THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AUTONOMOUS LEARNERS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY STUDENTS IN THE GRADUATE DIPLOMA PROGRAM IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

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Niramon Rattanasongkhroh

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were: 1) to explore the perceptions of autonomous learners in four aspects by 67 students in the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession, 2) to investigate the perceptions of autonomous learners in high and low English proficiency students in the program, 3) to examine language learning strategies employed by the students in the program, 4) to investigate language learning strategies used by high and low English proficiency students in the program, and 5) to find the relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies.

The population included 67 students studying in the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession in the academic year of 2012. They were divided into high and low English proficiency students by conducting Quick Placement Test (QPT). The research instruments included Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire and Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL version 7.0) showing the Cronbach's alpha coefficiency at .97 and .98 respectively. Moreover, semi-structured interviews were conducted to gain in-depth information. The statistical devices used for data analysis were mean, standard deviation, and Spearman Rho.

The results showed as follows. 1) The students rated autonomous learners in four aspects at high levels. 2) High and low English proficiency students rated autonomous learners highest in motivation, while the least rated autonomous learners were different. High English proficiency students rated autonomous learners lowest in their decision-making abilities, while the least rated autonomous learners of low English proficiency students were performing activities. 3) The students rated their overall language learning strategies at the medium level. 4) Students, both in the high and low English proficiency levels, frequently used metacognitive strategies in language learning. High English proficiency students used affective strategies least, while low English proficiency students used cognitive strategies least. 5) There was a statistically significant relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies ($p < .01$).

KEY WORDS: AUTONOMOUS LEARNERS / LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES / HIGH AND LOW ENGLISH PROFICIENCY STUDENTS

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ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองและกลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาของนักศึกษา ในหลักสูตรประกาศนียบัตรบัณฑิตวิชาชีพครู

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AUTONOMOUS LEARNERS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY STUDENTS IN THE GRADUATE DIPLOMA PROGRAM IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

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บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ คือ 1) เพื่อศึกษาความตระหนักของการเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองใน 4 ด้านของนักศึกษาจำนวน 67 คนในหลักสูตรประกาศนียบัตรบัณฑิตวิชาชีพครู 2) เพื่อศึกษาความตระหนักในการเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองของนักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษระดับสูงและต่ำในหลักสูตร 3) เพื่อศึกษากลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาของนักศึกษาในหลักสูตร 4) เพื่อศึกษากลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาของนักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษระดับสูงและต่ำในหลักสูตร และ 5) เพื่อหาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองและกลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษา

ตัวอย่างประชากรเป็นนักศึกษาในหลักสูตรประกาศนียบัตรบัณฑิตวิชาชีพครูปีการศึกษา 2555 จำนวน 67 คน ซึ่งแบ่งออกเป็น 2 กลุ่ม ได้แก่ กลุ่มที่มีความสามารถทางด้านภาษาอังกฤษสูงและต่ำ โดยใช้คะแนนสอบจากแบบทดสอบ Quick Placement Test (QPT) เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในงานวิจัย ประกอบด้วย แบบสอบถามการเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองและกลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาของ Oxford (SILL version 7.0) โดยแสดงค่าความเชื่อถือที่ .97 และ .98 ตามลำดับ นอกจากนี้การสัมภาษณ์แบบกึ่งมีโครงสร้างนำมาใช้เพื่อหาข้อมูลเชิงลึก สถิติที่ใช้ในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูล คือ ค่าเฉลี่ย ค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน และสัมประสิทธิ์สหสัมพันธ์แบบสเปียร์แมน

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า 1) นักศึกษากลุ่มนี้เป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองใน 4 ด้านอยู่ในระดับสูง 2) นักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษทั้งระดับสูงและต่ำเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองในด้านแรงจูงใจมากที่สุด นักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษทั้งระดับสูงและต่ำเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองในด้านที่น้อยที่สุดแตกต่างกัน โดยนักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษในระดับสูงใช้ความสามารถในการตัดสินใจในการเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองน้อยที่สุด ในขณะที่นักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษในระดับต่ำได้เข้าร่วมกิจกรรมในการเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองน้อยที่สุด 3) นักศึกษาใช้กลยุทธ์ทุกกลยุทธ์โดยรวมในการเรียนรู้ภาษาในระดับปานกลาง 4) นักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษทั้งระดับสูงและต่ำใช้กลยุทธ์อภิปริชานมากที่สุด นักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษระดับสูงใช้กลยุทธ์จิตพิสัยน้อยที่สุด ในขณะที่นักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถภาษาอังกฤษระดับต่ำใช้กลยุทธ์ปริชานน้อยที่สุด 5) การเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองและกลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาของนักศึกษามีความสัมพันธ์กันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ($p < .01$)

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

English, as a global language, has played an important role in three ways. (1) It is widely used as a native language (ENL), as a second language (ESL), and as a foreign language (EFL) and as an international medium for dealing with communication tasks for both "internal" and "external" purposes in administration, broadcasting, education, trade, and science (Quirk, 1985). Demographic data show that 320-380 million people use ENL, 300-500 million people use ESL, and 500-1,000 million people use EFL (Crystal, 2003) out of a total of 7,029,920,518 million people worldwide (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). (2) According to the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN), English will act as "the working language" (article 34 under the 2007 charter) (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Ministry of Education, 2009b; Schneider, 2011). It is a language of wider communication in Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand (Kachru & Smith, 2009). Although there is not a colonial background for English in many countries (such as Vietnam, Cambodia, Thailand, or Indonesia), several developing countries require English for communications (Schneider, 2011). (3) English is the main language used to acquire information in the age of information technology and for a majority of academic publications in scientific-technological and linguistics areas (Crystal, 2003; Kachru & Smith, 2009). English will clearly be important, as learners are expected to be active as autonomous learners in their own future development in education and their professions (Stephenson, 1998). Hence, to be successful language learners, students need to be autonomous learners and employ learning strategies in acquiring English (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991).

Autonomous Learners: since the mid-1970's, the process syllabus has focused on the most role of learners and on learner autonomy (Allwright, 2005). The most quoted definition of autonomy is that "it is capable of taking charge of one's own

learning" (see also Schmenk, 2005; Holec, 1981). It consists of five learning stages: setting objectives, identifying the content, selecting the methods and techniques, managing the procedures of acquiring knowledge, and assessing the outcomes (Holec, 1981). Clearly, the role of students has changed from the traditional approach to the student-centered approach (Nunan, 1989; Tudor, 1996). Collaborative learning is needed to help learners manage their own learning processes successfully even as learners are prime performers in meeting their own needs (Jones, 2007). Accordingly, the teachers' role has changed from giving students knowledge to facilitating and supporting them as they become aware of learner autonomy or independence (Crabbe, 1993), and acting as a facilitator, a counselor, and a resource or guide for enhancing autonomy in classroom contexts (Benson, 2001; Voller, 1997). Besides, Benson (1997) said that autonomy could be categorized into technical, psychological, and political levels. At the technical level, there are management, strategies and techniques influencing students' learning actions (Benson & Lor, 1998). Therefore, students can be encouraged to learn a language autonomously through learning strategies (O'Mally & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991).

Language Learning Strategies: learning strategies are key tools in helping learners improve their own language learning (Oxford, 1990). Some studies have found that successful students use language learning strategies more than the unsuccessful students (Gerami & Baighlou, 2011; Green & Oxford, 1995). Moreover, learning strategies can be predictors of students' English proficiency. For instance, using cognitive strategies and social strategies can be predictors of students' achievement based on TOEFL scores (Wharton, 2000). Metacognitive strategies, concerned with planning, controlling, and evaluating learning tasks, have a vital role in assisting students in managing their own learning successfully (Rahimi & Katal, 2012). All six language learning strategies learners used can improve language performance (Ghavamnia, Kassaiam, & Dabaghi, 2011; Murray, 2010; Park, 1997). As this result, the more the learners employ language learning strategies, the more their strategy training must be improved (Oxford, 1990) to meet their individual needs and national education under the ASEAN policies (Ministry of Education, 2009b).

