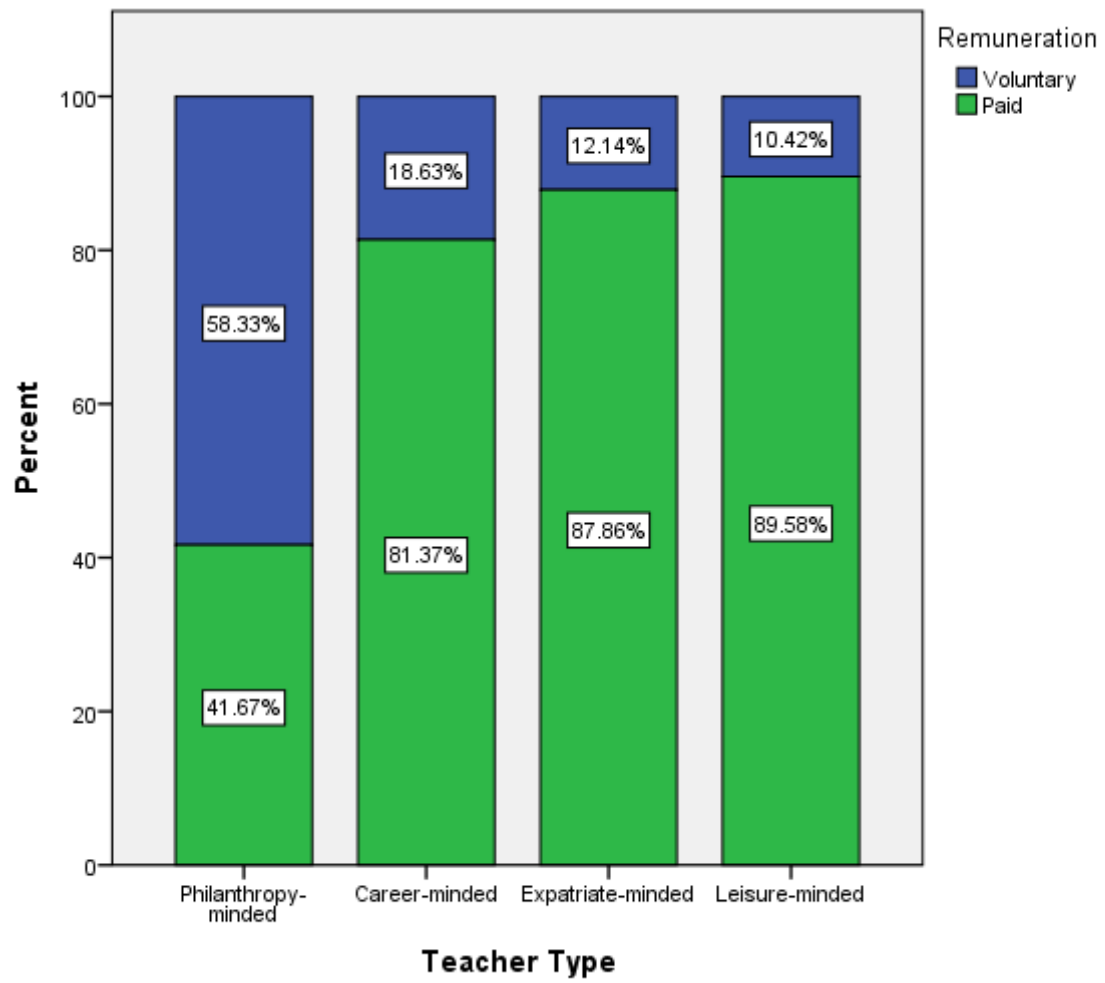
teachers across the categories (χ^2 29.68, df=3, $p<0.05$); they were significantly more likely to undertake voluntary placements than other teacher types (χ^2 46.47, df=3, $p<0.01$); they were most likely to undertake placements of under one year in duration (χ^2 9.53, df=3, $p<0.05$) and to be motivated by religion (χ^2 17.62, df=3, $p<0.01$) (figures 9.8-9.11). Based on the qualified teacher criteria presented on page 118, philanthropy TEFLers were the most likely group to be classified as unqualified (χ^2 16.14, df=3, $p<0.01$) (figure 9.12).

Figure 9.8: Gender Teacher-Type Correlation



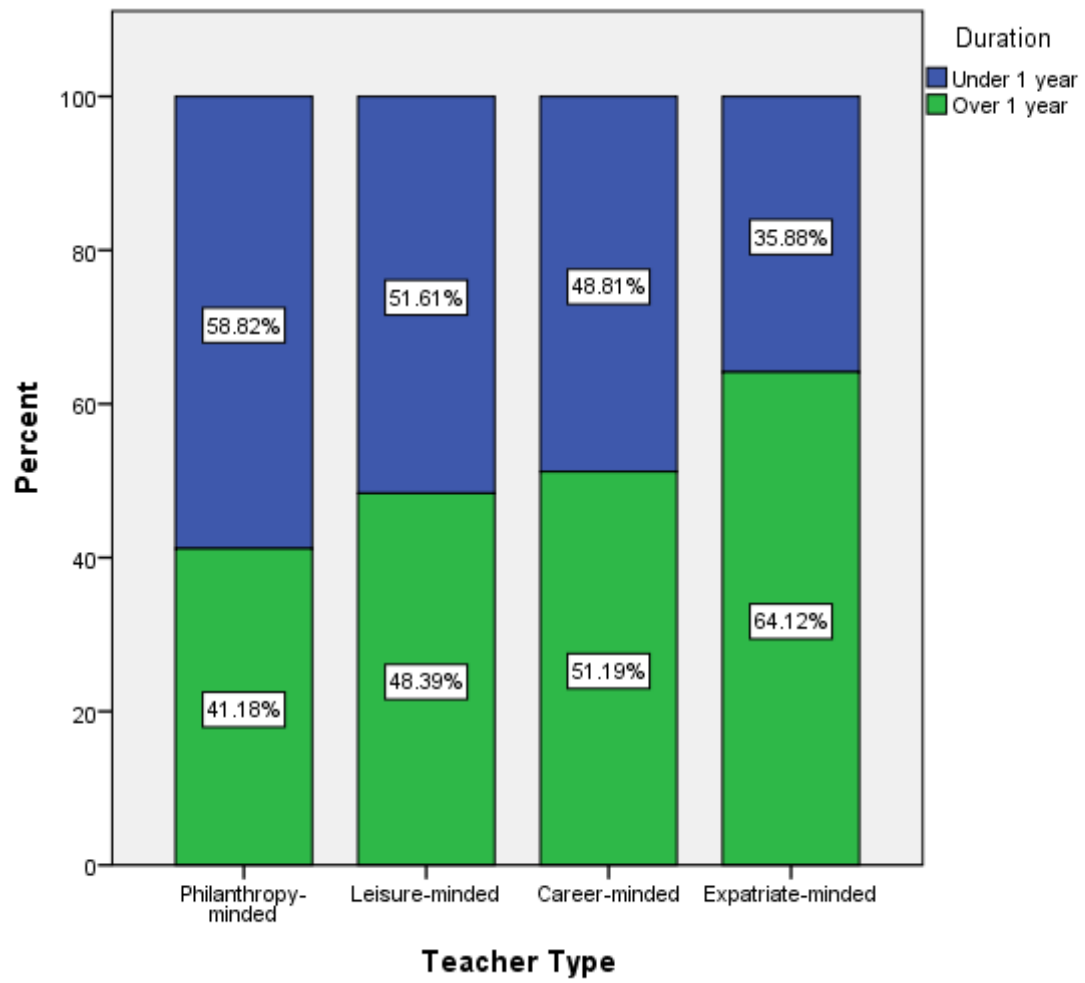
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.9: Teacher-Type Remuneration Correlation



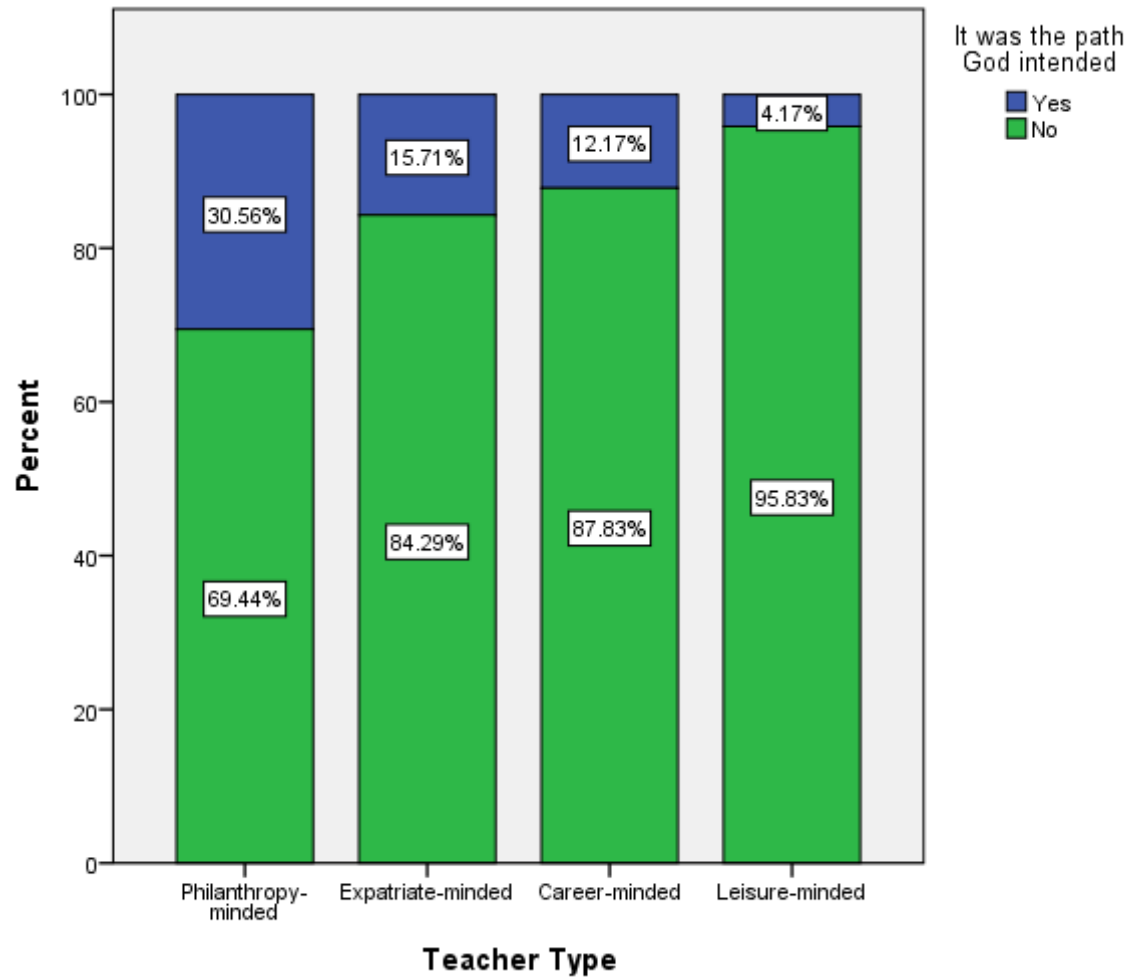
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.10: Placement Duration Teacher-Type Correlation



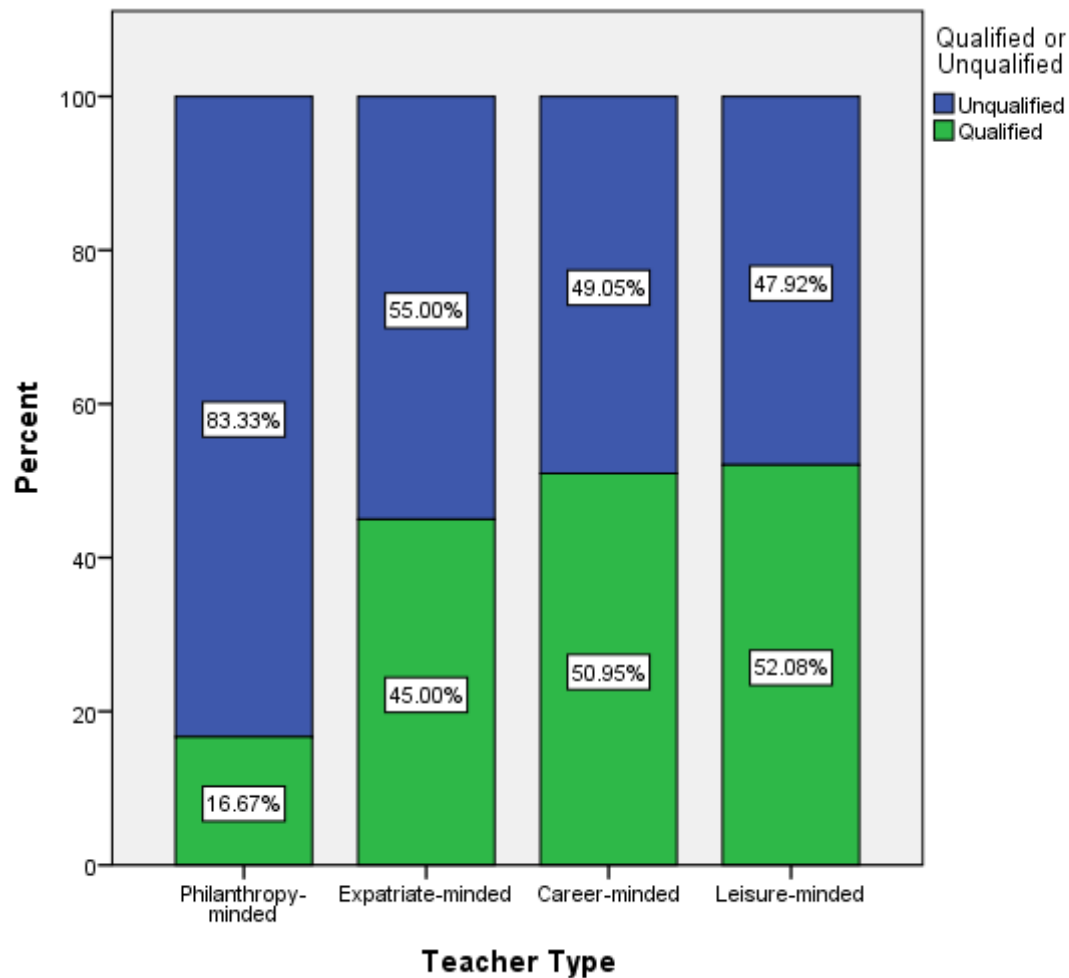
(Valid responses=510)

Figure 9.11: Religious Motivation Teacher-Type Correlation



(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.12: Qualified or Unqualified Teacher-Type Correlation



(Valid responses=535).

A logistic regression test demonstrated that there were four independent variables that were significantly associated with the philanthropy-minded TEFLer (χ^2 51.53, df=4, $p < 0.01$) (table 9.8), however unlike the other three typologies, the equation was not able to increase the prediction of group membership compared with the null model (table 9.6). SPSS output suggests that 23% of the variance in the model is accounted for by the independent variables (Naglekerke R^2 , table 9.7). However due to the small sample size for this group, coupled with the inability to increase predictability through the incorporation of the independent variables, this figure may not be reliable.

Table 9.6: Philanthropy-Minded TEFLer Model Influence

Observed	Prediction without Independent Variables			Prediction with Independent Variables		
	Group Member		Percentage Correct	Group Member		Percentage Correct
	No	Yes		No	Yes	
Group Member No	531	0	100.0	530	1	99.8
Yes	36	0	.0	35	1	2.8
Overall Percentage			93.7			93.7

Table 9.7: Philanthropy-Minded TEFLer Model Variance

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Nagelkerke R Square
51.532	4	0.000	0.231

Table 9.8: Variables in the Philanthropy-Minded TEFLer Model

Independent Variables	Coefficient (B)	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Odds Ratio (Exp(B))	Odds Ratio Percent
Motivated because of God's intentions	1.148	1	0.007	3.151	315.1
Paid or unpaid	-0.971	1	0.000	0.379	37.9
Motivated to do something different	-0.991	1	0.018	0.371	37.1
Unqualified or qualified	-1.403	1	0.003	0.246	24.6
Constant	.466	1	0.402	1.594	159.4

(Included in analysis=567)

Table 9.8 demonstrates that, while according to the data collated for this research there may not be a predictive capacity, there are four independent variables significantly associated with the philanthropy-minded TEFLer. These were therefore included in the model. The variable that has the most impact on the model is religious motivation with an odds ratio of 315.1%. The remaining variables play only a small role in the model.

Those who were unpaid were 37.9% more likely to be a member of the group than those who received a salary; those who were unqualified were 24.6% more likely to be a member than those who were classified as qualified (see page 118) and respondents who did not demonstrate the motivation to do something different were 37.1% more likely than those who did to be included in the model.

9.3.3 The Career-Minded TEFLer

The career-minded TEFLer was the largest group, consisting of almost half (49.2%) of respondents. The mean percentage score for career-minded attributes was the highest of all groups at 56.6%, thus indicating that career-based attributes were a substantial part of the TEFL experience. The standard deviation was 21.3. Table 9.9 outlines the attributes that were included in the career index.

Table 9.9: Career Index

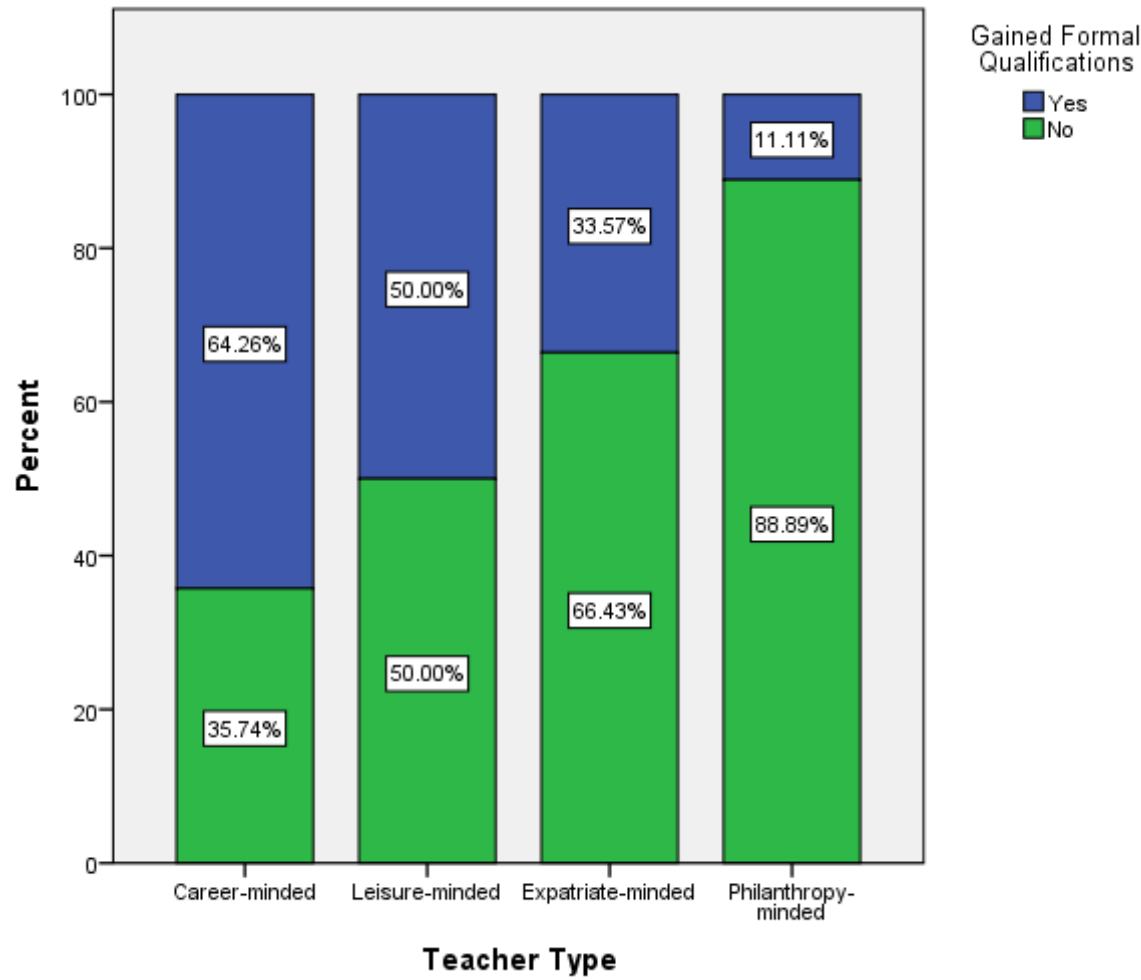
Career Attribute		Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
Motivation	To develop teaching skills	368	65
	Teaching trial	359	63.4
Formal Education	Enhance CV	327	57.7
	Gained formal qualifications	277	48.9
	Undertook formal cultural training	238	42
	Part of an educational course	55	9.7
Skill Development	Improved teaching skills	487	86
	Improved communication skills	423	74.7
	Developed problem-solving skills	352	62.2

(Valid responses=2886)

Career-minded TEFLers were the most likely group to gain formal qualifications as part of their TEFL experience (χ^2 52.78, df=, $p < 0.01$), for the experience to be part of an educational course (χ^2 21.41, df=3, $p < 0.01$), to be motivated by prospects of a teaching trial (χ^2 66.33, df=3, $p < 0.01$), to undertake a formal cultural training course (χ^2 34.97, df=3, $p < 0.01$) and to be motivated to enhance their CV (χ^2 52.56, df=3, $p < 0.01$) (figures

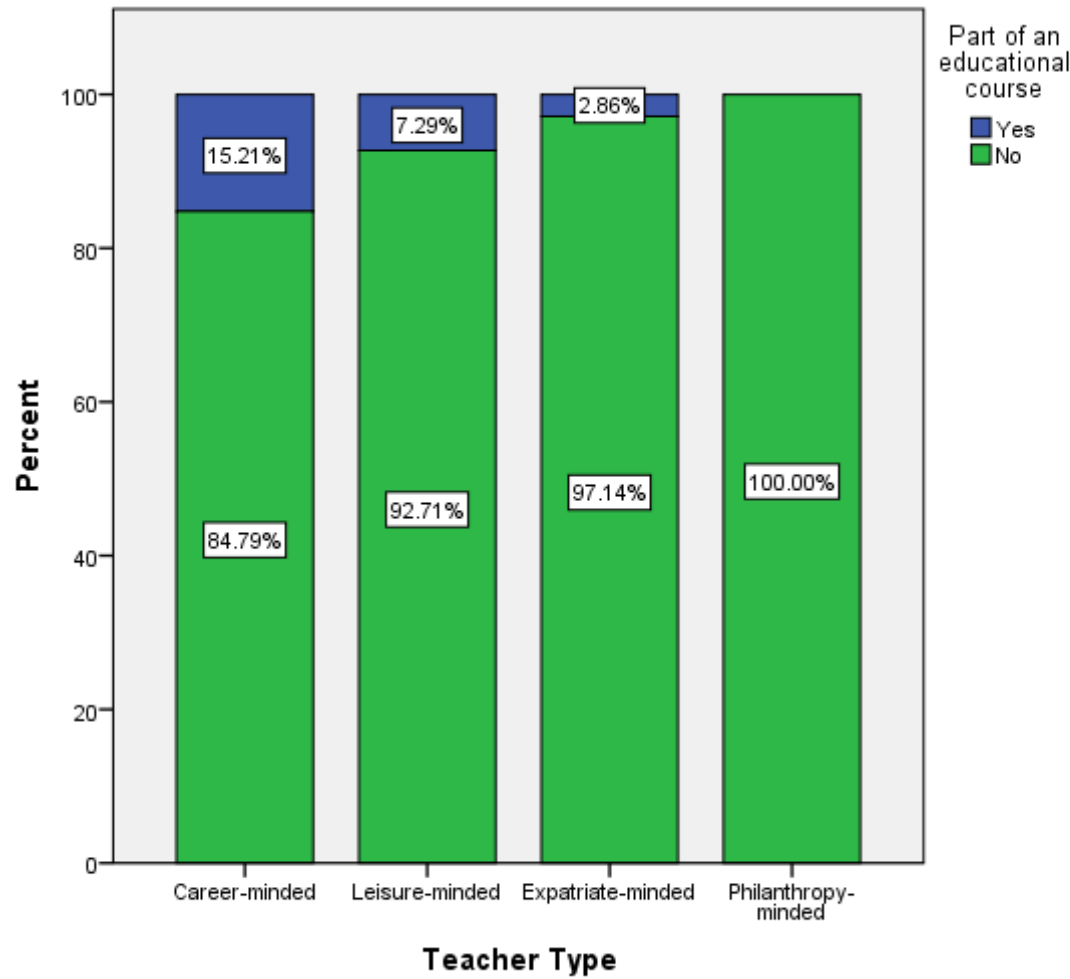
9.13-9.17). These variables were also important determinants in the prediction model presented in table 9.10.

Figure 9.13: Gained Formal Qualifications Teacher-Type Correlation



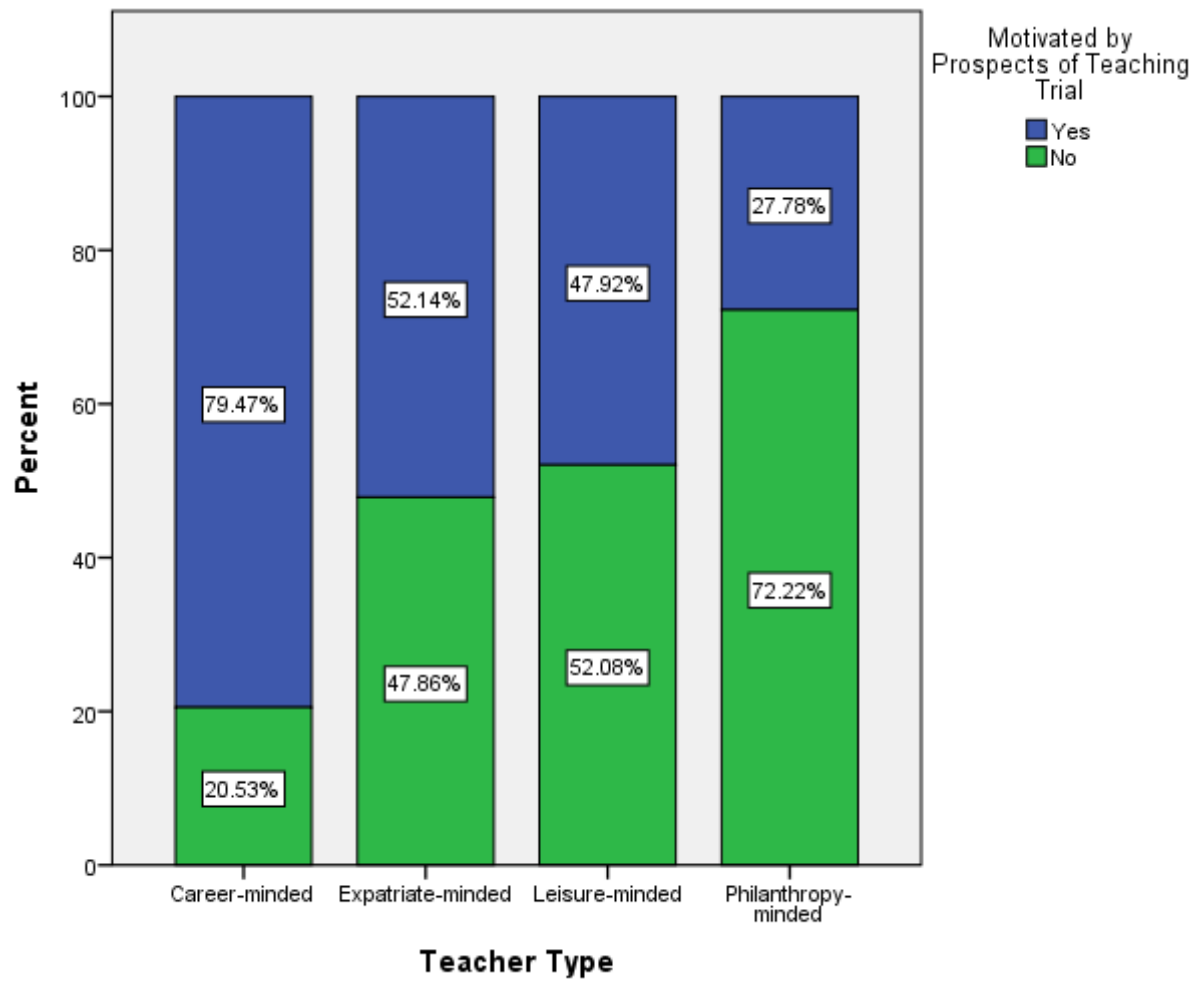
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.14: Part of an Educational Course Teacher-Type Correlation



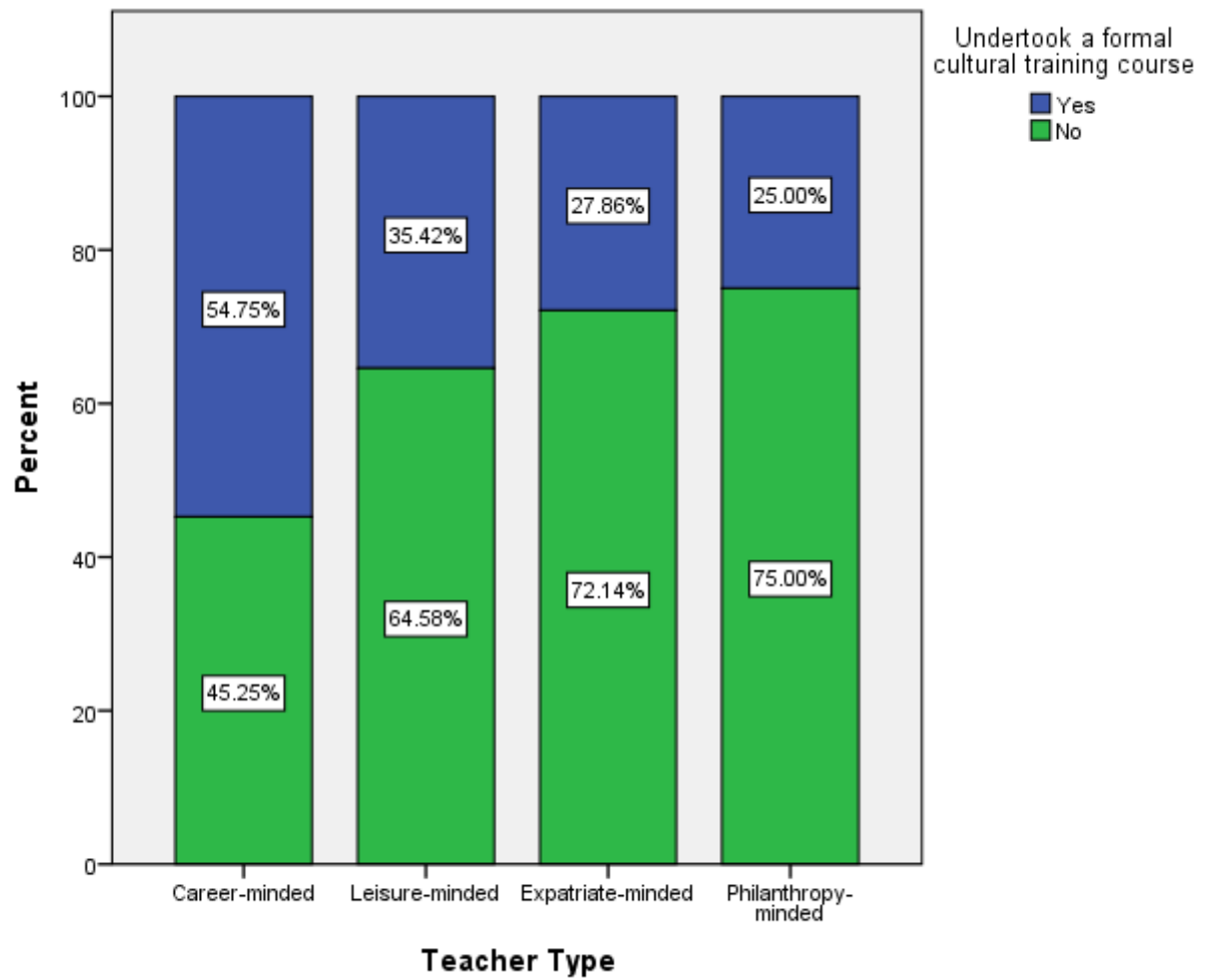
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.15: Motivated by Prospects of a Teaching Trial Teacher-Type Correlation