To sum up, students should greater pay learner attention to how to become successful language learners, especially Thai students (Phungphol, 2005) in the hope

of becoming autonomous learners and applying strategy training to learning contexts (Little, 1995). There are a variety of alternatives in the globalized world as to how to improve language. The use of advanced technology, for example, can present language learners with a range of autonomous strategies for language practice (Gremmo & Riley, 1995). Students can gain more knowledge by themselves as well as in regular classrooms. In addition, students who are autonomous learners can complete their specific tasks and succeed in language learning (Cotterall, 1995; Holec, 1981; Littlewood, 1996). Learning processes which highlight learners' roles can be used both inside and outside the classroom (Phungphol, 2005).

1.2 Rationale of the Study

In autonomous language learning, the role of learner is focused on their own learning in relation to the learner-centered approach (Benson & Voller, 1997). The traditional learning approach has shifted to the learner-centered curriculum, especially the decision-making process about what and how content should be taught (Nunan, 1989). Additionally, Sheerin (1997) reported that learners, who have their own roles in learning, can be successful in language learning. In the Thai context, learner-centeredness was set as an educational reform in 1999, replacing the former unsuccessful approach of teacher-centeredness (Phungphol, 2005). Phungphol (2005) reported the following problems for Thai learners:

> No doubt, all the gloom and doom pictures of teacher-centered educational practices that have been dominating Thai education for decades have led to highly-respected intellectual like Professor Prawase and many other Thais to go frantic and alarmed at the increasing number of Thai children who have completed their schooling could not read and write well (even in Thai, their own native language. Leave alone English, the lingual franca of globalized age), could not think creatively or critically, could not put their knowledge to creative practical applications in real-world contexts outside of classroom, could not do learning how to learn, could not do life-long learning, and could not function effectively as productive and contributing members in the fast changing Thai society. (p. 9-10)

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Consequently, research on learner autonomy in Thailand should be conducted to analyze students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession (Dixon,

2011) and encourage Thai students to be successful learners inside and outside the classroom under the concept of autonomous learning on life-long learning (Phungphol, 2005).

In this changing world, Thai learners should be active in raising the quality of education (Commission on Higher Education, 2008). In line with the goals of the Framework of the Second 15-Year Long Range Plan on Higher Education in Thailand (2008-2022), students at the tertiary level should prepare themselves to be autonomous learners in the information-based and knowledge-based worlds through increased learning. They are expected to train themselves for future professions in different situations in ASEAN. In order to achieve the educational goals, learners have to continue to study and be life-long learners (Commission on Higher Education, 2008). Therefore, learner-centeredness is one factor that supports autonomy (Benson & Voller, 1997). Inevitably, learners have faced a challenge in achieving their own varying purposes under the autonomy concept rather than depending on teachers (Holec, 1981).

Autonomy was first widely discussed in the 1990s, and has been the subject of books, international conferences, and newsletters (Benson, 2001). Its meaning has been discussed in various ways. "Independence" and "autonomy", for instance, sometimes are synonyms. However, "independence" sometimes has its own specific meaning (Benson & Voller, 1997). Moreover, the word "autonomous" can be used to describe a person, not a process, so sometimes "self-directed learning" is used instead. In some articles, the word "autonomy" is also used as a synonym for "self-directed learning'" (Holec, 1981). According to Dixon (2011), a review of the literature revealed that autonomy is expressed in many ways. As a result, many issues regarding autonomy are yet to be resolved: what actually it means, how to encourage it in practice, and how to support autonomy.

To illustrate related topics of learner autonomy, several studies have been carried out at the secondary level (Sumonwiriya, 2007) and tertiary level (Swatevacharkul, 2010; Rukthong, 2008), in Thailand and abroad (Cotterall, 1995; Dickinson, 1993; Herriman, 2007; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Littlewood, 1999) have been carried out to explore how students become autonomous learners and what their perceptions of autonomous learning are. For example, Swatevacharkul's (2010)

findings showed that university students are at a high level of learner autonomy, and that the teachers strongly advocate the promotion of learner autonomy. Also, the study showed that readiness for autonomous language learning positively correlates with a deep approach to learning at a moderate level. The deep approach includes the learning constructed from accumulated knowledge, a profound understanding, and intrinsic motivation. All in all, effective learning outcomes have been found to depend on one's own learning, and Holec (1981)'s concept of autonomy has a major role for learners who have "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p.3).

One supporting factor in the notion of autonomy helping learners to actively acquire information and deal with their own learning tasks is strategy training (Benson & Voller, 1997; Wenden, 1995). Strategies help students to deal with a task effectively to consider how to plan their own learning (Wenden, 1995) and strive for target knowledge more simply and more successfully in any surrounding (Oxford, 1990). As a result, autonomous learners need to consciously learn and be aware of learning strategies to improve their own learning (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1995).

In conclusion, this study is aimed at investigating the relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies employed by students in the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession in order to help Thai students in this level improve their learning of English by themselves under educational systems in the globalized world. Indeed, in autonomous learning, learners are able to apply their knowledge and attempt to learn actively using learning strategies. Wenden (1985) gave the example of the old proverb "Give a man a fish and he eats for a day; teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime". This clearly shows that learners cannot learn everything in their classrooms or in a limited amount of time. Most importantly, it is the role of their learners themselves to govern their own learning autonomously (Dickinson, 1995).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The English proficiency of Thai graduates is inferior to that of students in other ASEAN countries such as Singapore, the Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia,

Burma, Vietnam, and Cambodia as measured by the Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency (CU-TEP) scores and TOEFL scores (Prapphal & Opanon-Amata, 2002). The TOEFL scores of Thai learners have been decreasing over the years as Table 1.1 shows.

Table 1.1 TOEFL Scores of Thai Learners, 2007-2010

TOEFL Results	SCORES	
	TOEFL PBT (TOTAL 677)	TOEFL iBT (TOTAL 120)
2007	500	72
2008	500	72
2009	493	74
2010	486	75

Note. These TOEFL scores of Thai learners from 2007 to 2010 are from ETS (Educational Testing Service), which is the institution responsible for TOEFL. The TOEFL results are useful in up to 180 countries as admission scores for colleges, universities, exchange courses and scholarships; the data are available at www.ets.org/toefl. Adapted from "Test and Score data summary for TOEFL Internet-based and Paper-based tests 2007-2010," by Educational Testing Service (2007-2010)

A score of not less than 550 is required on the TOEFL PBT for admission to postgraduate programs (Prapphal & Opanon-Amata, 2002). For this reason, Thai graduates who are getting ready to apply for postgraduate study both in Thailand and abroad should urgently improve their English.

To meet the need of the National Education Act of 1999, students need to study all subjects enthusiastically in both formal and informal education in order to achieve life-long learning (Ministry of Education, 2009a). Also, students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession are obviously required to be autonomous learners (Suan Dusit Rajabhat University, 2008). For instance, teaching materials and instructional media are provided for them to search for information autonomously on the Internet, and an e-database on the Internet is offered as a useful way to search for information from locally and abroad (Suan Dusit Rajabhat University, 2008). Teachers should act as a facilitators or advisors to help learners achieve the desired learning goals in accordance with the needs of the educational

reform program, economics, society, technological and scientific advances, and other related developments in Thailand. According to Pongput, Manasontorn, and Sripan (2010), a curriculum assessment of the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession at Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakorn found that learners' participation is important for the management of teaching and learning. Therefore, autonomous language learning is expected to take a part in the learning process with teachers' support as facilitators who help learners employ learning strategies appropriately.

It is clear that students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession should play a major role as autonomous learners in line with educational reform and professional needs in order to work successfully with the upcoming integration of ASEAN in 2015. Therefore, this study examined how high and low English ability students performed as autonomous learners and what language learning strategies they employed in language learning. Additionally, the relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies was studied to show how to improve language learning for this group of students.

1.4 Purposes of the Study

This study aimed to find the following.

1. How do all students in the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession perceive autonomous learners' responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities as used inside and outside classes in learning English?

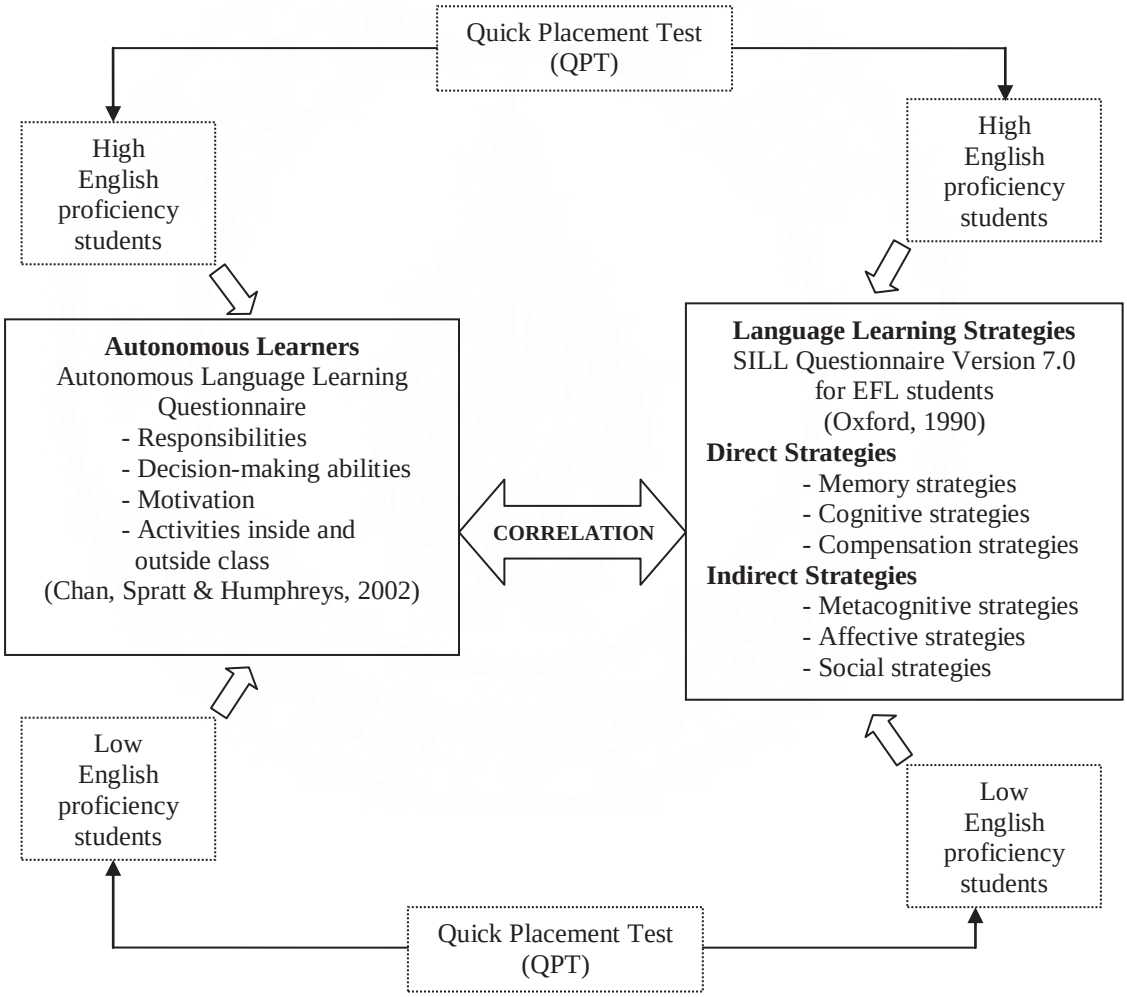
2. How do high and low English proficiency students in the program perceive autonomous learners' responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities as used inside and outside class in learning English?

3. What language learning strategies do all students in the program use in learning English?

4. What language learning strategies do high and low English proficiency students in the program use in learning English?

5. To what extent are there any relationships between autonomous learners and language learning strategies among students in the program?

1.5 Conceptual Framework



Note: EFL is the abbreviation for English as a Foreign Language

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework Model of the Relationship between Autonomous Learners and Language Learning Strategies

This conceptual framework looks at two main variables found in the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire designed by Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990). (1) The Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire

by Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002) explores the perceived roles of autonomous learners in four categories: the responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities students employed inside and outside classrooms. The concept of learner autonomy is based on Holec's (1981) definition and includes responsibilities and decision-making abilities as autonomous learners. Motivation can be separated into "extrinsic" and "intrinsic" motivation based on Deci and Ryan (1985). Autonomous language learning comes fundamentally from "intrinsic" motivation. In the activities section, Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002) identified the activities students' used inside and outside the classroom. (2) The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) consists of two major categories: direct and indirect strategies. Each is composed of three subsets. Direct strategies deal directly with learning the target language by using a variety of mental processing activities. The direct strategies are categorized as memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies, while the indirect strategies (metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies) are concerned with learning in a combination of different ways beyond the direct strategies. This model (Figure 1.1) shows the systematic basis for the overall research outline and the instruments used in the quantitative approach. Also, it presents the methods of gathering the data by using two sets of questionnaires. To investigate the learner autonomy of the high and low English ability students and what language learning strategies they use, a placement test score was administered to divide students into high and low English levels.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are valuable as follows:

1. The findings can show how high and low English proficiency students are supported to be autonomous learners and train themselves to use language learning strategies effectively in learning English.

2. The findings can guide English teachers as to how to design their English classes in order to encourage students to become autonomous learners and

how to encourage learners to acquire learning strategies autonomously both inside and outside their classrooms.

3. The findings have implications for curriculum or syllabus developers who attempt to promote learner autonomy and learning strategy use appropriately inside and outside English class in particular contexts.

1.7 Limitations

The findings of this study are limited to a particular group of participants with the same backgrounds as regards the context for learning. All participants in the study volunteered to take part; they were selected by purposive selection with no sampling. Participants' had bachelor's degrees on various fields. Therefore, generalizations may not apply to diverse groups of students from other backgrounds, contexts, and levels.

The results of the test showed that most students (63) were fall into the low ability of using English group. There are only 4 students in high ability of using English group. The number of the second group was too low to provide reliability results of the statistics, *t*-test.

1.8 Scope of the Study

In this study, participants and variables are as follows.

1. There are two groups of participants: high and low English proficiency students in the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession at Thonburi University.

2. There are two major variables in the study used to subdivide the results into ten subsets. Autonomous learning consists of the responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities students employed in and outside class. Language learning strategies consists of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

1.9 Definitions of Terms

1. ***Autonomous Learning*** refers to "the abilities to take charge of one's own learning" and "the responsibilities for determining the objectives, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc), and evaluating what has been acquired" (Holec, 1981, p.3).

2. ***Autonomous Learner*** refers to a person who perceives roles regarding their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, intrinsic motivation, and behaviors while performing activities inside and outside class based on Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys's (2002) questionnaire.

3. ***Language Learning Strategies (LLS)*** refers to learners' actions that can help them to learn languages easier, faster, more effectively, and which are more readily transferable to any learning environments (Oxford, 1990).

4. ***The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)*** is an instrument for collecting data about language learning strategy use adopted from Oxford (1990). There are two versions: version 5.1 for English native speakers and version 7.0 for non-native English speakers. This study employed version 7.0 for ESL/EFL students.

5. ***High English Proficiency Students*** refers to students taking the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession who got a score on the Quick Placement Test (QPT) equal to or higher than 40 out of 60.

6. ***Low English Proficiency Students*** refers to students taking the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession who got a score on the Quick Placement Test (QPT) equal to or lower than 39 of 60.

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CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This study aimed at investigating the roles of autonomous learners and the use of language learning strategies by students in the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession. It also examined the relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies. Thus, the background on autonomous learners and language learning strategies will be provided as follows:

2.1 Learner Autonomy
    2.1.1 Definitions
    2.1.2 Characteristics of Autonomous Learners
2.2 Intrinsic Motivation and Self-determination
2.3 Learner Autonomy in Asian Contexts
2.4 Related Research on Learner Autonomy in the Thai Context
2.5 Language Learning Strategies
    2.5.1 Definitions
    2.5.2 Classifications
2.6 Previous Research on Frequency of Strategy Use
2.7 Previous Research on Language Learning Strategies and Proficiency or Achievement

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2.1 Learner Autonomy

The concept of "autonomy" in the area of language has been widely discussed since the 1990s, and there have been a number of studies on this topic in books, international conferences, research articles and newsletters (Benson & Voller, 1997; Dixon, 2011). Many different meanings of this concept have been given in the fields of psychology, pedagogy, politics and philosophy (Dixon, 2011). However, in language the learning context many researchers have defined "autonomy" in its essence as outlined in chronological order in Table 2.1.

2.1.1 Definitions

Several researchers have proposed definitions of learner autonomy (Benson & Voller, 1997; Cotterall, 1995; Dickinson, 1994; Holec, 1981; Little, 1990; Littlewood, 1996).