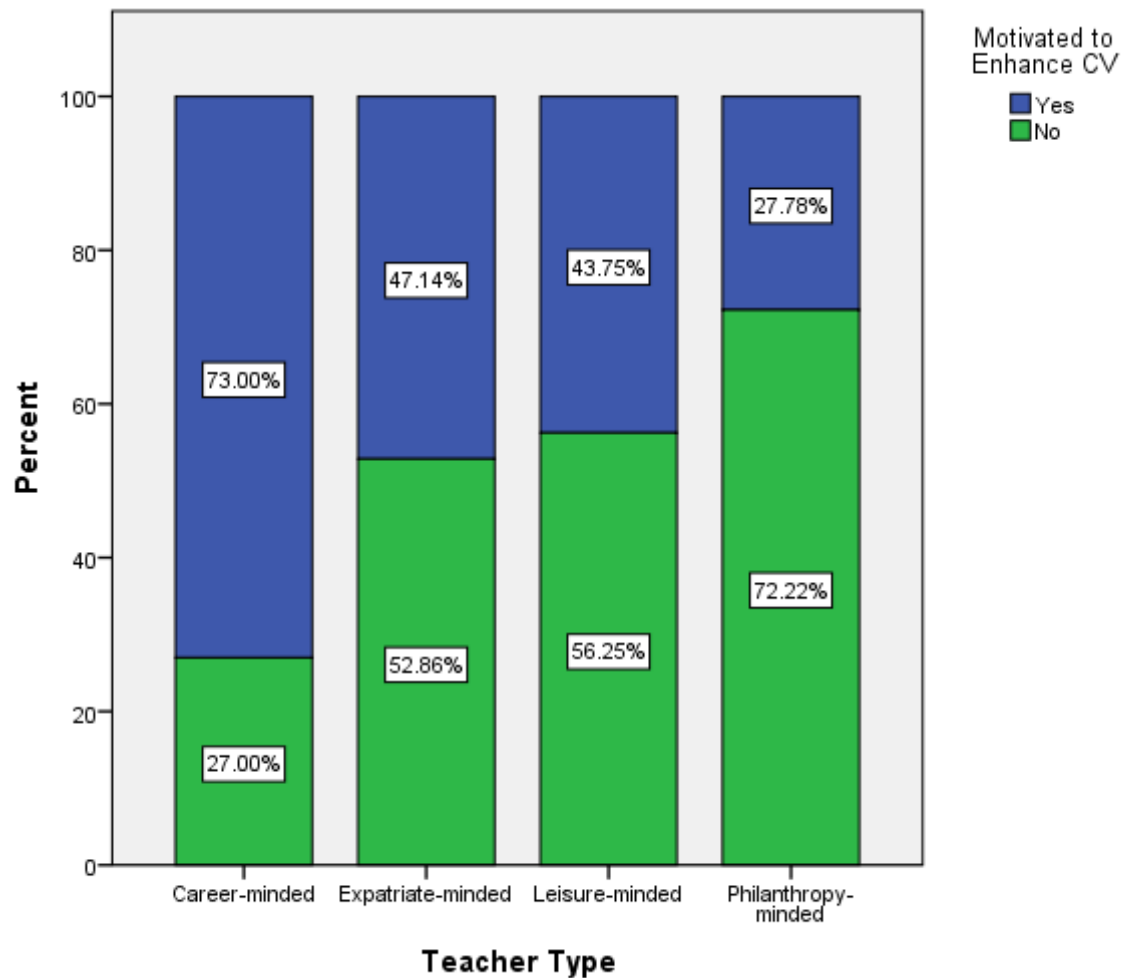
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.16: Undertook a Formal Cultural Training Course Teacher-Type Correlation



(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.17: Motivated to Enhance CV Teacher-Type Correlation



(Valid responses=535)

A logistic regression test demonstrated that there were 13 independent variables that contributed to the ability to predict whether a respondent was a member of the group career-minded TEFLer. This was the most successful model developed in this research, with 57% of the variance accounted for by the independent variables (Naglekerke R^2). With no predictor variables inserted into the model the null hypothesis (that respondents were not a member of the career-minded TEFLer group) was 53.1% correct. The ability to predict group membership was then improved to 80.5% when the independent variables were included in the model. Table 9.11 demonstrates that the model is statistically significant (χ^2 312.47, df=13, $p < 0.01$).

Table 9.10: Career-Minded Tefler Model Influence

Observed	Prediction without Independent Variables			Prediction with Independent Variables		
	Group Member		Percentage Correct	Group Member		Percentage Correct
	No	Yes		No	Yes	
Group Member No	297	0	100.0	242	55	81.5
Yes	262	0	0.0	54	208	70.4
Overall Percentage			53.1			80.5

Table 9.11: Career-Minded TEFLer Model Variance

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Nagelkerke Square	R
312.474	13	0.000	0.572	

Table 9.12: Variables in the Career-Minded TEFLer Model

Independent Variables	Coefficient (B)	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Odds Ratio (Exp(B))	Odds Ratio Percent
Improved teaching skills	2.159	1	0.000	8.664	866.4
Gained formal qualifications	1.842	1	0.000	6.308	630.8
It was part of an educational course	1.922	1	0.000	6.181	618.1
Motivated by the prospects of a teaching trial	1.711	1	0.000	5.533	553.3
Undertook a formal cultural training course	1.661	1	0.000	5.266	526.6
Motivated to enhance CV	1.642	1	0.000	5.163	516.3
Participation in sex tourism	-0.652	1	0.015	0.521	52.1
Gender	-0.713	1	0.009	0.490	49
Motivated because it was easier to find a job than at home	-0.739	1	0.005	0.478	47.8
Motivated by a slower pace of life	-0.776	1	0.002	0.460	46
Motivated by access to beaches	-.797	1	0.010	0.451	45.1
Spent intimate time with a Thai prostitute	-0.897	1	0.041	0.408	40.8
Motivated because the food was appealing	-1.220	1	0.000	0.295	29.5
Constant	-3.824	1	0.000	0.22	22

(Included in analysis=567)

Table 9.12 demonstrates that there are six key influential variables in the model. Those respondents who stated that they improved their teaching skills were 866.4% more likely to be classified a career-minded TEFLer than those who did not. Respondents who gained formal qualifications were 630.8% more likely to be included in the model than those who did not gain qualifications and if the TEFL experience was part of an educational course the respondent was 618.1% more likely to be included in the model. Substantial predictor variables also included motivation to undertake a teaching trial (553.3%), undertook a formal cultural training course (526.6%) and motivated to enhance CV (516.3). The remaining variables presented a negative coefficient demonstrating that career-minded TEFLers were likely to be female (49%), were likely not to participate in sex tourism (52.1%) or to spend intimate time with a Thai prostitute (40.8%), were not motivated to become a TEFL teacher because it was easier than

finding a job at home (47.8%), by a slower pace of life (46%), by access to beaches (45.1%) or because the food was appealing (29.5%).

9.3.4 The Expatriate-Minded TEFLer

It can be argued that all of the aforementioned three TEFL teacher types can be classified as expatriates, based on the premise that all types live and work abroad; however, not all presented a strong identification with attributes associated with expatriatism (table 9.13). The mean expatriate index score was 48.8% with a relatively wide standard deviation of 25, meaning that results differed substantially from the mean value. Twenty-six point two percent were classified as expatriate-minded TEFLers.

Table 9.13: Expatriate Index

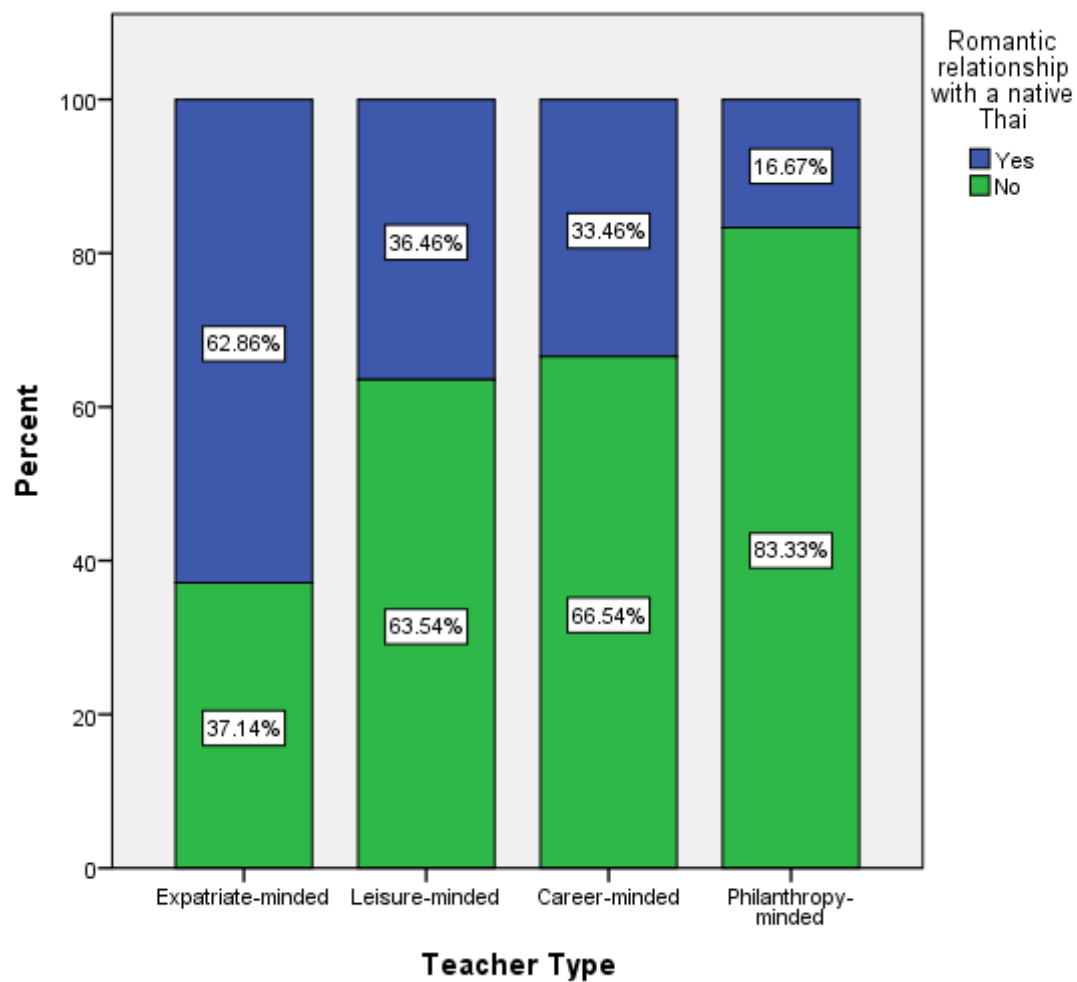
Expatriate Attributes		Number	Percent of Respondents
Motivation	Wanted to live/work abroad	498	87.8
	The cost of living was cheaper	350	61.7
	The weather was appealing	351	61.9
	For a slower pace of life	257	45.3
	The food was appealing	241	42.5
	Wanted a romantic relationship with a native	90	15.9
Experience	Was easier to find a job in Thailand than at home	197	34.7
	Was in a romantic relationship with a native	228	40.2

(Valid responses=2212)

The majority of the expatriate-minded TEFLers were male (66.9%) (χ^2 29.68, df=13, $p<0.01$) (figure 9.9) and aged a 40 or above (48.9%), making members of this group the oldest (χ^2 43.56, df=13, $p<0.01$). Furthermore, over half (62.9%) were in a romantic relationship with a native Thai, accounting for 40.6% of all respondents who were in a relationship with a local (figure 9.18). Figure 9.18 also demonstrates that the number of expatriate-minded TEFLers in a relationship with a Thai was significantly higher than the other three teacher types (χ^2 34.81, df=13, $p<0.01$). The expatriate TEFLer was also most frequently motivated by aspects such as food (χ^2 67.24, df=13, $p<0.01$), a slower pace of

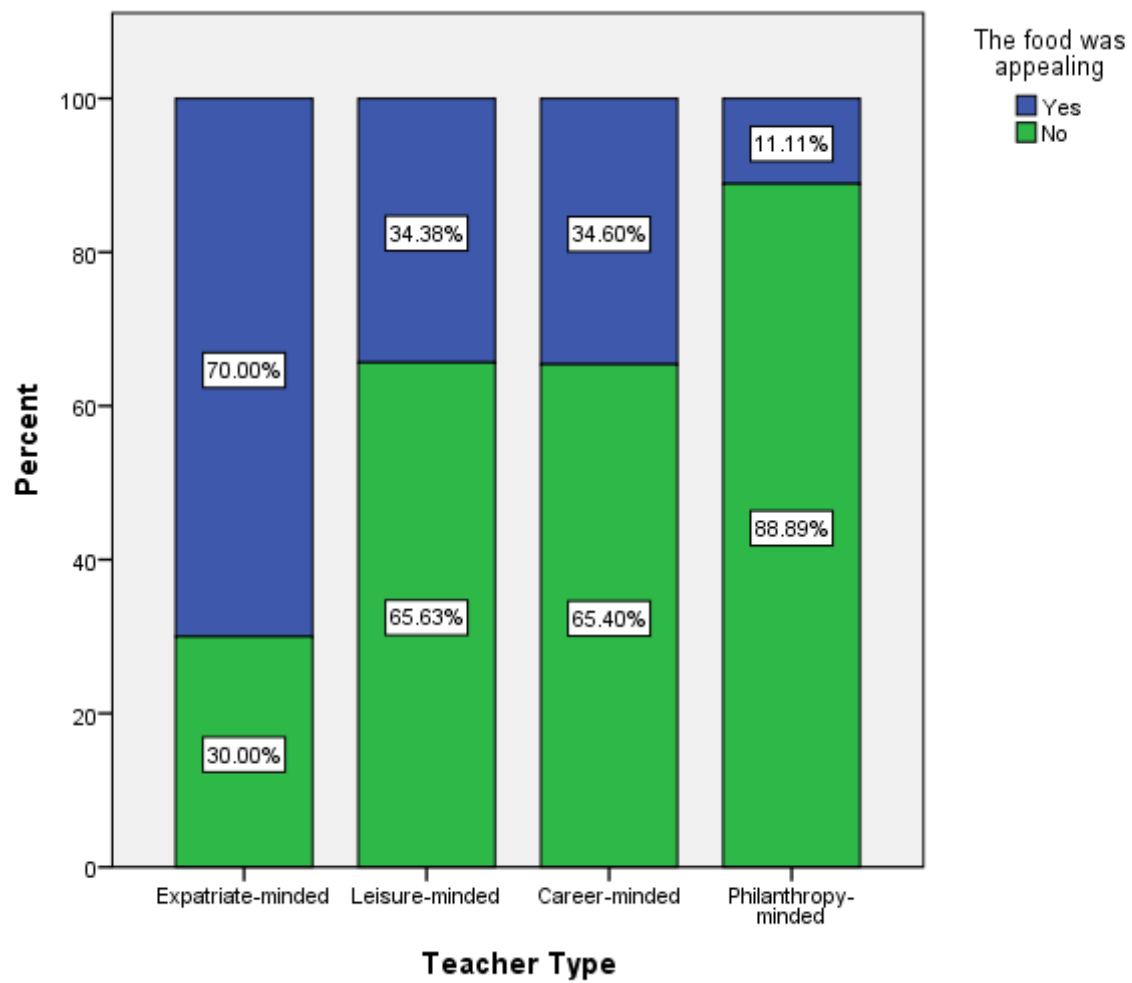
life (χ^2 62.1, df=13, $p<0.01$), the cost of living (χ^2 66.57, df=13, $p<0.01$) and enhanced job prospects (χ^2 50.4, df=13, $p<0.01$) (figure 9.18-9.22).

Figure 9.18: Romantic Relationship with a Native Thai Teacher-Type Correlation



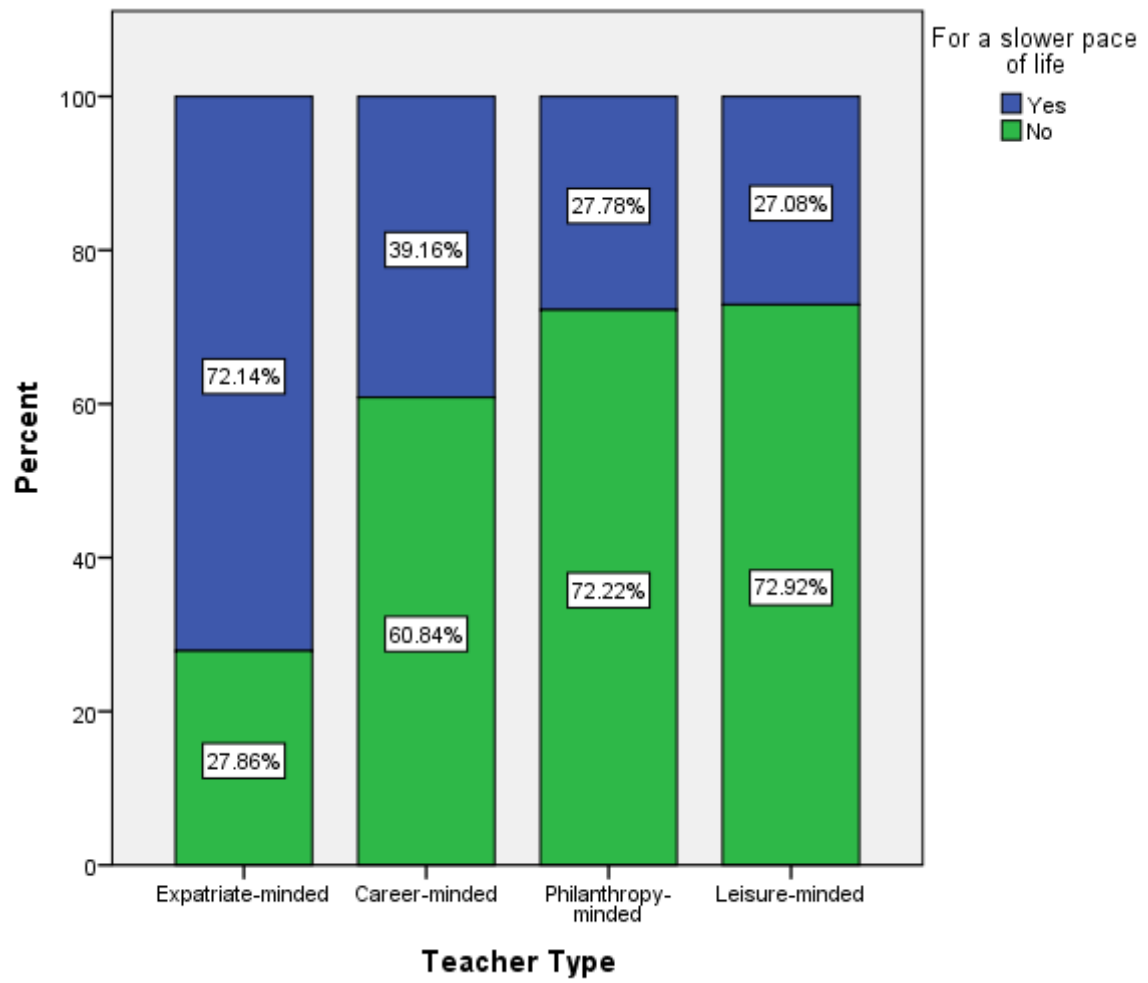
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.19: Motivated by Food Teacher-Type Correlation



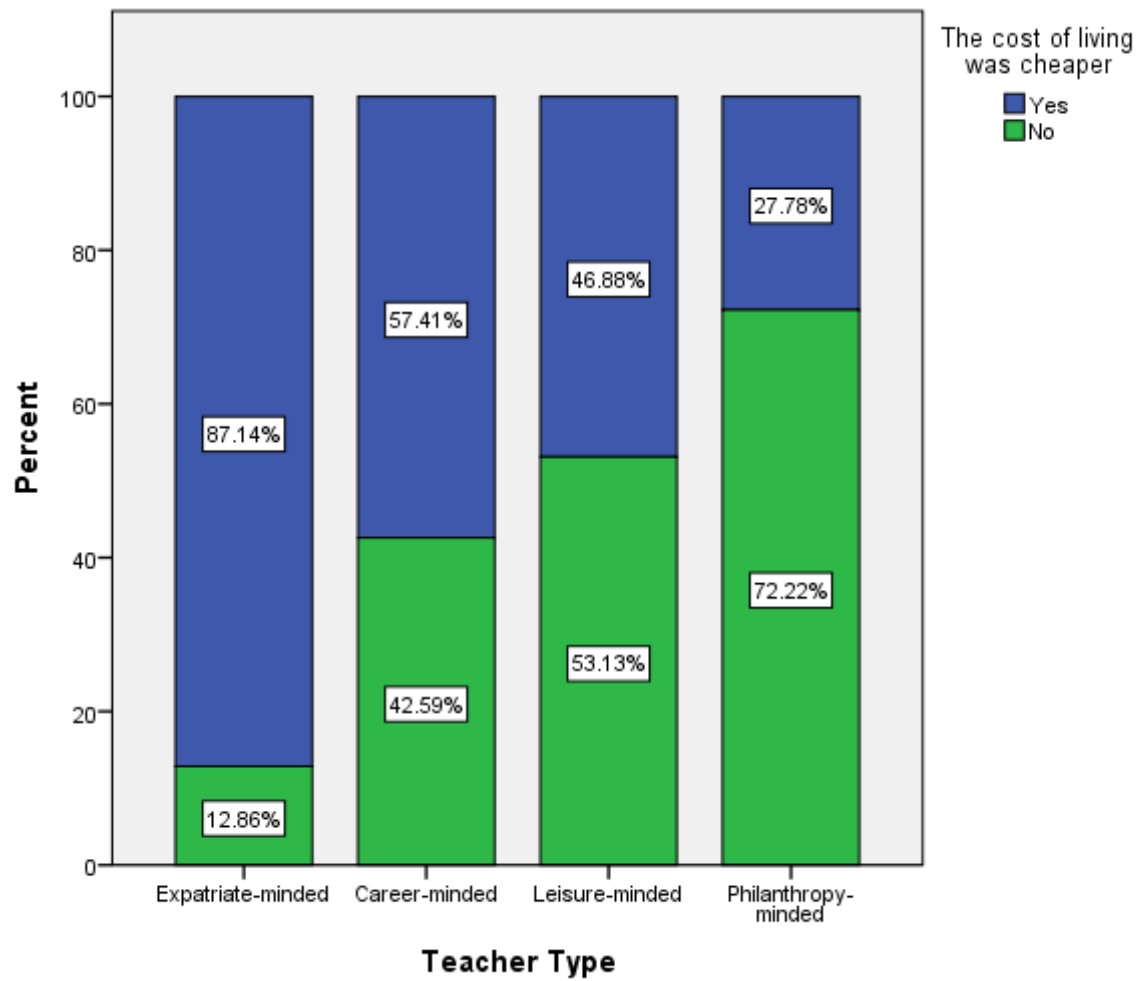
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.20: Motivated by a Slower Pace of Life Teacher-Type Correlation



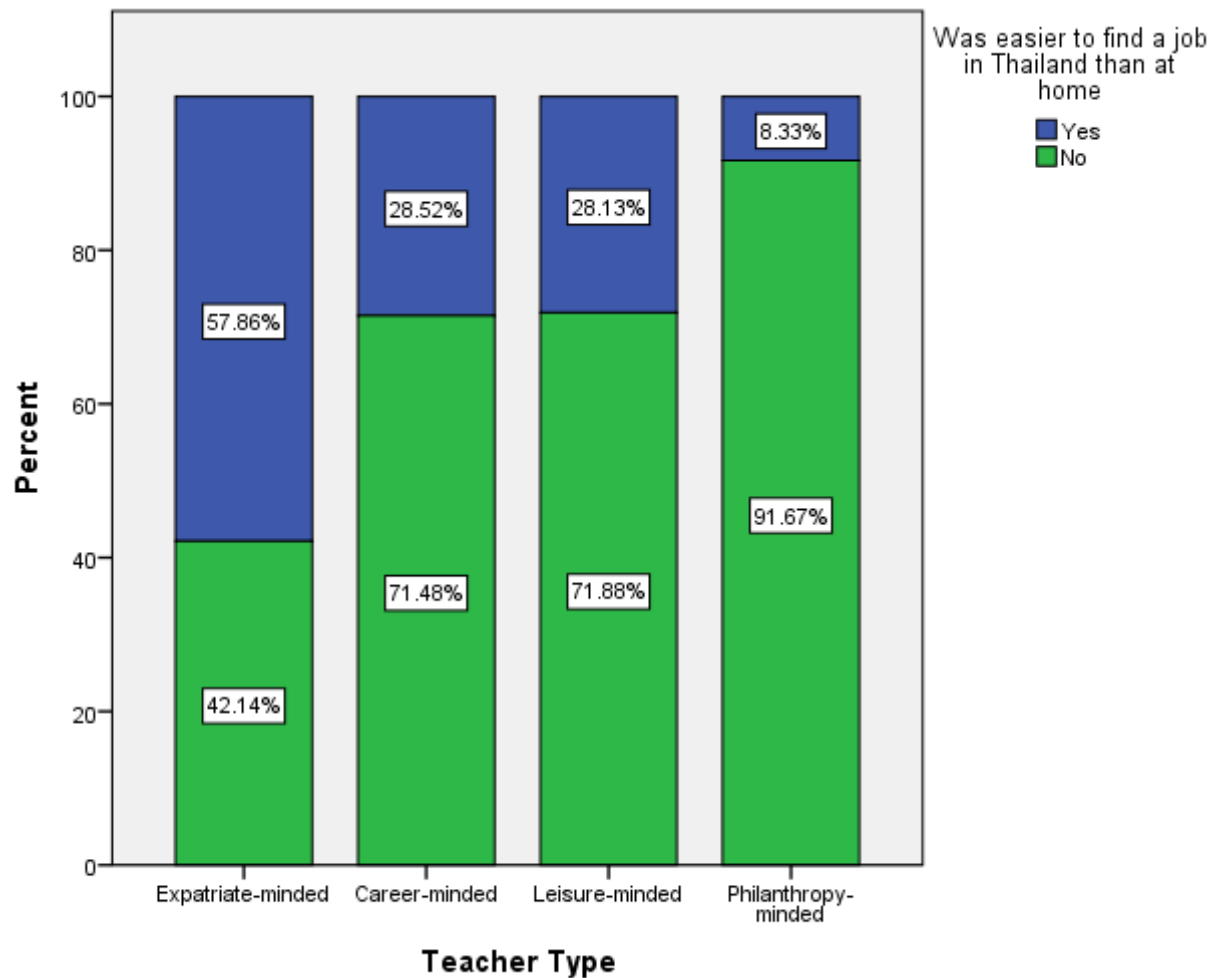
(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.21: Motivated by the Cost of Living Teacher-Type Correlation



(Valid responses=535)

Figure 9.22: Motivated by Job Prospects Teacher-Type Correlation



(Valid responses=535)

A logistic regression test demonstrated that there were six independent variables that contributed to the ability to predict whether a respondent was a member of the group expatriate-minded TEFLer. As demonstrated in table 9.14, with no predictor variables inserted into the model the null hypothesis (that respondents were not a member of the expat-minded TEFLer group) was 75.1% correct. The ability to predict group membership was then improved to 81% when the independent variables were included in the model. Table 9.15 demonstrates that the model is statistically significant (χ^2 190.35, df=7, $p < 0.01$) and that 43% of the variance in the model is accounted for by the independent variables (Naglekerke R^2).

Table 9.14: Expatriate-Minded TEFLer Model Influence

Observed	Prediction without Independent Variables			Prediction with Independent Variables		
	Group Member		Percentage Correct	Group Member		Percentage Correct
	No	Yes		No	Yes	
Group Member No	419	0	100.0	383	36	91.4
Yes	139	0	0.0	70	69	49.6
Overall Percentage			75.1			81.0

Table 9.15: Expatriate-Minded TEFLer Model Variance

Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Nagelkerke R Square
190.35	7	0.000	0.428

Table 9.16: Variables in the Expatriate-Minded TEFLer Model

Independent Variables	Coefficient (B)	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Odds Ratio (Exp(B))	Odds Ratio Percent
Age 40+ or below 40	1.639	1	0.000	5.150	515
Motivated by food	1.530	1	0.000	4.617	461.7
Was in a romantic relationship with a native Thai	1.197	1	0.000	3.309	330.9
Motivated by prospects for a slower pace of life	0.982	1	0.000	2.670	267
Motivated because it was easier to find a job in Thailand than at home	0.971	1	0.000	2.641	264.1
Motivated because the cost of living was cheaper	0.718	1	0.035	2.051	205.1
Gender	0.447	1	0.111	1.564	156.4
Constant	-4.550	1	0.000	0.011	11

(Included in analysis=558)

As demonstrated in table 9.16, the variable age contributed most to the model, with those who were aged 40 and over being 515% more likely to be a member of the group

expatriate-minded TEFLer than those aged below 40. In support of arguments throughout this research, the expatriate-minded TEFLer, who is likely to be older, is also likely to be in a relationship with a native Thai (330.9%). Gender, however, does not contribute significantly to the model, although it is important to note that this does not mean that members of the expatriate-minded TEFLer group are not likely to be male. Rather, this variable is so strongly correlated with the variables of age and romantic relationship with a native Thai, that it did not significantly improve the ability to predict group members, demonstrating a suppressor effect. This is demonstrated through tables 9.17 and 9.18, where gender is the dependant variable in a logistic regression test, demonstrating that those aged over 40 are 445.7% more likely to be male than female and those in a romantic relationship with a native Thai are 781.9% more likely to be male.