Table 2.1 Definitions of Autonomy

Researchers	Definitions	The terms used
Holec (1981)	Autonomy is "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p.3).	autonomy, self-directed learning
Little (1990)	Learner autonomy is "essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning. We recognize it in a wide variety of behaviors as a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (p.7).	learner autonomy

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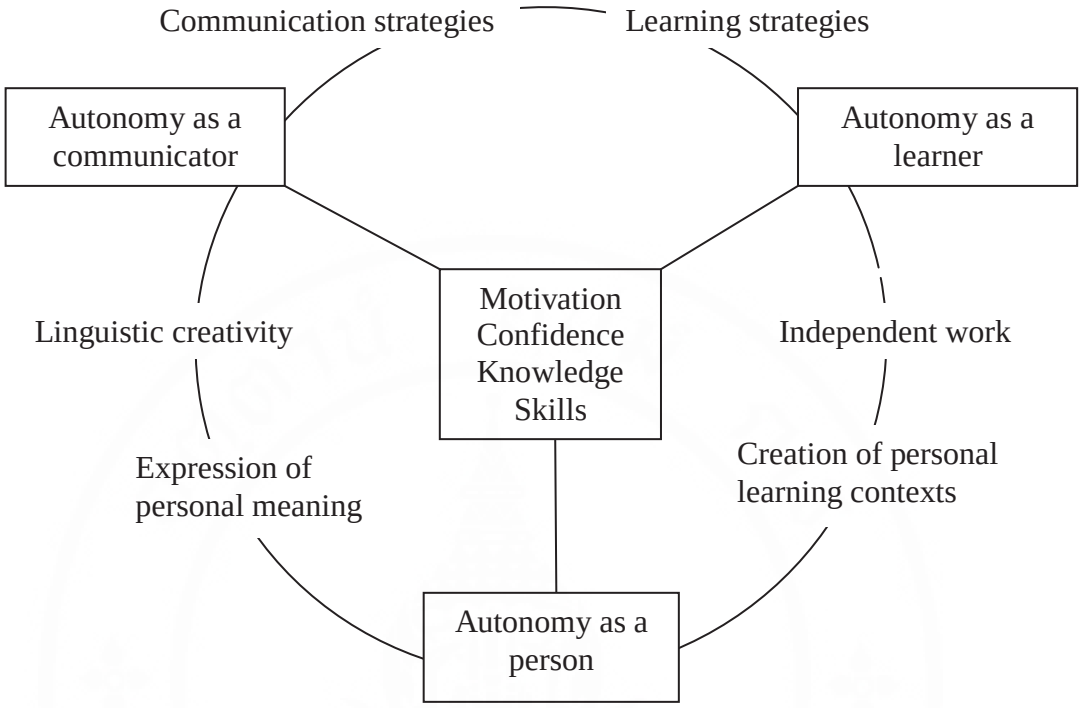
Table 2.1 Definitions of Autonomy (Cont.)

Researchers	Definitions	The terms used
Dickinson (1994)	Autonomy is "the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions. In full autonomy there is no involvement of a 'teacher' or an institution. And the learner is also independent of specially prepared materials" (p.11).	autonomy
Cotterall (1995)	Autonomy is "the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning" (p.195).	autonomy
Littlewood (1996)	Autonomy may refer to "a capacity for thinking and acting independently that may occur in any kind of situation (including, of course, a situation where the focus is on learning" (p.428).	autonomy
Benson and Voller (1997)	Autonomy is defined, in a way that is similar to Holec's definition, as a term which "has been used in at least five different ways: (1) for *situations* in which learners study entirely on their own; (2) for a set of *skills* which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning; (3) for an inborn *capacity* which is suppressed by institutional education; (4) for the exercise of *learners' responsibility* for their own learning; (5) for the *right* of learners to determine the direction of their own learning" (p.1).	autonomy, independence

Each definition implies that autonomy focuses accountability on the person who is actually learning. Moreover, "autonomy", "self-direction", and "self-access" are used as variations of the concept of "autonomy" (Gremmo & Riley, 1995), and "self-directed learning" can be compared to "autonomy" to avoid any lack of clarity (Holec, 1981). According to Little (1990), the self-instruction is not used as a synonym of learner autonomy, and it means learning independently without teachers. However, the various definitions of autonomy have still driven researchers to further discussion because of the lack of agreement about the concept (Benson & Voller, 1997; Dixon, 2011).

The most quoted definition is from Holec (1981). Holec's definition of autonomy in language learning is "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" which can happen by both in individual learning or classroom teaching controlled by teachers. In agreement with this, Dickinson (1993) stated that learner autonomy is suitable for learners even when they are children. In addition, teachers should be ready to change their own roles for individual learners according to their age to give appropriate support. In Holec's (1981) concept of autonomy, learners should be responsible for the following aspects: (1) determining the objectives; (2) defining the content and progression; (3) selecting methods and techniques to be used; (4) monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly when speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc); (5) evaluating what has been acquired (Holec, 1981, p.3). Autonomous learners can be encouraged to use self-directed learning with or without teachers or autonomous teaching materials. In addition to the practical ways of learner autonomy, some supporting factors concerning on learner autonomy have been described (Littlewood, 1996).

The characteristics of autonomous learners proposed by Littlewood (1996) consist of knowledge, skills, motivation, and confidence leading learners to control their learning actions independently. If learners lack these components, they will not succeed in learning a language. Moreover, the degree of autonomy, for example, relies on the capacity to manage learning tasks and use various strategies to reach the learning goals concerned with foreign language learning as presented in Framework 2.1.



Framework 2.1: A framework for developing autonomy in foreign language learning (Littlewood, 1996, p. 432)

As the framework shows, learning strategies can help learners learn foreign languages. If learners can employ the target language to pursue communication, they are concerned with texts and social situations in communication being autonomy as a communicator. Also, they are able to be autonomy as a learner.

According to Benson and Voller (1997), there are five factors which make learners autonomous: their own learning situations, skills, capacity, learners' responsibilities, and rights. These factors influence learners' learning. They affect the ability of learners to become autonomous. In addition, although learners must consider these factors as they apply to their own learning, other notions in support of learner autonomy must also be fostered.

One concept supporting autonomy that helps learners become active is learner-centeredness (Benson & Voller, 1997; Littlewood, 1996; Tudor, 1996). As with the concept of autonomy, the learners' role is focused on the goals of learner autonomy. Many scholars have encouraged learners to become autonomous through the problem-solving method created by John Dewey, the social and political

perspectives of autonomy of Paolo Freire, the technological support described by Ivan Illich, and the human psychology of Carl Rogers (Benson, 2001; Gremmo & Riley, 1995). As a result, in Thailand, learner-centeredness is being carried out in the learning and teaching processes.

According to Phungphol (2005), the learner-centeredness developed by the American Psychological Association (APA) has been popularly employed in teaching and learning situations since 1999. This approach is composed of cognitive and metacognitive factors, motivational and affective factors, developmental and social factors, and individual difference factors. In order to succeed in learning with these factors, students are involved in leading their own learning with responsibility for themselves and with teacher support.

2.1.2 The Characteristics of Autonomous Learners

As autonomous learners, learners have taken roles leading them independently to the desired goals of ability and willingness (Littlewood, 1996). The factors successful autonomous learners should employ are knowledge, skills, motivation, and confidence. This is closely linked to Littlewood's (1996) example.

> a person may feel highly motivated to learn outside class but lack the necessary knowledge or skills to organize his or her time effectively; a person may have ample opportunities to develop knowledge and skills for organizing learning, but not wish to do so because he or she sees this as the teacher's role (Riley, 1988: as cited in Littlewood, 1996).

In Dickinson's (1993) description of autonomous learners , learners are expected to use their prior knowledge to develop their own learning tasks in accordance with autonomous language learning by setting what goals on their own using the teachers' guidelines, knowing what they need and maybe taking action together with the teacher, choosing their own learning strategies and monitoring their progress, investigating whether the ways of learning are suitable for them and trying to choose the best ones, and trying to evaluate themselves. Therefore, an autonomous learner is a person who is willing to actively acquire knowledge rather than to gain knowledge passively in a classroom. Because of these traits, they will attempt to find a way to meet their own learning needs (Dickinson, 1993). Similarly, Little (1990)

defined autonomous learners as learners who are able to apply integrated knowledge in order to meet their own needs or challenges by themselves.