Table 9.17: Variables in the Gender-Age Model

Independent Variable	Coefficient (B)	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Odds Ratio (Exp(B))	Odds ratio Percent
Age	1.492	1	0.000	4.447	444.7
Constant	-0.184	1	0.047	0.832	83.2

(Valid responses=563)

Table 9.18: Variables in the Gender-Romantic Relationship Model

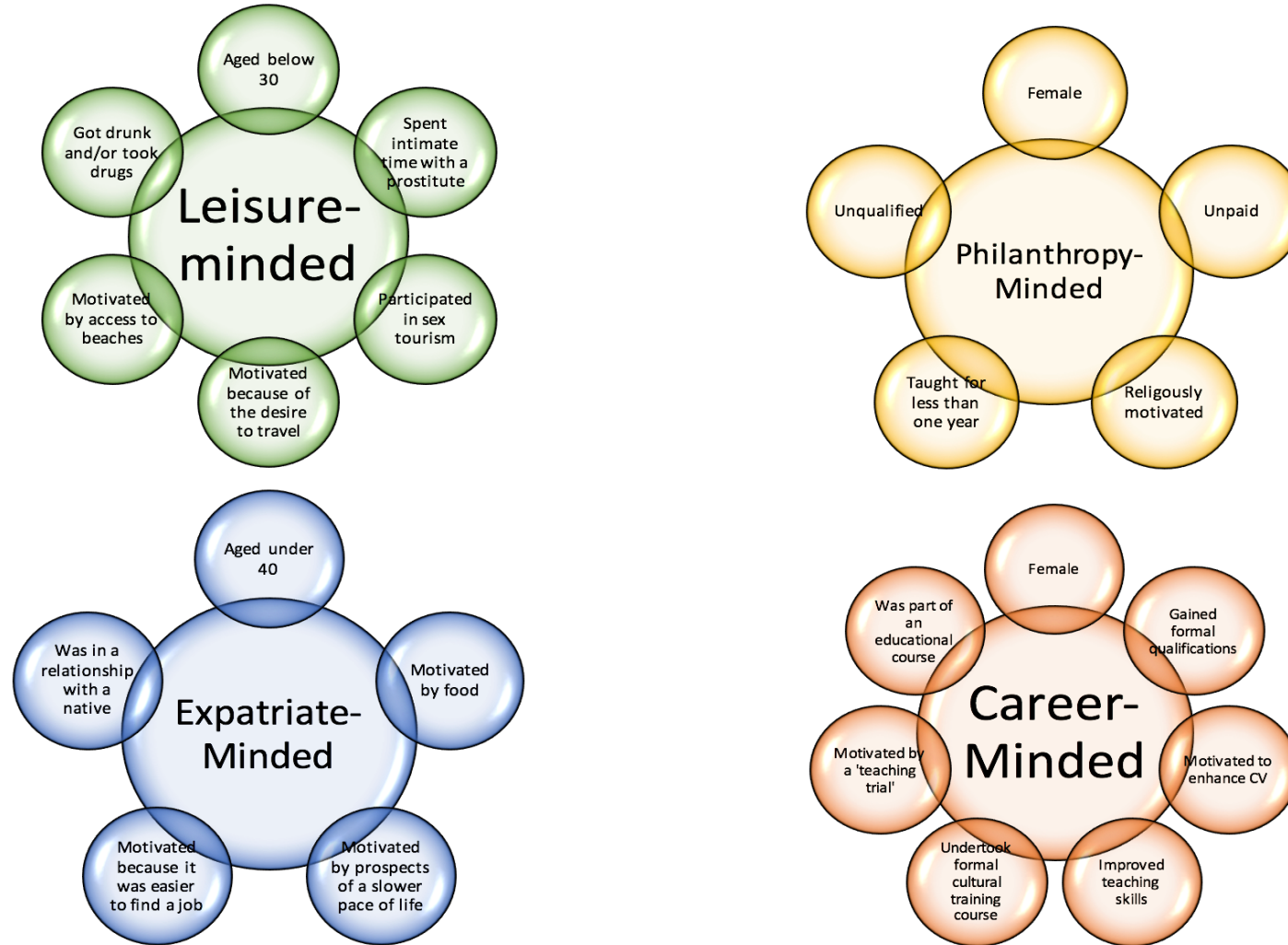
Independent Variable	Coefficient (B)	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Odds Ratio (Exp(B))	Odds Ratio Percent
Romantic relationship with a native Thai	2.057	1	.000	7.819	781.9
Constant	-.767	1	.000	.465	46.5

(Valid responses=558)

9.3.5 The Typological Model

Figure 9.23 presents an overview of the typological model developed, identifying the contributing variables to each TEFL teacher type in graphic form.

Figure 9.23: TEFL Tourism Typological Model



Based on the typological model together with the qualitative data presented throughout this research, the TEFL typology can be summarised as follows: There were four dominant positions adopted by TEFL teachers in Thailand that centered around the concepts of leisure, philanthropy, career and expatriatism. The majority of respondents demonstrated attributes associated with all positions throughout their TEFL experience, including that they do not neatly fit into any one category, although one may be more prominent than another. This was demonstrated by the relevant index scores. This supports the notion of role ambiguity (Lyons and Wearing, 2008), where it is unclear who the TEFL tourist is and how to define them based on their ability to possess multiple motivations simultaneously (Hustinx, 2001; Tomazos and Butler, 2010).

Some scholars have suggested that rather than categorising tourists *de facto*, it is best to position them along a continuum (e.g. Hustinx, 2001; Tomazos and Butler, 2010). However, since there are more than two variables at play in this model, this is deemed unsuitable in this instance. It is also viewed as inappropriate since this would not account for the shifting roles (Mustonen, 2005; Sin, 2009) of TEFL teachers. Based on blogger comments during the qualitative data analysis, it is suggested TEFL teachers shift roles depending on the day of the week, geographical location or the people they are with. For example, a TEFL teacher may be philanthropy or career-minded from Monday to Friday when in the local community, and leisure-minded over the weekend when they travel to the tourist areas. This supports notions of behavioural inversion, where the tourist acts differently outside of their home environment (de Oliveira and Paiva, 2007; Lomba *et al*, 2009), which in this instance is the community within which they teach English as a foreign language.

The first two teacher types, the leisure-minded TEFLer and the philanthropy-minded TEFLer, largely correspond with existing volunteer tourism typologies that categorise tourists according to their motivation. Similarly to Brown and Morrison's (2003) vacation-minded and Daldeniz and Hampton's (2011) volunTOURISTS the leisure-minded TEFLer tends to be travel-orientated. The leisure-minded TEFLer is motivated by leisure opportunities including beach and nightlife tourism. They are likely to drink alcohol and take drugs as part of their TEFL experience and it is common that they have some involvement with sex tourism, ranging from casual attendance of sex shows to spending intimate time with a prostitute. This group frequently consists of tourists aged below 30.

Likewise, the philanthropy-minded TEFLer corresponds with Brown and Morrison's (2003) volunteer-minded and Daldeniz and Hampton's (2011) VOLUNtourists. This teacher-type is often religiously motivated. They may be on a short-term, unpaid placement and without the formal documentation or qualifications needed to work as a TEFL teacher in Thailand. They are often female. This is the smallest group of TEFL teachers, perhaps due to philanthropy not being a primary motivation for undertaking TEFL teaching (Lyons and Wearing, 2012) or due to the TEFL tourist putting on an altruistic façade in attempt to disguise their true motivations (Wearing and McGehee, 2013a). There is also the concept of philanthrocapitalism (Edwards, 2009; Hero, 2001; McAlister and Ferrell, 2002), where philanthropy is used as a means to enhance competitive identity, indicating that although intentions may appear altruistic, they are in fact selfish. As such, many respondents who indicated career-based intentions were classified as career-minded rather than philanthropy-minded TEFLers as this was their most dominant index score.

Approximately half of respondents were classified as career-minded TEFLers, making this the largest group. This teacher-type largely corresponds with Ritchie *et al's* (2003) description of educational tourism, where education and learning are important parts of the TEFL experience. It was argued earlier in this chapter that the education sphere takes two approaches; the education to the TEFL teacher and the education provided by the TEFL teacher. The career-TEFLer centers around the former. This fits best with Ritchie *et al's* (2003) education first tourist, although it is not necessarily limited only to university, college or school tourism as they suggest. Rather it appears to be more akin to existential (Kolb, 1984), transformative (Coghlan and Gooch, 2011; Mezirow, 1991) or lifelong learning (Broomhall *et al*, 2010; Falk *et al*, 2012) that may be facilitated through a formal educational institution or may take place through a process of experience and reflection. Most career-minded TEFLers undertook formal study and qualifications as part of their experience, demonstrated improvement in their teaching skills and were motivated by the prospects of a trial teaching period before potentially commencing a teaching career in their home country or elsewhere and sought to enhance their CV. Members of this group were frequently female.

The expatriate-minded TEFL tourist consisted predominantly of male TEFL teachers. In line with Howard's (2009) research into the Thai expatriate community, these are predominantly over the age of 40 and in a relationship with a Thai native. The strong relationship between

this teacher-type and relationships, coupled with the scale of the sex tourism industry in Thailand, presupposes that a significant proportion of these TEFL tourists may be involved with the sex tourism paradigm of 'mail' or 'Thai' brides (e.g. Ruenkaew, 1999; Ryan, 2000; Sims, 2012). Although this was not specifically explored within this research, it is an area worthy of further investigation. In further support of Howard's (2009) study, the typological model also demonstrates that the expatriate-minded TEFLer tends to be motivated by lifestyle prospects including Thai food, the cost of living, job opportunities and the prospects of a slower pace of life than they would otherwise have in their home country.

9.4 Conclusion

This chapter has summarised that TEFL tourism is a diverse and broad industry, encompassing a number of elements that may differ according to the teacher-type. Fundamentally, the TEFL experience consists of three dimensions: leisure experiences, the provision of education for others and the education received by the TEFL tourist. This thesis has presented a wealth of data in both qualitative and quantitative form that has fed into the development of the TEFL tourist typology, which was facilitated through the use of logistic regression tests.

In line with the key themes identified, four TEFL tourist typologies were developed and respondents were classified according to their dominant index score for each theme. Approximately half of the respondents were subsequently classified as career-minded TEFLers, where lifelong learning and career prospects were central to their motivations and experiences. Expatriate-minded TEFLers, who tended to be older men in romantic relationships, consisted of the second highest population. This was followed by leisure-minded TEFLers who presented a strong theme of leisure and tourism. The smallest group was the philanthropic TEFLers, where notions of altruism and helping others were dominant.

Despite the development of this typology it is acknowledged that each TEFL tourist does not de facto sit within one single category, but instead holds multiple attributes for each category. Furthermore, TEFL tourists shift roles according to the day of the week, geographical location or people they are with. The proposed typology, based on the case study nature of this research and restrictive sample size, is intended to act as a baseline for similar studies undertaken on the TEFL tourism industry. Whilst aspects such as sex tourism and the late night economy may be specific to Thailand, other aspects may be applicable to the TEFL

industry in different geographic locations or contexts. As such, this thesis has introduced the concept of TEFL tourism, with a proposed definition and TEFL tourist typology, with the intention that future research can use this as a base point for contextualisation within the limits of their research.

10.1 Overview of the Study

Nominalist ontology argues that by definition, all concepts are formed through subjective interpretations based upon the person's prior knowledge and experiences (Neuman, 2013). Perception is a constructive process where cognitive information from past experiences or stored knowledge is used to make inferences about what is perceived (Gregory, 1970). It is thus argued throughout this thesis that stakeholder's perceptions of the TEFL teaching experience in Thailand is effectively a hypothesis based on their prior experiences and understanding. For many stakeholders, perceptions are likely to be rooted in practices in their home countries or cultures and the educational institutions within which they have studied or worked. Key stakeholders identified include the TEFL teachers, TEFL recruitment agencies, future employers or education recruitment teams of the TEFL teacher and the Thai educational system.

The primary aim of this research was to provide the stakeholders identified with an accurate overview of the TEFL teaching industry in Thailand and its participants by meeting the following objectives:

1) To undertake an examination of the TEFL teacher's experiences whilst teaching English in Thailand by;

- Analysing the TEFL experiences outside of the classroom environment, which largely center around tourism-based elements of the experience

- Analysing the TEFL experiences inside the classroom environment, focusing on the duties required of TEFL teachers and teaching practices employed

2) To introduce and justify the concept 'TEFL tourism' through the;

- Creation of a definition of TEFL tourism

- Creation of a typology of TEFL teachers based upon teacher motivations and experiences

Chapter two provided context in order to achieve these objectives by addressing the concept of TEFL teaching and the TEFL in Thailand case study. The size and scale of the TEFL industry was emphasised by providing an overview of TEFL teaching both globally and in Thailand. The importance of English development in Thailand was highlighted, emphasising the need for the contribution to knowledge facilitated through this thesis. Lastly, a brief overview of the tourism industry in Thailand was provided.

Chapter three analysed the associations between TEFL and tourism. It drew upon a broad range of tourism-based literature presenting the conceptual associations with volunteer, philanthropic, package, cultural, educational and nightlife tourism. It included literature relevant to tourist motivations and relevant typological models, providing context and background for the development of the TEFL typology in chapter nine.

Chapter four focussed on linking TEFL to teaching in the global context. With the aim of enabling comparability, it first emphasised the challenges in international education prior to comparing the educational system in Thailand with those utilised in Western countries, based on published teaching standards. This examination was based on the top five nationalities from which respondents in research phase two emanated; the UK, Ireland, the USA, Australia and South Africa. This corresponded with the typical nationalities accepted by TEFL agencies.

Chapter five presented the methodological arguments underpinning the research design. It began with discussion of the philosophical considerations of the research before justifying the use of both qualitative and quantitative data. The research design was explained and the use of qualitative blog analysis, as a means of exploratory research (n=37), followed by quantitative surveys (n=567) is justified. The use of descriptive statistics and logic regression in analysing the data was then authenticated. Finally, this chapter addressed the potential ethical implications of the research and how these were managed.

Chapter six provided data to subsequently be utilised to meet the second research objective in chapter nine. It focused predominantly on quantitative data collected. Supporting qualitative data was utilised in evaluating the determining characteristics of TEFL teachers in Thailand. This research demonstrated that while there are some similarities between the TEFL tourist and other tourist types, such as volunteer tourism, there are also a number of characteristics unique to TEFL tourists and TEFL tourism. On average, respondents were aged

22-30, with the older population being predominantly male. Most respondents were either British, American, South African, Irish or Australian. The majority of respondents were qualified to degree level, although many appear to be 'out of field' as a result of limited teaching and subject specific qualifications. Lastly, it was noted that travel was a commonality between most respondents, with the majority stating that they had either moderate or extensive experience prior to becoming a TEFL teacher.

In contrast to ABTA's (2013) claims that Thailand is the most popular gap year destination, most respondents were not working as TEFL teachers as part of a gap year. Teaching durations varied widely, but the average trip was approximately one year. The older the teacher, the longer the duration tended to be. The data demonstrated strong links to commercialism, and it was evident that many respondents purchased pre-packaged TEFL experiences as commodities, commonly incorporating accommodation, a TEFL qualification and pre-departure information. It is argued that this is a post-modern form of package tourism. Packages such as this cost, on average, £550. The average salary was £700 per month and the highest earners tended to be based in the city. The majority of respondents were placed in the city or a rural area, in public secondary schools and taught classes of 30 students for an average of 16-20 hours per week. Almost half of respondents were working illegally at some point during their trip due to lack of awareness and confusing visa requirements. The key motivational themes identified in the research were those involving travel and tourism, those facilitating life experiences such as lifelong learning or having the opportunity to do something otherwise unavailable to them, and destination specific motivations such as access to beaches or Thai food.

Chapter seven addressed research objective one, presenting details of the tourism element of the TEFL experience obtained through both qualitative and quantitative enquiry. There was a strong theme of leisure and tourism amongst TEFL bloggers and respondents throughout the research; however this appears largely to take prevalence during the weekends and school holidays only. It was thus argued that TEFL teachers cannot be classified as either tourists or teachers, but rather their role shifts according to the day of the week, the people they are with and their location. This theme of leisure was most prominent amongst younger teachers, where the importance of leisure time increased with the duration of the TEFL placement.

It was common for respondents to travel away from their placement location regularly to undertake leisure pursuits. During their free time, respondents undertook a wide range of activities that replicated both the traditional tourism elements associated with Thailand such as those involving sea, sun and sand, along with some more unusual activities congruent with the introduction of alternative forms of tourism such as sustainable, eco and responsible tourism. The most frequent activities undertaken were those involving sea, sand, sun and nature, animals and alcohol and drugs. Whilst most activities represented hedonistic intentions, there was also some evidence of travel philanthropy, where respondents took part in leisure activities such as visiting an orphanage. The most prominent themes were those of cultural, nightlife tourism and sex tourism. Cultural tourism was evident in two distinct areas; activities involving the consumption of cultural products such as temples or museums and the inevitable cultural integration facilitated through community engagement. Whilst there may be a strong theme of culture during some elements of their trip, for many respondents, this was abandoned in exchange for pleasure-based nightlife pursuits which often involved consuming alcohol and drugs during other elements of their trip. Sex tourism was also evidenced not only through the nightlife-based activities such as visiting go-go bars or watching sex shows, but also through the use of prostitution and 'mail bride' type relationships.

Drawing upon the similarities and differences between TEFL teaching in Thailand and Western teaching, chapter eight also addressed the first research objective by detailing the typical duties undertaken by TEFL teachers. The typical duties of the bloggers and respondents examined in this research were not congruent with the teaching expectations in the five most common TEFL teacher originating destinations (UK, Ireland, USA, Australia, South Africa). It was suggested that the majority of duties and practices demanded of TEFL teachers in Thailand are not known to stakeholders, due to limited literature, particularly on the websites of agencies who sell commodified TEFL packages. The impacts of Thai culture in the classroom were highlighted, with a particular focus on Komin's (1990) ego orientation, and the impact that this appears to have on the TEFL experience. It was suggested that this was the precursor to inherent shyness of students, excessive cheating, racial discrimination and hierarchy, lack of parental involvement and lateness and absenteeism. It was also suggested that this was the reason for the frequency of bloggers and respondents who were required to take part in

school shows and concerts and undertake public singing and dancing, which subsequently made many respondents feel uncomfortable.

Many respondents appeared frustrated as a result of a lack of facilities in the classroom, particularly those in rural locations and working in public schools. Furthermore, it was identified that whilst educational institutions may have the funds to improve their facilities, this option is often exchanged for opportunities to increase 'face' and to make the school look good, for example by putting on additional concerts or shows. This again, demonstrated links to the ego orientation cultural marker. In contrast to typical Thai educational methods there was an excessive use of games as a teaching method, raising questions about the detail of planning and pedagogic knowledge possessed by TEFL teachers. Differentiation was also limited as a result of the collectivist nature of Thai society, in contrast to the individualist approach generally taken in developed nations. Behaviour management was highlighted as a particular concern due to its ethical and moral implications. It is common practice for physical punishment to continue to take place in Thai educational institutions, despite it being illegal. Viewed as a breach of human rights in many parts of the world, it was no surprise that this caused most respondents to feel uncomfortable. Ethical issues were also raised through the identification of the strong notions of racism, where white-skinned bloggers and respondents were frequently subjected to positive forms of discrimination and dark or black-skinned teachers were the victims of negative discrimination.

There were a large number of professional responsibilities that were required of TEFL teachers that do not appear to be requirements of teachers in alternative nations. This included taking part in shows and concerts, public singing and dancing, assemblies, English camps and teaching people other than students, most frequently the Thai police or non-English colleagues. In contrast to many developed countries, there appeared to be little administration and limited contact with parents. Lastly, it was identified that there was a strong notion of CPD, although this appeared to take quite a different form from that typically expected in alternative destinations. CPD for TEFL teachers in Thailand incorporated both formal and informal learning, where TEFL courses and self-reflection were the most prominent forms of learning. Although it was not possible to determine whether this learning was the intention or result of the TEFL experience, it appeared to be generally aligned with the lifelong learning and societal balance sought by Thai nationals.

Chapter nine synthesised the data discussed in chapters six to eight in order to propose the new form of niche tourism titled TEFL tourism. It was concluded that TEFL tourism is a diverse and broad industry, encompassing a number of elements that may differ according to the teacher-type. Fundamentally, the TEFL experience consists of three dimensions: leisure experiences, the provision of education for others and the education received by the TEFL tourist. This thesis presents a wealth of data in both qualitative and quantitative forms that fed into the development of the TEFL tourist typology, which was facilitated through the use of logistic regression tests. In line with the key themes identified, four TEFL tourist typologies were developed and respondents were classified according to their dominant index score for each theme. The largest categorisation was the career-minded TEFLers which accounted for approximately half of all respondents. For these tourists, lifelong learning and career prospects were central to their motivations and experiences. In line with literature addressing the expatriate population in Thailand, the second highest population was classified as expatriate-minded TEFLers, who tended to be older men in romantic relationships. This was followed by leisure-minded TEFLers who demonstrated a strong theme of leisure and tourism. The philanthropic TEFLers consisted of the smallest proportion of respondents, where notions of altruism and helping others were dominant above the other three themes.

This research has highlighted, however, that each TEFL tourist does not sit within one single category *de facto*, but instead respondents hold multiple attributes for each of the four identified categories. It is also suggested that TEFL tourists shift roles according to the day of the week, geographic location or people they are with. As such, the developed typology, based on the case study nature of this research and restrictive sample size, is aimed to be indicative for future similar studies undertaken on the TEFL tourism industry. Whilst it is noted that aspects such as sex tourism and the late night economy are likely to be specific to Thailand, many other aspects may be applicable to the TEFL industry in different geographic locations or contexts. The intention, therefore, is that the research presented in this thesis can act as a base point for contextualisation for future studies involving TEFL and tourism.

10.2 Limitations of the Research

Whilst this thesis has contributed new knowledge in the fields of both tourism and educational research, it is not without its limitations. Since this study breaks new ground in relation to TEFL tourism in Thailand, there was a paucity of previous research from which to start. As a result, the literature review explored several concepts associated with the TEFL and tourism industries which was imperative to holistically examine the TEFL tourism industry in Thailand.

As a result of the phenomenological approach to this research, it was first necessary to undertake an exploratory, inductive research phase which was facilitated through blog analysis. From this analysis emanated the key research themes which were subsequently tested through the quantitative survey. The exploratory research phase was however limited in that the sample size was small, a common critique of qualitative research. It was also not representative of the entire TEFL community in Thailand, with limited bloggers aged over 40 and excluding those who may have restricted Internet access and those who choose not to blog about their experiences. The researcher also had to carefully consider the ethics of analysing blogs, a topic on which she has since written an academic paper (Stainton and Iordanova, 2016).

The second research phase was facilitated by the use of surveys. Although the response rate (567 respondents) was good, it cannot be considered representative of the entire TEFL community in Thailand. As such, findings of this research are indicative of the TEFL industry in Thailand as opposed to presenting a generalisable explanation. It was likely that the length of the survey impacted on the response rate. This length was however deemed necessary in order to obtain the required information to provide a holistic overview, primarily since the research was the first to explore the TEFL tourism industry in Thailand. Some data had to be cleaned or omitted as a result of responses which showed that the respondent had not understood the question. This was limited to only two questions.

There was also a level of inevitable subjectivity when analysing data and coding responses. Although effort was made to avoid researcher subjectivity, nominalist ontology argues that all concepts are formed through inevitable subjective interpretations. As such, it can be

argued that research constructed through methods incorporating elements of subjectivity are not less valid, but rather they are representative of the social world. Nonetheless, it is important to acknowledge that the interpretations of the data presented in this thesis were subject to a degree of inevitable subjectivity on the behalf of the researcher.

The study was also limited by the restrictions placed upon it in terms of time and size. It nonetheless addressed the aims and objectives of the research and facilitated the emergence of a number of further questions, which were beyond the scope of this study. It is, however, argued that this thesis can act as the precursor to further exploration of the TEFL tourism industry. In the case of the volunteer tourism industry, until Wearing's first publication in 2001, which identified what a volunteer tourist was and what they did, little was known about the industry. The following fifteen years have seen an emergence of research spanning various geographical locations, volunteer tourism types, the benefits and limitations and the commercialism of the volunteer tourism industry. Most recently, the researcher has published a paper explaining the way in which the volunteer tourism industry has now progressed from a micro to a macro niche in tourism research (Stainton, 2016). The intention is that this preliminary research into the TEFL tourism industry in Thailand, a proposed micro niche in tourism, will similarly provide the groundwork for further research to enable enhanced comprehension and sustainable management of the TEFL industry worldwide.

10.3 Suggestions for Future Research

This thesis has highlighted a number of areas warranting additional research. Whilst the list is not exhaustive, primary areas worthy of consideration are:

- 1) There is little regulation, if any, of the TEFL sector. One of the major concerns is the value of the TEFL qualification. There is little to differentiate between TEFL qualifications, yet some hold significantly more weight than others. In other education sectors, the values of qualifications is quite clear; for example, in the further education sector that is a clear differentiation between a level three diploma and a level three certificate, the former holding more weight due to the number of credits and time taken to complete. This, however, is not the case for TEFL qualifications as there is little way to identify whether the qualification involves face-to-face contact with students or whether it was undertaken entirely on the Internet. Similarly, it is difficult

to tell whether the qualification involved twenty hours' worth of study or whether it took a year to complete.

- 2) In terms of regulation, there also appear to be no formalities for employment standards or requirements. Although this may not be easy to implement due to the global nature of the industry, there is a call for improvement. Currently there are few procedures to monitor TEFL teaching standards, and where there are, they are generally subject to country teaching expectations as opposed to a general approach. As was demonstrated in this research, teaching regulations in Thailand were not applied to TEFL teachers, thus making employment and monitoring a somewhat ambiguous process. This also relates to the concept of teaching standards, where there is a call for more research into the standards employed in different educational systems within which TEFL teachers work and for these to be made publically available to stakeholders, such as the TEFL teacher's prospective employer, to enable comprehensive understanding of the TEFL experience.
- 3) Several areas of concern with regard to the cultural aspects of TEFL teaching in Thailand have been identified. Racial discrimination, both positive and negative, was highlighted as an issue, as was the use of corporal punishment. Although highlighted as issues in this thesis, in-depth examination of these concerns was beyond the scope of this research. There is therefore a need for further investigation.
- 4) Finally, there is the issue of the educational system itself and how best to manage TEFL tourism in order to achieve the maximum benefits to the host community, whilst minimising the negative impacts. Several parallels were drawn throughout this research between the TEFL industry and volunteer tourism, particularly in respect of the rise of commercialisation. Whilst it took approximately ten years for the volunteer tourism industry to come under scrutiny in terms of sustainability and negative impacts, it is suggested that academics and industry professionals alike join forces to avoid a repeat scenario, ensuring that sustainable management principles are implemented for TEFL teaching and to prevent negative outcomes before they arise, learning lessons where possible, from the volunteer tourism industry. This is particularly important to the Thai government, who aim to use TEFL tourism as a means to enhancing the nation's English speaking capabilities.

10.4 Contribution to Knowledge

Prior to the production of this thesis, scholarly publications on TEFL teaching were dominated by pedagogical research and industry knowledge was predominantly limited to volunteer tourism, where research rarely focused specifically on TEFL. This was particularly surprising given the extent and importance of the TEFL industry in Thailand and globally (Griffith, 2014; Pitsuwin, 2014). This thesis has contributed to knowledge through the examination of an industry that had been previously unexplored in terms of TEFL teacher and trip characteristics, motivations and experiences. There are a number of stakeholders for whom this research may not only be useful, but also imperative to their operations.

It could be deemed unethical, or in extreme circumstances it could potentially be classified as a form of false or inaccurate advertising if there are significant elements of TEFL in Thailand that the prospective teacher is not made aware of by the agency or organisation that they book their placement through. The contribution to knowledge facilitated through the production of this thesis can help to improve retention which may be affected if the TEFL experience is not as expected by the prospective TEFL teacher. It can also help to reduce potential financial, time and educational implications for the stakeholders involved. This thesis has highlighted that there are areas particularly noteworthy and that are not currently represented in marketing material by TEFL agencies. This includes typical TEFL teacher duties, the level of racial discrimination in Thailand and a range of cultural differences, for example the use of corporate punishment. If the teacher is unhappy as a result of their experience not meeting expectations, for reasons not limited only to the aforementioned, they may not perform optimally, thus impacting on aspects such as their students' learning, their colleagues' workloads and their own psychological health. The intention of this thesis is to reduce these negative impacts where possible.

If the Thai government are dedicated to improving the nation's English-speaking capabilities, it is important that appropriate teachers are recruited and that the TEFL tourism industry is managed in a sustainable way and the contribution to knowledge facilitated through this thesis can aid in this process. The research provides insight as to who the recruited teachers are, their motives and their teaching credentials. It has also been noted that the volunteer tourism sector has been confronted with similar challenges from which the TEFL sector can learn. Research has found that volunteer tourists have been recruited for programmes

despite not holding the necessary skills and there is evidence that this factor has served to undermine the positive impacts desired. Not only is it important that those working within the Thai education system are aware that hiring unskilled TEFL teachers may not yield optimal educational outcomes, there are also broader implications worthy of consideration such as the psychological impacts on the child when the adult-child bond is broken as a result of the adult leaving, reinforcement of conceptualisations of 'the other', exploitation by commercial organisations such as 'TEFL agencies' undesirable power relations and the instigation of cultural changes. Although these issues are beyond the scope of this PhD thesis, their existence supports the need for Thai educational establishments to have a better understanding of the foreign teachers that they recruit.

Similarly, this thesis contributes to knowledge through providing an enhanced comprehension of the TEFL tourism experience which can be utilised in the post-TEFL recruitment of TEFL teachers upon returning to or commencing a career within the Western educational system. Despite there being a general acknowledgement of the differences between educational systems and their associated teaching standards in different parts of the world, this thesis has argued that it is likely that Western-based recruiters' perceptions will be based on their ethnocentric assumptions. As a result, this research can help the Western-based educational establishment and its associated staff to build expectations that are more representative of the teacher's skills and capabilities. Similarly, this applies to universities who recruit the ex-TEFL teacher on a teacher training programme.

Lastly, this thesis contributes to knowledge by providing the TEFL agencies with an enhanced insight of the TEFL experience in Thailand, which they can use to inform their operational plans and marketing techniques, whilst there is scope for pedagogical research to be enriched through an enhanced understanding of who the TEFL teachers in Thailand are and their TEFL experiences. Despite its limitations, this research has opened the debate on TEFL tourism. It has provided valuable insight into an industry that is currently under-researched and has highlighted several areas worthy of additional consideration. This, together with supportive comments from respondents, provides justification for further research with a view to obtaining a more holistic view of the TEFL tourism industry; this case-study research has provided fertile ground for future researchers. Whilst the research has opened the door for

further studies and raised several questions, it can be concluded that the study has nonetheless achieved its objectives.