2.2 Intrinsic Motivation and Self-determination

Motivation is concerned with the exploration of the energization and direction of behavior as psychological theories (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Energy is necessarily concerned with needs, including the needs of an inherent organism and the needs of affected environments. As the direction is examined, it is related to the processes of internal and external stimuli. Then the stimuli lead to actions towards the identified needs. Therefore, motivation includes the related organism's needs and the structures of stimulations incorporating behaviors. In addition, motivation theories are based on assumptions about human nature and the factors influencing actions; it is concerned with the mechanistic and the organismic. Organismic theories work actively with volition and initiating behaviors, which are composed of intrinsic needs and physiological drives. Mechanistic theories are evidenced in the passive ways of the human organism in its physiological drives and environmental stimuli. As a result, intrinsic motivation and physiological drives exist in organisms.

Intrinsic motivation is the stimulus of the innate nature of the organism. When adults carry out activities, their behaviors that result from internal and active incentives occur because of a primary motivator, and rewards are received as a secondary motivator as a result of those actions (Deci & Ryan, 1985). According to Deci and Ryan (1985), there are the human need for freedom (the need for self-determination), effective interactions with the environment (the need for competence), and the feelings of interest and enjoyment (interest-excitement flow) on the notion of intrinsic motivation in psychology.

Self-determination plays a significant role in intrinsic motivation. The control of environments and the control of self-determination are different, and the latter aspect is concerned with the self-determination of one' responsibilities for his/ her own sake without desired outcomes. Deci and Ryan (1985) stated that "control refers to there being a contingency between one's behavior and the outcomes one

receives, whereas self-determination refers to the experience of freedom in initiating one's behavior" (p.31).

Competence is concerned with the interactions with other things, the exploration of learning, and adaptation. This behavior corresponds to intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation stimulates human behaviors to achieve their goals without reinforcement. This internal motivation concept was proposed by White (1959). The behaviors of organisms are resulted from the interactions with their environments. The feeling of the non-drive-based motivation can be satisfied, and it is related to organismic needs and self-determination.

The feelings of interest and enjoyment are related to affects and emotions. Izard (1977) proposed that the interest-excitement is one of ten different emotions. It was found that joy occurred in a secondary role after interest-excitement. Interest-excitement plays an important role leading to behaviors of adaptation, development, and coordination. Moreover, Csikszentmihalyi (1975) stated that when there is true enjoyment in doing activities, it affects activities in the environments. However, in the case of an optimal challenge, which is not too easy or too difficult to overcome, intrinsic motivation can be encouraged. For example, if the tasks are very difficult to cope with, a person will feel bored and lack for the flow of doing it. Consequently, the possible accomplishment that one person can achieve is stimulated from intrinsic motivation.

To sum up, intrinsic motivation is composed of the need for self-determination, competence, and interest-excitement. The first two needs have a mutual relationship in which there is not only the need for competence, but self-determination also causes intrinsic motivation. For example, Deci and Ryan (1985) stated that

> Intrinsic motivation is based in the innate, organismic needs for competence and self-determination. It energizes a wide variety of behaviors and psychological processes for which the primary rewards are the experiences of effectance and autonomy. Intrinsic needs differ from primary drives in that they are not based in tissue deficits and they do not operate cyclically, that is, breaking into awareness, pushing to be satisfied, and then when satisfied, receding into quiescence (p. 32).

In summary, the relevant needs for intrinsic motivation are the challenging of competence for achieving results and self-determination for freely acquiring the desired goal along with competence.

2.3 Learner Autonomy in Asian Contexts

East Asian students are able to be autonomous learners although with some constraints (Chan, 2011). Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002), for example, reported that students in Hong Kong are dependent on their teachers. They were not fully developed as autonomous learners, since students in the study were not proactive learners. Littlewood (1999) divides self-regulation into two levels: regulating the direction of an activity by learners themselves (proactive autonomy) and regulating the activity once the direction has been set (reactive autonomy). The concept of proactive autonomy is usually a Western concept in which learners have to set their own goals and achieve them under their own direction. Another concept of autonomy is reactive autonomy in which learners have to follow the set directions and reach their own goals autonomously as the following statement exemplifies.

> This is the kind of autonomy which does not create its own directions but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal. It is a form of autonomy that stimulates learners to learn vocabulary without being pushed, to do past examination papers on their own initiative, or to organize themselves into groups in order to cover the reading for an assignment. Here I will call it *reactive* autonomy. (Littlewood, 1999, p.75-76)

Similarly, Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002) found that tertiary students majoring and non-majoring in English in Hong Kong were not adequately motivated to act as proactive learners under the specific conditions. Therefore, the results of the study revealed that although the higher motivated students performed their outside class activities more often than the less motivated students, there seemed to be little difference between the two groups, and it was found that motivation was not constantly a motivator for doing activities autonomously. As a result, several factors related to promoting learner autonomy in Asian contexts have been further

investigated: teacher authority or teacher-led classes (Herriman, 2007; Ho & Crookall, 1995), learning environments in a specific context (Chan, 2011), and teaching methods and material support in the classroom (Chan, 2011).

One factor inhibiting autonomous learning factors is the teacher's authority (Herriman, 2007; Ho & Crookall, 1995). Ho and Crookall (1995)'s study found that Chinese teachers are respected by their students, so protecting teachers' image and feelings is important. As a result, a simulation for changing the learning environment was employed in their study. Participants learned to manage their learning roles and exercise how to be autonomous according to the key concepts of self-directed and autonomous learning proposed by Dickinson and Holec, consisting of choosing instructional materials, setting learning objectives and prioritizing them, determining when and how long to work on each objective, assessing progress and achievements, and evaluating the learning program. These concepts used in the large-scale simulation can train students to be autonomous learners. When students work in groups, they feel that they are freely sharing their ideas. Meanwhile, they practice to negotiating with members of other groups. Therefore, Eastern students can be shown how to develop autonomy in a classroom by using a large-scale simulation.

In a similar vein, Littlewood (1999) proposed five proposals about autonomy in the East Asian context and the ways to develop them in the context of second or foreign language learning. The first proposal is that reactive autonomy among East Asian students will be highly motivational due to the attitudes towards authority and goal achievement. However, students can be supported both reactive and proactive autonomy by encouraging them to work in groups. Another consideration is East Asian students are rarely encouraged to develop proactive autonomy due to tradition. Moreover, although East Asian students may have few opportunities to be autonomous, they have the ability to be as autonomous as Western students. The final prediction is learning in the classroom can promote student autonomy. In conclusion, all hypotheses are predicted based on the questionnaire's items from three hypotheses consisting of 10 predictions proposed by Littlewood (1999).

Students always depend on teachers when they are learning (Herriman, 2007). They cannot manage their own learning. Students do not have any ideas about

their own learning. To eliminate this one-way learning process, a sense of autonomous control for their own learning should be encouraged. In Herriman's (2007) paper, he gives several examples of tasks found in a review of the literature in TEFL and applied linguistics that allow learners to take responsibility away from the instructor and accept it themselves. For example, self-assessment should be suggested to students. They should explore how they can learn by themselves, how much time they have to spend on achieving that task, and what their weaknesses are. It would be better to support learners to think of their learning plans and self-evaluation by themselves instead of depending on teachers.

To investigate responsibility in learner autonomy, Sakai, Takaki, and Chu (2010) studied 769 Japanese and Taiwanese EFL participants. There were five domains of responsibility explored: the Recognition of Responsibility for Learning (RRL), Responsibility for Past Learning (RPL), Responsibility for Future Learning (RFL), Past Learning outside Classroom (PLC), and Future Learning outside Classroom (FLC). There were two phases in the study; both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. Nine factors were involved: (1) future English learning, (2) past class management, (3) future class management, (4) past English learning, (5) awareness of class management, (6) awareness of one's English learning, (7) past English learning in school, (8) awareness of class evaluation, and (9) awareness of study evaluation. The factors were categorized into three themes, which are English learning, class management, and future English learning.