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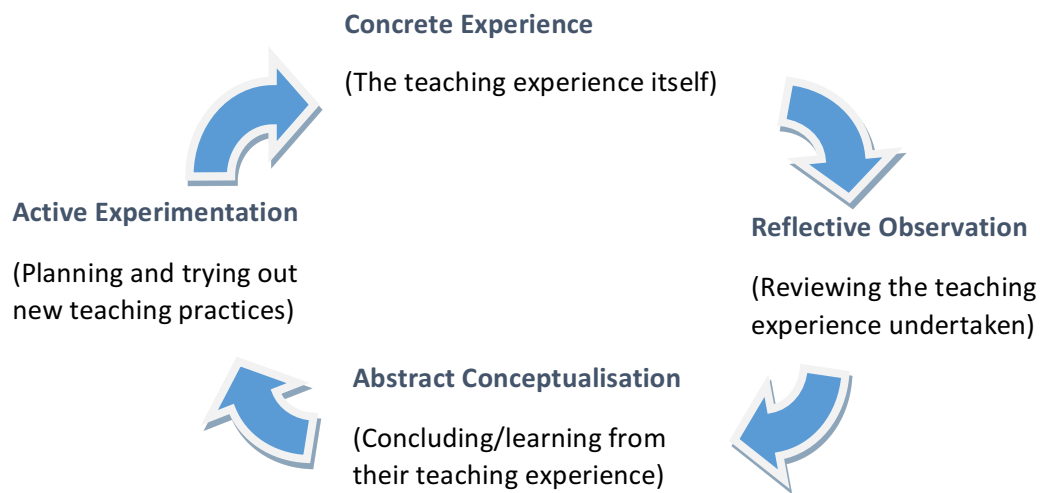
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Appendix 1: TEFL Acronyms

<i>Acronym</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
<i>TEFL</i>	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
<i>TESOL</i>	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
<i>TESL</i>	Teaching English as a Second Language
<i>ELT</i>	English Language Teaching/Training
<i>ESP</i>	English for Specific Purposes
<i>ESL</i>	English as a Second Language
<i>ESOL</i>	English to Speakers of Other Languages
<i>EFL</i>	English as a Foreign Language
<i>EAP</i>	English for Academic Purposes
<i>IEP</i>	Intensive English Programme

(Adapted from: Griffith, 2014; TESOL International Association, 2014)

Appendix 2: Existential Learning in TEFL Teaching Based on Kolb's (1984) Experiential Learning Model



Appendix 3: The Steps Involved in Transformative Learning and TEFL Teaching Based upon Coghlan and Gooch's (2011) Adaptation

Transformative Learning	Volunteer Tourism	TEFL Teaching
Step 1: Experiencing a disorienting dilemma	-Motivation to travel, discover a new environment and/or make a contribution to a social or natural environment (e.g. Tomazos and Butler, 2010) -Culture shock and experiencing an unfamiliar cultural/social/natural environment (e.g. Cousins <i>et al</i> , 2009; Sin, 2009)	-Motivation to become a TEFL teacher, work and live in a new environment and contribute to the host society
Step 2: Undergoing self-examination and Step 3: Conducting a critical assessment of internalised role assumptions from usual social context	Opportunities for reflection, expressed in volunteer diaries as descriptions of challenging experiences and emotions (e.g. McIntosh and Zahra, 2005; Raymond and Hall, 2008)	Opportunities for reflection on TEFL lessons and school activities, whether part of a formal course or informally. Encountering challenging experiences and emotions such as behavioural management in class, dealing with cultural differences and differentiation in lessons
Step 4: Relating to other people's experiences, commonly through dialogue	Informal sharing of experiences (e.g. Broad, 2003; McIntosh and Zahra, 2005; Raymond and Hall, 2008)	Observing other teacher's lessons and materials and sharing ideas
Step 5: Exploring options for new behaviours and Step 6: Building competence and self-confidence in new roles	Familiarisation with new tasks, locals habits, etc. and opportunities to contribute knowledge, ideas and skills (e.g. Foster-Smith and Evans, 2003; Newman <i>et al</i> , 2003; Wearing, 2002)	Familiarisation with teaching practices and the school environment, opportunity to contribute knowledge, ideas and skills within the classroom, with fellow TEFL teachers and host community
Step 7: Developing a plan of action	Limited opportunities in existing volunteer tourism programmes (e.g. Palacios, 2010)	Reflecting upon teaching practice and adapting and developing future lessons, improving own practice
Step 8: Acquisition of knowledge and skills for implementing the plan	Volunteer self-actualisation, including new values, skills and a sense of agency (e.g. Bailey and Russell, 2012; Wearing, 2002)	TEFL teacher self-actualisation including new teaching skills learnt and new values as a result of living and working in the new environment

Step 9: Provisional efforts to try out new roles and gain feedback

Limited opportunities in existing volunteer tourism programmes (e.g. Leigh, 2006; Sin, 2009)

Practice and reflect on new teaching practice, obtaining feedback and adapting future lessons where necessary

Step 10: Reintegration into society

Formation of new social networks and engagement (Leigh, 2006; McGehee, 2002)

Formation of new social networks and engagement in the school and community

Appendix 4: Educational and Teaching Standards in Thailand

	<i>Standard</i>	<i>Indicators</i>
<i>Educational Standard</i>	Desirable characteristics of the Thai people, as both citizens of the country and members of the world community; The Thai people will be competent, virtuous and lead a happy life.	<p>Sound physical and mental health</p> <p>Knowledge and skills sufficient for leading a meaningful life and social development</p> <p>Skills in learning and self-adjustment</p> <p>Demonstrate skills in self-learning and social development whilst adjusting to enable good human relations and harmonious work with others</p> <p>Be responsible through appreciation of the roles of nature, environment, society and culture whilst finding solutions to problems through peaceful means in order to lead a happy life in society</p> <p>Demonstrate righteousness, public-mindedness, moral and social responsibility and a keen awareness of the dignity of being Thai by being proud of forefathers and the motherland and being good citizens who offer voluntary services for the benefit of the community, society and the whole world</p>
	Guidelines for educational provision: Emphasis on learner-centred approach and school-based administration for education provision	<p>Development of diversified curricula and ambiance enabling the learners to develop themselves in line with their natural inclinations and to the best of their potential by giving all learners equal opportunities and offering current and innovative educational services conducive to learning</p> <p>Demonstrate systematic and effective development and performance monitoring of administrators, teachers, faculty staff and educational personnel who have high moral values and loyalty to the profession</p> <p>Practice school-based management designed to meet the students' real needs ensuring that all beneficiaries are satisfied and implementing an internal quality assurance system</p>
	Guidelines for creating learning society/ knowledge society: Enhancing ways of learning and	<p>Educational institutions co-operate with all parties, individuals and organizations in the community concerned with security and stability, curtailment of conflicts, peace and continuous development and progress</p> <p>Strengthen the support for learning sources and mechanisms through implementing lifelong learning sources of all types, mobilising resources and creating new bodies of knowledge for national development</p> <p>Families, communities and organizations at all levels combine efforts in creating and benefitting from knowledge. There will be exchanges of learning until learning becomes part of life</p>

strengthening learning
sources

<i>Teaching Standards</i>	Standards of teachers' knowledge	<p>Hold a minimum qualification of a Bachelor's degree as accredited by the Teachers' council</p> <p>Have knowledge in the areas of language and technology for teachers, curriculum development, learning management, psychology for teachers, educational measurement and evaluation, classroom management, educational research, educational innovation and information technology, and teachership</p>
	Standards of teachers' experience	<p>Have completed teaching functions in educational institutions under an educational degree curriculum for a minimum of one year by undertaking training on professional practice and teaching functions on educational institutions</p>
	Standards of teachers' performance	<p>Regularly practice academic activities relating to development of the teaching profession</p> <p>Make decisions to practice various activities, taking into account their consequences on learners</p> <p>Be committed to developing learners to reach their full potential</p> <p>Develop teaching plans for effective implementation</p> <p>Regularly develop effective instructional media</p> <p>Organize instructional activities focusing on permanent results for learners</p> <p>Systematically report on the results of learners' quality development</p> <p>Conduct themselves as good role models for learners</p> <p>Constructively cooperate with others in their educational institution</p> <p>Constructively cooperate with others in the community</p> <p>Seek and use information for development</p>

Create opportunities for learners to learn under all circumstances

Standards of conduct Adhere to code of conducts that address personal, professional, client-centered, collegial and societal ethics

Based on National Education Council (2005); Teachers Council of Thailand (2005)

Appendix 5: Expectations of Teachers in TEFL Teacher Originating Nations

Area	Expectation	UK	Ireland	USA	Australia	South Africa
<i>Inspiration, motivation and challenging environments</i>	Establish a safe and stimulating environment	X			X	
	Enable development of lifelong learning skills		X	X		
	Set goals that stretch and challenge	X	X	X	X	
	Demonstrate and encourage positive attitudes, values and behaviour	X				
	Encourage critical thinking, creativity and problem solving			X		
<i>Progress and outcomes for students</i>	Maintain high standards for attainment, progress and outcomes	X	X	X		
	Acknowledge capabilities and prior knowledge when planning	X		X		
	Encourage reflection of progress	X				
	Encourage pupils to take a responsible and conscientious attitude to work and study	X				
	Demonstrate understanding of how learning takes place	X		X	X	
<i>Subject and curriculum knowledge</i>	Demonstrate sound knowledge of the relevant subject(s) and curriculum areas	X		X	X	
	Promote high standards of communication, literacy, articulacy and correct use of English language	X		X	X	
	Understand and link curriculum to current interdisciplinary themes			X		
	Demonstrate a clear understanding of appropriate teaching strategies	X		X	X	
<i>Planning and teaching</i>	Impart knowledge and develop understanding through effective lesson planning	X	X	X	X	
	Promote a love of learning and intellectual curiosity	X				
	Set homework and out-of-class activities to consolidate and extend knowledge	X				
	Promote the use of interactive technologies in lessons			X	X	
	Use a variety of teaching strategies			X	X	
	Contribute to the design and provision of an effective curriculum	X		X		

		UK	Ireland	USA	Australia	South Africa
<i>Teaching adaptations/ flexibility</i>	Differentiate appropriately according to the individuality of students and their needs	X	X	X	X	
	Understand factors that may inhibit learning and how to overcome these	X				
	Demonstrate an awareness of physical, social and intellectual development	X		X	X	
	Understand the needs of students with special educational needs; high ability; English as a second language and disabilities, adapting teaching where appropriate	X		X	X	
	Understanding the role of aspects such as language, culture, religion and socio-economic status in learning, adapting teaching where appropriate			X	X	X
<i>Assessment</i>	Undertake relevant assessment, including statutory assessment requirements	X		X	X	
	Incorporate and design a range of assessment types			X		
	Make use of formative and summative assessment	X		X	X	
	Use relevant data to monitor progress and adapt processes where necessary	X		X	X	
	Give regular feedback and report progress	X		X	X	
<i>Behaviour management</i>	Maintain clear rules and routines and promote good behaviour	X			X	
	Establish a framework for discipline with a range of strategies	X			X	
	Refrain from physical or psychological abuse and avoid inappropriate physical contact					X
	Exercise authority with compassion	X				X
<i>Wider professional responsibilities</i>	Make a positive contribution to the wider life and ethos of the school	X				
	Develop effective professional relationships with colleagues	X				X
	Deploy support staff effectively	X				
	Report incidents or matters which impact on student welfare		X			
	Communicate effectively with parents and associated stakeholders	X	X	X	X	X
<i>Professional integrity and standards of ethics</i>	Treat students with dignity, respect privacy and at all times observe appropriate boundaries	X	X			X
	Take all reasonable steps to safeguard student well-being	X	X			X
	Show tolerance of and respect for the rights of others	X	X			
	Act with honesty and integrity		X			

		UK	Ireland	USA	Australia	South Africa
	Do not undermine fundamental national values, including democracy, the rule of law, individual liberty and mutual respect	X		X		X
	Be tolerant of those with different faiths and beliefs	X		X		
	Have an understanding of, and always act within, the statutory frameworks	X	X	X	X	
	Avoid conflict between professional work and private interests		X			
	Do not exploit student vulnerability or activities might lead them to break the law	X				X
	Do not teach while under the influence of any substance which impairs abilities		X			
	Avoid sexual relations with students					X
	Strive to enable students to develop a set of values consistent with the rights set out by the constitution					X
<i>Professional values and relationships</i>	Maintain professional regard for the ethos, policies and practices of the school	X	X	X		X
	Be caring, fair and committed to the best interests of the students		X	X		
	Be committed to equality, inclusion and respect by accommodating diversity in gender, civil status, family status, sexual orientation, religion, age, disability, race, ethnicity etc		X		X	
	Seek to develop positive relationships and work collaboratively with students, colleagues, parents, school management and others in the school community		X	X	X	X
	Work to establish and maintain a culture of mutual trust and respect		X			
	Respect the authority and positions of colleagues					X
<i>Continuous professional development</i>	Be open and responsive to constructive feedback and seek support if necessary		X		X	
	Maintain professional knowledge and understanding to ensure it is current	X	X	X		X
	Reflect on and critically evaluate professional practice	X	X	X	X	
	Seek opportunities for career-long professional development	X	X	X		X
	Identify and seek learning opportunities			X	X	
	Participate in professional and community networks				X	
	Support new members of the teaching profession					X

Based on: Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (2011); UK Department for Education (2013); Irish Teaching Council (2012); USA Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium; (2011); South African Council for Educators (2016).

Appendix 6: Research Survey

My name is Hayley Wright and I am currently undertaking research for my PhD at Buckinghamshire New University. The aim of my research is to understand the TEFL industry and TEFL teacher's experiences. Therefore, if you have worked as a TEFL teacher I would be very grateful if you could complete the survey. The survey is anonymous and all data collected will be analysed and used for research purposes only.

Are you willing to complete the survey?
Did/do you work as a TEFL teacher in Thailand?

Yes ☐ No ☐
Yes ☐ No ☐

If no, which country/countries did/do you teach in? _____

Section 1- Please tell me how you made arrangements to be a TEFL teacher

1. How did you source employment as a TEFL teacher?

- ☐ Via an agency
- ☐ I searched for jobs on the Internet
- ☐ I contacted schools directly
- ☐ Through a friend/contact
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____

2. Which of the following were organised by an agency?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ A TEFL qualification
- ☐ Flights
- ☐ Accommodation
- ☐ Collection from the airport
- ☐ Pre-departure information
- ☐ A guaranteed job
- ☐ Nothing was organised by an agency
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____

3. If applicable, how much money did you pay to an agency?

4. Who organised your visa and working permit?

- ☐ The agency
- ☐ The school
- ☐ I did
- ☐ I never had the correct visa or work permit
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____

5. Were there any periods of time when you did not have the correct working documentation?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, what was the reason? _____

6. Was your TEFL experience part of any of the following?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ A gap year
- ☐ A backpacking trip
- ☐ An educational course

- ☐ A missionary project
- ☐ A summer break from university/college
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____

7. For how long were you a TEFL teacher?

- ☐ 1-5 weeks
- ☐ 6-11 weeks
- ☐ 3-6 months
- ☐ 7 months- 1 year
- ☐ 1-2 years
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____
- ☐ I continue to teach

8. For what reason did you stop working as a TEFL teacher?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ I missed home
- ☐ I didn't enjoy teaching
- ☐ I didn't enjoy living abroad
- ☐ I wanted to travel
- ☐ My position was temporary/my contract ended
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____
- ☐ Not applicable

Section 2- Please tell me about your TEFL placement

9. Where were you based whilst working as a TEFL teacher?

- ☐ In a major city
- ☐ In a rural area
- ☐ Near the beach
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____

10. Why were you based here?

- ☐ The agency placed me
- ☐ I chose the location
- ☐ This was the only place I could find a job
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____

11. Was this your preferred location?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If no, why not? _____

12. What level(s) did you teach (UK equivalent)?

- ☐ Pre-school
☐ Infants
☐ Juniors
☐ Secondary
☐ University
☐ Other. Please specify _____

13. What type of school were you based in?

- ☐ Government school
☐ Private school
☐ Language Institution
☐ Other. Please specify _____

14. How were you compensated for your time working as a TEFL teacher?

- ☐ It was a voluntary placement with no compensation
☐ I was paid a salary
☐ I was given expenses
☐ Other. Please specify _____

15. If you were paid a salary how much were you paid per month? _____

16. If you were compensated through expenses, what were you entitled to?

17. What was your average class size?

- ☐ Less than 10
☐ 11-20
☐ 21-30
☐ 31-40
☐ 41-50
☐ 51-60
☐ 61-70
☐ 71+
☐ Class size varied

18. How many hours a week did you teach on average?

- ☐ Less than 10
☐ 11-15
☐ 16-20
☐ 21-25
☐ 26-30
☐ 31+

19. What level of impact do you think your teaching had on the student's education?

- ☐ Maximum impact
☐ Some impact
☐ Little impact
☐ No impact

Why do you think this? _____

20. Do you feel that teaching in Thailand is representative of teaching in your home country?

- ☐ Yes

☐ No

If no, please elaborate?