Sakai, Takaki, and Chu's (2010) results revealed that students should take their own responsibilities for their own learning. The participants were not ready to manage their classes because of the teaching styles. Students did not fully take part in class management because of the teacher's role. As a result, students' responsibility for participation in learning should be supported. In contrast, it was found that students were not ready to manage their own learning. Moreover, students had an awareness of evaluating their own study, while course evaluation was considered as the teacher's role. Moreover, the qualitative research analyzed the written comments about student responsibility by using content analysis. The study found that the five most frequently used themes were goal decisions, learning material decisions, progression assessment,

learning activity decisions suitable for their own preferences, and decisions for appropriateness of work.

In addition, learning environment is an influential factor in learner autonomy (Chan, 2011). Students in Hong Kong mainly used Cantonese in their daily life (Chan, 2011). There is not much opportunity for practicing speaking outside the classroom. For this reason, students in the context have difficulty improving their speaking. However, the study found that students at both the secondary and university levels seek chances for using English socially because of their identity as English majors, which is likely to cause high motivation for learning English. Moreover, the study also found that the second least frequently used activity by tertiary students was the use of self-access centers provided for practicing English.

Classroom teaching methods have an influence on learner autonomy (Herriman, 2007). Students cannot apply their knowledge from preparing for examinations to real life communication. Although some schools provide native-speaking assistant teachers, most students do not participate in this activity provided for helping them learn English. Furthermore, many English classes are concerned with these three contexts: (1) teaching about English; (2) English as a language students have to be taught in the one-way teaching; (3) the English taught in class is not applicable to real life communication. These are problems found in English classrooms in Japan that impede the autonomous language learning.

Although autonomous learning is mostly seen as a Western concept, in Eastern countries there have been several studies related to the concept of autonomy training in becoming autonomous (Dickinson, 1993). According to Dickinson (1993), there are projects for self-access centers at the university level in Malaysia and Thailand that supporting autonomous language learning. Also, an autonomous language learning project was created to support learner autonomy in a practical way in a university in Hong Kong. Self-access centers develop the means of being autonomous learners (Dickinson, 1993). On the other hand, Chan's (2011) study found that tertiary students are least likely to participate in a self-access center.

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To sum up, learners need to improve their own language learning as autonomous learners and control themselves to manage their learning process. There are several factors which facilitates autonomous learners as well as learners' contexts.

2.4 Related Research on Learner Autonomy in the Thai Context

Different researchers (Oxford, 1990; Tudor, 1996; Wenden, 1991) have stated that learner training and language learning strategies can lead to learner autonomy. Tudor (1996) reported that the means of training language learning strategies can help learners respond to their individual needs and varying objectives because students' roles in learning are the most important concern. Accordingly, learners need to take part in their own learning, especially by developing learner-centeredness (Little, 1990; Littlewood, 1996). Therefore, there has been research in Thailand (Rukthong, 2008; Sumonwiriya, 2007; Swatevacharkul, 2010) concerning the key points of how to prepare students to be autonomous learners in language learning in the EFL context.

First, Rukthong (2008) explored students' beliefs on readiness for learner autonomy and the language learning strategies they employed. The participants in the study were the first- to third-year English majors. This study used triangulation to collect the data from questionnaires, interviews, and self-reports. There were two questionnaires: Cotterall's (1999) Learner Belief Questionnaire and Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

The findings were as follows. (a) Reports about students' beliefs included six components: the role of teachers, the role of feedback, the learner's sense of self-efficacy, the importance of strategies, strategies related to behaviors, and the nature of language learning. It was found that they lacked self-confidence in individual language learning, and that teachers' support was needed to enhance learner autonomy. Students required teachers' feedback and help through giving suggestions because the students were highly dependent on teachers, especially for managing and assessing their learning. Also, it was found that students did not believe that they had sufficiently

ability to evaluate their own work. (b) In a report on their use of language learning strategies, students used compensation strategies (*M* = 3.53, *SD* = 0.94) and metacognitive strategies (*M* = 3.53, *SD* = 0.90) most, while they used memory strategies (*M* = 3.07, *SD* = 0.95) least. Although they used compensation strategies and metacognitive strategies most, they believed that teachers had to manage language learning and help practice the language. They still needed some help in guessing vocabulary, using gestures, and using their previous knowledge to overcome problems during doing examinations.

In conclusion, readiness for autonomous language learning can be achieved if teachers stimulate students in class. Besides, students practiced autonomous language learning in classes. Also, training was helpful in performing outside class by themselves.

Second, Sumonwiriya (2007) investigated learner autonomy by focusing on English language learning activities outside class, language learning strategies, and attitudes towards autonomous language learning employed by secondary students in both regular and English programs in grade nine in four public schools in Bangkok. The researcher developed a questionnaire exploring three main variables: out-of-class English language learning activities, learning strategies based on Wenden's (1991) questionnaire, and attitudes towards autonomous study of English adopted from Soinam (1999). This study also used interviews for data collection.

The findings revealed that students in English programs were more inclined to take part in out-of-class activities, use learning strategies, and have positive attitudes toward autonomous language learning in their English language learning than students in regular programs. Moreover, it was found that students in both programs performed activities in receptive skills more often than in productive skills. One factor affecting learner autonomy was motivation, as revealed in the interviews. It was found that high and low autonomy learners had different motivations for performing activities outside class. High and low autonomous learners who were in the English program had both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. However, highly autonomous learners had higher intrinsic motivation than the low autonomy learners. Meanwhile,

highly autonomous students in the regular program had intrinsic motivation, while the low autonomy learners did not.

In conclusion, students in the study needed a supportive English environment from their schools and families. Also, intrinsic motivation was a necessary factor for autonomous language learning.

Third, Swatevacharkul (2010) investigated students' readiness for learner autonomy in five private universities in Bangkok. There were four key points investigated regarding to learner autonomy: the readiness for learner autonomy of fourth-year students, learning approaches they used, the relationship between students' readiness and the learning approaches, and roles of native and non-native language teachers in supporting learner autonomy.

The research instruments were questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The first questionnaire exploring students' perspective was the Questionnaire on Readiness for Learner Autonomy and Learning Approaches (QRLALA) developed and adapted by the researcher, and the other questionnaire was the Questionnaire on Teachers' Perspectives of Learner Autonomy and their Pedagogical Methods (QTPAP), developed by the researcher, investigating teachers' views on supporting learner autonomy in English teaching.

The study found that the tertiary students in this group were at a high level of readiness for autonomous language learning. The factors for gauging students' readiness for autonomous language learning consisted of willingness to hold responsibility, self-confidence, motivation, and capacity for autonomous learning. Each domain was present at a high level, except for self-confidence. The students were moderately self-confident, which shows that the students still needed teachers to guide their learning. This shows the teacher-dependent behavior of the Thai students in this study.

In investigating students' learning approaches, the study found that students used both the deep learning approach as well as the surface learning approach at a high level. Moreover, there was a moderate correlation between autonomous language learning and the deep learning approach, while there was no relationship

between learners' readiness for autonomous language learning and the surface approach. In exploring students' views on learner autonomy, four domains of learner autonomy were considered: willingness to take learning responsibility, self-confidence in learning autonomously, motivation to learn English, and capacity to learn autonomously. Self-confidence was found at a moderate level, while the other domains were at a high level. Moreover, the teachers' views on supporting learner autonomy showed a rather high level. The importance of learner autonomy and teachers' responsibility were present at a high level, while Thai students' self-confidence and capacity was present at a moderate level.

To sum up, students were highly autonomous language learners, and they used both the surface and deep learning approaches at high levels.

2.5 Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies are tools for making students active and self-directed in acquiring communicative competence (Oxford, 1990). Allwright (1990) also proposed that the responsibility, including capacity and willingness, can help learners use learning strategy. Additionally, students' proficiency and confidence increase through their appropriate use of language strategies (Oxford, 1990). Oxford (1990) provides an example of using learning strategies in which storytellers remembered their lines by mnemonic or memory devices.

2.5.1 Definitions

To begin with, the term "learning strategies", in education, several names such as learning skills, learning-to-learn skills, thinking skills, and problem-solving skills have been used (Oxford, 1990). The word "strategy" comes from the ancient Greek term "strategia", which means generalship or the art of war, and it is related to the optimal management of troops, ships, or aircraft in a planned campaign. Another similar term is "tactics". These two terms have identical characteristics in planning, competition, conscious manipulation, and achievement of goals (Oxford, 1990). Also, Oxford (2011) recently proposed that a systematic plan for achieving any goal in

learning strategies. However, the term of language learning strategies was first discussed in the 1970s at the beginning of research in this field (Wenden, 1991). Several definitions were proposed by different researchers, but only some definitions will be provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Definitions of Learning Strategies

Researchers	Definitions
Rubin (1975)	Learning strategies are "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p.43).
Stern (1975)	Learning strategies are "personal learning styles" (p.311).
O'Malley & Chamot (1990)	Learning strategies means "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p.1).
Wenden (1991)	Learning strategies are "mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language and to regulate their efforts to do so. They are one type of learner training content that should be included in plans to promote learner autonomy" (p.18).
Oxford (1990)	Learning strategies are "specific actions taken by learners to make learning easier, faster, more effective, more self-directed, more enjoyable and more transferable to new situations" (p.8).