Section 3- Please tell me about the student behaviour you experienced

21. How would you describe the general behaviour of your students?

- ☐ Excellent
☐ Good
☐ Satisfactory
☐ Required improvement
☐ Terrible

22. Which of the following behavioural issues did you experience in class?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ Students using their mobile phones
☐ Students talking over the teacher
☐ Students not doing as they were asked
☐ Students messing about with each other in class
☐ No behavioural issues
☐ Other. Please specify _____

23. What disciplinary actions did you witness at your school?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ Teachers cutting student's hair
☐ Physical punishment from teachers
☐ After school detentions
☐ Parental meetings
☐ Confiscation of phones
☐ Other. Please specify _____

24. Did you at any time feel uncomfortable or disagree with the teacher's methods of discipline?

- ☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Rarely
☐ Never

25. How often would you have to manage behaviour?

- ☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Rarely
☐ Never

26. Which of the following methods did you use to manage behaviour in class?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ Refuse to play any games in classes
☐ Send the students out of the class who misbehaved
☐ Get a native teacher to discipline the students
☐ Physical punishment
☐ I didn't feel comfortable managing behaviour

- ☐ The students were well behaved so it was not necessary
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____

☐ Yes ☐ No

Section 4- Please tell me about your teaching and assessment methods

27. Were you provided with a curriculum?

28. On average, how much time did you spend lesson planning?

- ☐ Over 11 hours per week
- ☐ 5-10 hours per week
- ☐ 1-4 hours per week
- ☐ I didn't plan lessons

29. Please indicate how often you would use the following teaching practices in the classroom.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Regularly	Often
-Worksheets/text-books	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Acting/drama	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Singing songs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Flashcards	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Arts and crafts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Story telling	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Playing games	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Writing tasks	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Competitions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Watching videos	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Posters	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Group work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Powerpoint presentations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Spelling tests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Religious/cultural education from your home country	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please list any other teaching practices commonly used

- ☐ Paperwork
- ☐ Attend parties and school functions
- ☐ Organise/attend parent meetings
- ☐ Other, Please specify _____

30. Did you give extra attention/differentiated tasks for students that found the work particularly easy/difficult?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If no, what was the reason? _____

33. Did you at any time feel uncomfortable with what you were asked to do outside of classroom teaching?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, please indicate why you are of this opinion?

31. Were you required to teach people other than your students?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, please specify who _____

34. How were students assessed?

- ☐ Official Thai assessments
- ☐ Assessments provided by the school
- ☐ I wrote the assessments myself
- ☐ There were no official assessments
- ☐ Other. Please specify _____

32. What duties did you have to do alongside classroom teaching?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ Assembly
- ☐ Gate duty
- ☐ School plays
- ☐ Public singing/dancing/speaking
- ☐ English camps
- ☐ English competitions

35. Was your teaching observed or graded at any point?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If yes, how often? _____

Section 5- Please tell me about any frustrations you experienced whilst working as a TEFL teacher

36. Please indicate how frustrated the following made you feel whilst working as a TEFL teacher.

	Extremely	Reasonably	Slightly	Not at all	I didn't experience this
-Lack of communication	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Students not turning up for lessons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Last minute timetable changes/errors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Students being late for class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Lack of facilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Students too shy to contribute in class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Students cheating	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Poor management at school	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Large class sizes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Being asked to award levels of grades to students that did not deserve them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-The 'mai pen rai' approach (Thailand)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Not being paid on time/at all	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-The way that the educational system was run	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please give details of any other frustrations you experienced whilst working as a TEFL teacher

Section 6- Please tell me about how you adapted to cultural differences whilst working as a TEFL teacher

37. How interested were you in learning more about the local culture?

- ☐ Very interested
☐ Sometimes interested
☐ Not at all interested
☐ Other. Please specify _____

38. Did you undertake a formalised cultural training course?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

39. What efforts did you make to learn and speak the local language?

- ☐ I took a formal course
☐ I learnt from the local people
☐ I only learnt the minimum I needed to get by
☐ I didn't learn anything
☐ Other. Please specify _____

40. How often did you choose to eat Western food rather than local food?

- ☐ Never
☐ Occasionally
☐ I ate both equally
☐ I ate Western food whenever it was available
☐ Other. Please specify _____

41. How often did you feel like a 'local celebrity' because you were a foreigner?

- ☐ Most of the time
☐ Sometimes
☐ Rarely
☐ Never

42. Please indicate which of the following you experienced?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ I was told I was beautiful
☐ People stared at me
☐ Police stopped me because they wanted to talk to th foreigner
☐ People took photographs of me
☐ The school paraded me to promote that they had a foreign teacher
☐ I had to make public speeches because I was the foreigner
☐ People were excited to see me because I was a foreigner
☐ People would watch/follow me
☐ People would buy me gifts/drinks/food because I wa the foreigner
☐ People called out 'farang' (white person) when they saw me
☐ People I didn't know wanted to speak to me
☐ People told me that they loved me

43. How often did this extra attention make you feel uncomfortable?

- ☐ Most of the time
☐ Sometimes
☐ Occasionally
☐ Never

Section 7- Please tell me about your social life whilst working as a TEFL teacher

44. Did you work with other foreign teachers?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

45. How often did you socialise with the native population outside of work?

- ☐ Most of the time
☐ Sometimes
☐ Rarely
☐ Never

46. How often did you socialise with other Westerners/expats outside of work?

- ☐ Most of the time
☐ Sometimes
☐ Occasionally
☐ Never

47. How often did you socialise with friends/family back home (i.e. via Skype)?

- ☐ Most of the time
☐ Sometimes
☐ Occasionally
☐ Never

Section 8- Please tell me about your tourist experiences whilst working as a TEFL teacher

48. How important were public/school holidays to you?

- ☐ Extremely
☐ Reasonably
☐ Slightly
☐ Not at all important

49. What did you do in your leisure time?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ Go to the beach
☐ Go snorkeling/diving
☐ Visit waterfalls
☐ Visit caves
☐ Ride mopeds
☐ Ride elephants/visit elephant sanctuaries

- ☐ Visit tigers
☐ Trek/zip line through the Jungle
☐ Go shopping
☐ Visit temples
☐ Visit national parks
☐ Visit historical sites/memorials
☐ Attend festivals/concerts/shows
☐ Do missionary/volunteer work with the local community
☐ Visit a refugee camp
☐ Watch/take part in sport (i.e. muay Thai boxing)
☐ Other. Please specify _____

50. Which of the following nightlife activities did you undertake whilst working as a TEFL teacher?

Please put a cross in the box for all that are applicable

- ☐ Go to parties with colleagues
☐ Go to bars/clubs in your local community
☐ Go to bars/ clubs in the tourist areas
☐ Go to beach parties/full moon parties
☐ Go to 'go-go bars' or strip clubs
☐ Watch a sex show/ping pong show
☐ Spend intimate time with a Thai prostitute
☐ Get very drunk
☐ Take drugs
☐ Other. Please specify _____

51. How often did you travel away from your usual place of residence whilst working as a TEFL teacher in order to undertake the leisure/nightlife activities listed above?

- ☐ Weekly
☐ Fortnightly
☐ Monthly
☐ Only during public/school holidays
☐ Other. Please specify _____

Section 9- Please tell me why you chose to become a TEFL teacher

52. Please rate to which extent you agree with the following statements describing your reasons for becoming a TEFL teacher in Thailand.

	Completely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Completely Disagree
-I wanted to develop my teaching skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- I wanted to test out if teaching is the right job for me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- I wanted to enhance my CV	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I craved adventure	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted to travel/prolong my travels	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted to experience living/working abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I didn't know what to do with my life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted to do something 'different'	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-It was the path that God wanted me to take	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-It was part of an educational course	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted easy access to amazing beaches	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I could get a TEFL job easier than I could get a job at home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-The food appealed to me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

-The weather appealed to me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted a slower pace of life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-The cost of living was cheaper	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted access to good nightlife	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted to immerse myself into a different culture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted to learn more about myself	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I wanted to 'do something good'	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I was in/wanted a romantic relationship with a local	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-The 'naughty nightlife' appealed to me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-It was recommended to me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section 10- Please tell me about the educational value of TEFL teaching to you

53. Did you gain any formal qualifications as a result of your TEFL experience?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If yes, please specify what qualifications you gained _____

54. Please rate to which extent you agree with the following statements describing the perceived educational value of your TEFL experience

	Completely Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Completely Disagree
-I improved my teaching skills significantly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I feel like a different person since working as a TEFL teacher in Thailand	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I am now a lot more conscious of the impacts of my actions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I now prefer to travel to less tourist filled areas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I am now a less selfish person	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I now realise that material possessions are not as important as I thought they were	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I find it easier to speak to people I don't know	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I am now an expert in the local culture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I can now confidently communicate in the local language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I developed my problem solving skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-My communication skills have improved	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I am now more 'street wise'	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-I can now confidently haggle	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate any other learning that took place whilst you were working as a TEFL teacher in Thailand

Section 11- Please tell me about your educational background

55. What is your highest educational qualification?

☐ Doctorate

☐ Masters

☐ Bachelors Degree

☐ A-levels/vocational qualification

☐ GCSE's

☐ No formal qualifications

☐ Other. Please specify _____

56. Are you a continuing student?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If yes, what are you currently studying? _____

57. What experience did you have of teaching English before becoming a TEFL teacher in Thailand?

☐ No experience

☐ Some volunteer/part time work in schools

☐ I taught TEFL elsewhere

☐ I had a PGCE/professional teaching qualification

☐ I had been working as a qualified teacher

☐ Other. Please specify _____

58. Had you had a career/full time job prior to working as a TEFL teacher?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If yes, please specify _____

59. What English qualifications do you hold?

- ☐ No formal English qualifications
☐ GCSE language/literature grade A-C
☐ GCSE language/literature D-G
☐ AS/A Level English
☐ English focussed degree
☐ Other. Please specify _____

60. Do you have any of the following qualifications enabling you to teach English?

- ☐ TEFL (Online)
☐ TEFL (attendance)
☐ CELTA
☐ DELTA
☐ Other. Please specify _____

61. How would you describe your level of written English?

- ☐ I am confident that I can write well
☐ I make the occasional spelling/grammatical error
☐ I often have mistakes in my written work
☐ My spelling and grammar are awful

Section 12- Please tell me about your travel experience

70. What travel experience did you have prior to TEFL?

- ☐ I had mainly been on package holidays
☐ I had travelled to several countries, but not extensively
☐ I had extensive travel experience across the world
☐ Other. Please specify _____

71. Had you travelled to the destination you taught in before becoming a TEFL teacher there?

78. To which extent would you describe yourself as a teacher or a tourist? Please indicate on the scale.

100% Teacher

☐

Mostly Teacher

☐

Half Teacher, Half Tourist

☐

Mostly Tourist

☐

100% Tourist

☐

☐ Yes ☐ No

Section 13- Finally, please tell me a bit about yourself

72. In what year(s) did you work as a TEFL teacher?

73. How old were you when you worked as a TEFL teacher?

- ☐ 16-18
☐ 18-21
☐ 21-25
☐ 26-30
☐ 31-35
☐ 36-40
☐ 41 +

74. What was your marital status whilst working as a TEFL teacher?

- ☐ Single
☐ Married
☐ Divorced/widowed
☐ Civil partnership
☐ Other. Please specify _____

75. What is your nationality?

76. In which country did you grow up?

77. What gender are you?

- ☐ Female
☐ Male
☐ Other. Please specify _____
☐ Prefer not to say

Appendix 7: Summary Table of the Characteristics of the Main Statistical Techniques (Pallant, 2007)

Purpose	Example of question	Parametric statistic	Non-parametric alternative	Independent variable	Dependent variable	Essential features
Exploring relationships	What is the relationship between gender and dropout rates from therapy?	None	Chi-square Chapter 22	one categorical variable <i>Sex: MF</i>	one categorical variable <i>Dropout/complete therapy: Yes/No</i>	The number of cases in each category is considered, not scores
	Is there a relationship between age and optimism scores?	Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) Chapter 11	Spearman's Rank Order Correlation (ρ) Chapter 22	two continuous variables <i>Age, Optimism scores</i>		One sample with scores on two different measures, or same measure at Time 1 and Time 2
	After controlling for the effects of socially desirable responding bias, is there still a relationship between optimism and life satisfaction?	Partial correlation Chapter 12	None	two continuous variables and one continuous variable you wish to control for <i>Optimism, life satisfaction, scores on a social desirability scale</i>		One sample with scores on two different measures, or same measure at Time 1 and Time 2
	How much of the variance in life satisfaction scores can be explained by self-esteem, perceived control and optimism? Which of these variables is the best predictor?	Multiple regression Chapter 13	None	set of two or more continuous independent variables <i>Self-esteem, perceived control, optimism</i>	one continuous dependent variable <i>Life satisfaction</i>	One sample with scores on all measures
	What is the underlying structure of the items that make up the Positive and Negative Affect Scale—how many factors are involved?	Factor analysis Chapter 15	None	set of related continuous variables <i>Items of the Positive and Negative Affect Scale</i>		One sample, multiple measures
Comparing groups	Are males more likely to dropout of therapy than females?	None	Chi-square Chapter 22	one categorical independent variable <i>Sex</i>	one categorical dependent variable <i>Dropout/complete therapy</i>	You are interested in the <i>number of people</i> in each category, not scores on a scale

Purpose	Example of question	Parametric statistic	Non-parametric alternative	Independent variable	Dependent variable	Essential features
Comparing groups (cont.)	Is there a change in participants' anxiety scores from Time 1 to Time 2?	Paired samples t-test Chapter 16	Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test Chapter 22	one categorical independent variable (two levels) <i>Time 1/Time 2</i>	one continuous dependent variable <i>Anxiety scores</i>	Same people on two different occasions
	Is there a difference in optimism scores for people who are under 35yrs, 36-49yrs and 50+ yrs?	One-way between groups ANOVA Chapter 17	Kruskal-Wallis Chapter 22	one categorical independent variable (three or more levels) <i>Age group</i>	one continuous dependent variable <i>Optimism scores</i>	Three or more groups: different people in each group
	Is there a change in participants' anxiety scores from Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3?	One-way repeated measures ANOVA Chapter 17	Friedman Test Chapter 22	one categorical independent variable (three or more levels) <i>Time 1/Time 2/Time 3</i>	one continuous dependent variable <i>Anxiety scores</i>	Three or more groups: same people on two different occasions
	Is there a difference in the optimism scores for males and females, who are under 35yrs, 36-49yrs and 50+ yrs?	Two-way between groups ANOVA Chapter 18	None	two categorical independent variables (two or more levels) <i>Age group, Sex</i>	one continuous dependent variable <i>Optimism scores</i>	Two or more groups for each independent variable: different people in each group
	Which intervention (maths skills/confidence building) is more effective in reducing participants' fear of statistics, measured across three time periods?	Mixed between-within ANOVA Chapter 19	None	one between-groups independent variable, (two or more levels) one within-groups independent variable (two or more levels) <i>Type of intervention, Time</i>	one continuous dependent variable <i>Fear of Statistics test scores</i>	Two or more groups with different people in each group, each measured on two or more occasions
	Is there a difference between males and females, across three different age groups, in terms of their scores on a variety of adjustment measures (anxiety, depression, and perceived stress)?	Multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) Chapter 20	None	one or more categorical independent variables (two or more levels) <i>Age group, Sex</i>	two or more related continuous dependent variables <i>Anxiety, depression and perceived stress scores</i>	
	Is there a significant difference in the Fear of Stats test scores for participants in the maths skills group and the confidence building group, while controlling for their scores on this test at Time 1?	Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) Chapter 21	None	one or more categorical independent variables (two or more levels) one continuous covariate variable <i>Type of intervention, Fear of Stats test scores at Time 1</i>	one continuous dependent variable <i>Fear of Stats test scores at Time 2</i>	