In Wenden's (1991) definition of learning strategies, there are two categories of learning strategies — cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies — which are based on the functions of learning. However, one of the most popular definitions of learning strategies is from Oxford (1990); it has been used by many

researchers both in a second and foreign language learning (Kashefian-Naeeini & Maarof, 2010).

2.5.2 Classifications

Different taxonomies have been proposed by many researchers. However, three dominant researchers have dominated the field of language learning strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991); these strategies encourage learners to regulate their own language learning efficiently. These researchers developed their instruments for investigating learning strategies**.**

Wenden's (1991) classification of learning strategies was divided into cognitive strategies and self-management strategies based on learning processes. The first strategies were contributed learners to operating their information through four steps: selecting input, comprehending input, storing input, and retrieving input. Another function for self-management strategies is referred to the related terms of 'metacognitive strategies,' 'regulatory skills,' 'self-directed learning' concerned with the learning processes on planning, monitoring, and evaluating.

O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classification of learning strategies distinguishes three main categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies. The first category includes managing learning tasks, arranging and planning language learning, and evaluating the completed task, which can all help learners to learn all four language skills successfully and avoid learning problems. The second is concerned with constructing their own knowledge by rehearsal, organization, summarizing, and imagery, and overcoming language learning problems by transfer, deducing, and effective elaboration. The last component is related to interactions and language learners' mental understanding about reaching their goals. All of these strategies have been described by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) to help learners learn the target language successfully.

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Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies divides them into two major classes: direct and indirect. The direct strategies can be subdivided into memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Metacognitive, affective, and social strategies are indirect strategies. Each strategy, consisting of several sets, is important for language learners. There are all 19 sets and 62 learning strategies in the entire learning strategy system shown in Figure 2.2.

Memory strategies, sometimes called mnemonics, comprises four sets: creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing action. By decreasing students' anxiety and encourage students' attention, this strategy helps learners gain more knowledge through metacognitive and affective strategies.

Cognitive strategies (from repeating to summarizing) are required by new language learners. This category consists of four sets: practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output.

Compensation strategies are used to help learners compensate for their insufficient knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. This category includes two sets: guessing intelligently in listening and reading (sometimes called inferencing) and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Learners can overcome their learning difficulties by using these strategies.

Metacognitive strategies are subdivided into three subsets: (1) centering learning, (2) arranging and planning learning, (3) evaluating learning. This category is concerned with the ways students learn, from organizing to monitoring.

Affective strategies are concerned with feelings, emotions, attitudes, motivations, and the values learners use when they learn. There are three subdivisions: (1) lowering anxiety, (2) encouraging oneself, and (3) taking one's emotional temperature.

Social strategies are concerned with interactions. Asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others are ways to help learners gain new information.

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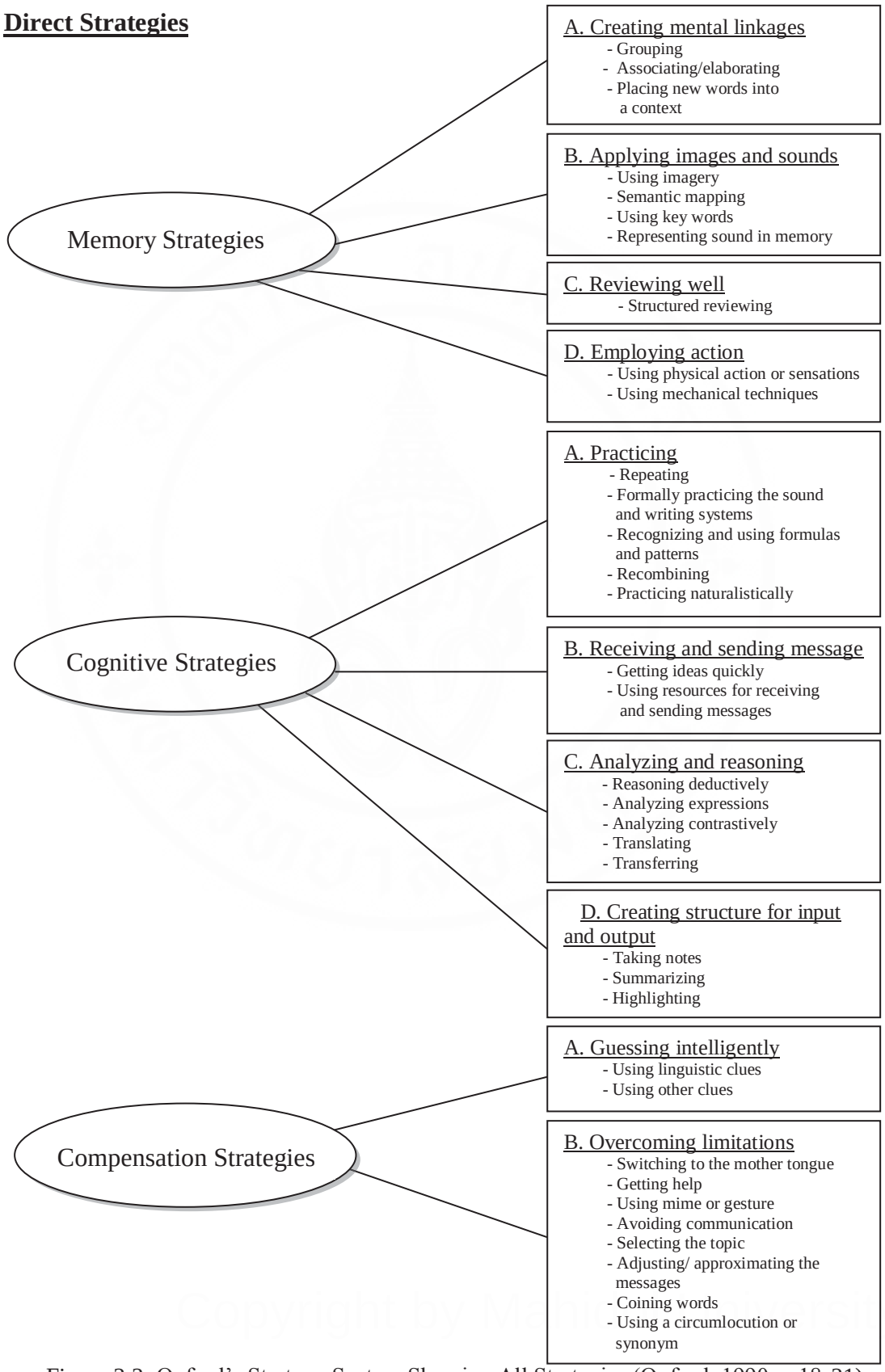

Figure 2.2: Oxford's Strategy System Showing All Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p.18-21)

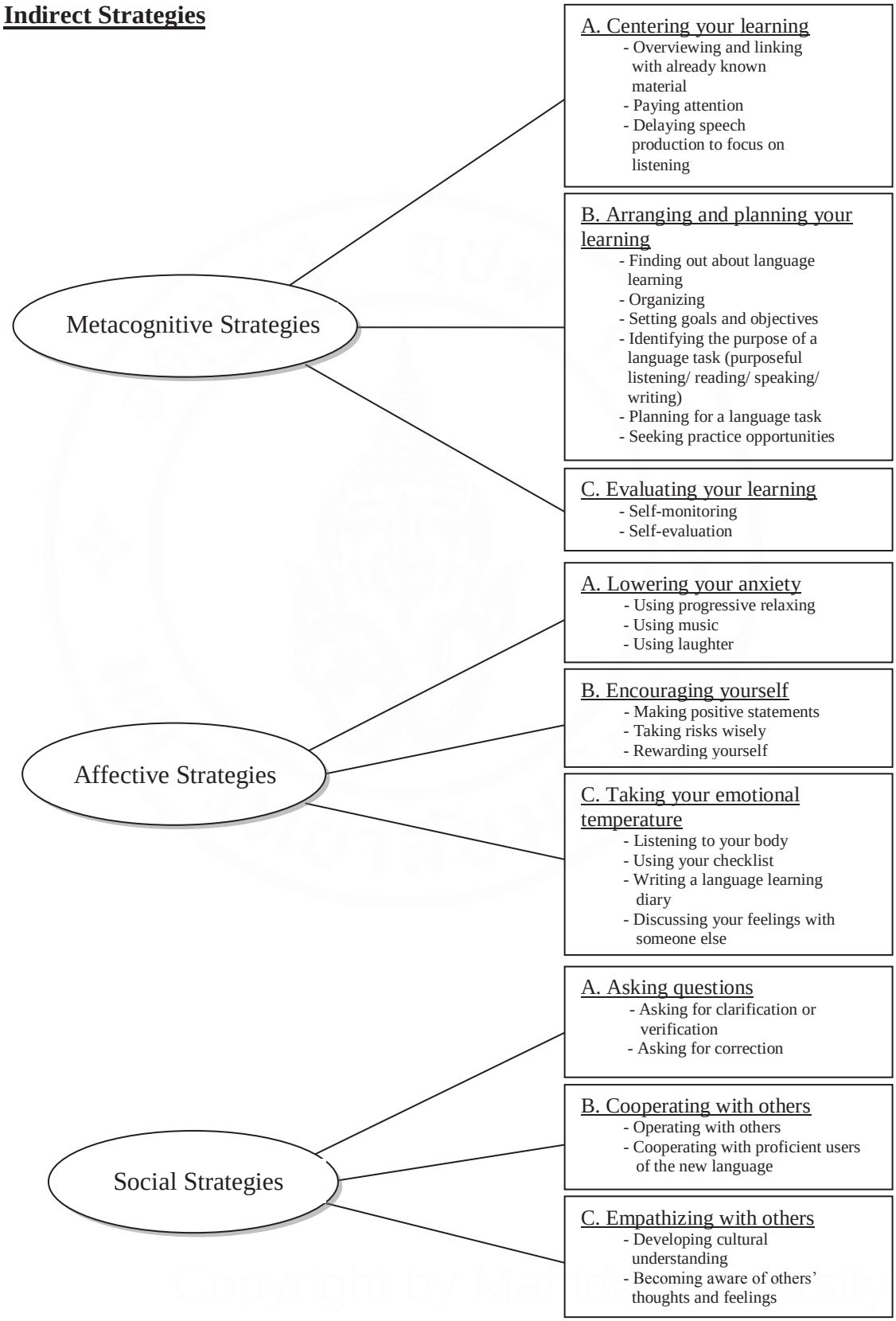

Figure 2.2: Oxford's Strategy System Showing All Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p.18-21) (Cont.)

2.6 Previous Research on Frequency of Strategy Use

Learners can use the six language learning strategies proposed by Oxford (1990) to improve their language use and perform language tasks successfully. When exploring the frequency of strategy use by successful and unsuccessful learners in an Iranian context, Gerami and Baighlou (2011) found that the two groups of EFL students used language learning strategies in learning English in different ways; the successful students employed a greater variety of language learning strategies in language learning than did their peers. However, strategy most frequently used by the two groups was "Metacognitive strategies", while the least used strategies for the successful and unsuccessful groups were different. "Affective strategies" were least used by the former group, which was correspond with Australian and Chinese tertiary students using this sub-strategy least in the medium levels (Xiaoguo & Yongbing, 2005). The latter group employed "Cognitive strategies" least, which showed similar results with Tianchai's (2012) study employed by both high and low English ability undergraduate students, at medium levels. The results show the different mean scores for strategy use for the two groups. The results show overall strategy use at a medium level for the successful group; the unsuccessful group used all strategies at a low level.

In addition to a medium level of strategy use by the successful group in Iran (Gerami & Baighlou, 2011), other studies (Park, 1997; Satta-udom, 2007; Tappoon, 2008) have shown a medium level of use of the six language learning strategies. Many studies have found that "Metacognitive strategies" are the most frequently used (Anugkakul, 2011; Ghee, Ismail, & Kabilan, 2010; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; On-chun, 2011; Park, 1997; Satta-udom, 2007). In the Thai context, Satta-udom's (2007) study explored the use of language learning strategies of non-science and science first-year students at the tertiary level; these groups of students used language learning strategies differently. The overall mean score for all strategy use was at a medium level. The most used strategy for non-science students was "Metacognitive strategies", while the first-year science students used "Compensation strategies" the most. Moreover, Yu-xia (2008) reported that learning strategies related to managing the learning process are important to help learners learn a language successfully.

At the graduate level, Kaotsombut (2003) found that all of the students used “Compensation strategies” the most. Their least used strategies were “Memory strategies”. Learning strategies help students to complete language learning tasks efficiently.

2.7 Previous Research on Language Learning Strategy Use and Proficiency or Achievement

The use of language learning strategies is significantly related to students’ achievement or proficiency (Oxford, 2011). Proficiency was one factor concerned with language learning except motivation and aptitude (Rees-Miller, 1993). Besides, Oxford said that language learning strategies can help learners succeed more easily and more effectively in their language learning. There are eight key themes: effectiveness, models and theories, instruction, assessment, strategies of using variety skills, factors, technology, and further unresolved issues.

Many researchers (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Yılmaz, 2010) revealed that successful students more frequently employed learning strategies in their English learning than unsuccessful students. More importantly, several studies examined the relationship between all six language learning strategies and students’ achievement and found that these two variables are correlated (Ghavamnia, Kassaian, & Dabaghi, 2011; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Murray, 2010; Park, 1997). In addition to the results of many findings on the relationships between language learning strategies and proficiency, there were positive relationships between the use of the six language learning strategies and proficiency in several studies (Bruen, 2001; Ghavamnia, Kassaian, & Dabaghi, 2011; Murray, 2010; Park, 1997; Sheorey, 1999). Some of the six strategies described by Oxford (1990) can contribute to learners’ effective learning; the findings revealed that “Metacognitive strategies” were most frequently used by proficient learners to support their language learning (Fazeli, 2012; Riazi & Rahimi, 2005; Shmais, 2003; Takeuchi, 2003; Wharton, 2000).

However, language learning strategies do not simply have an effect on students’ achievement, but also are related to motivation and aptitude (Rees-Miller,

1993). Moreover, Oxford and Ehrman (1995) explored the use of language learning strategies by adults who were mostly master's degree (40%) or bachelor's degree (34%) students. Factors affecting the relationship with the use of language learning strategies for learning many languages, such as proficiency, were found, ranging from speaking and reading, teacher perceptions, gender, aptitude, learning style, personality type, ego boundary, motivation, and anxiety.

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CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

This study employed a mixed methods approach. This approach used quantitative and qualitative methods to answer research questions by using the statistical and interview data (Cresswell, 2003). Basit (2010) and Cresswell (1994) said that quantitative research is an investigation of the natural world through examining human behaviors, which is similar to the way that scientists discover cause and effect relationships by testing a theory with variables, and the numerical data represent the reality of the investigation. Qualitative methodology is concerned with social existence. Person presented their experiences, so data are more subjectivity, not gathering information statistically (Basit, 2010; Cresswell, 1994).

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used to obtain the data for this study. The mixed methods approach was employed to make the findings richer (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher, & Pérez-Prado, 2003). The quantitative method was used to find the relationship between the two key variables in the present study. According to McMillan & Schumacher (2001), surveys are frequently conducted to investigate attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and other types of information in educational research, and the assessment of the frequency of traits and the relationships among the different factors can be revealed by this method. In addition, in-depth information can be shown through semi-structured interviews exploring participants' attitudes on autonomous learning and the language learning strategies they employed. This chapter provides information about the population, research instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

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3.1 Participants

The participants in the study were 67 Thai graduate diploma students at Thonburi University in the teaching profession program during the first semester of the academic year 2012. Their ages ranged between 23 and 50. They had graduated from a variety of faculties and took the compulsory English courses for their bachelor's degrees. They were Thai native speakers who learned English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and who participated voluntarily in the study. The number of participants willing to take part in this study is acceptable (81%) (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

In order to divide them into high and low English proficiency students, the Quick Placement Test (QPT) Version II developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL was administered. Information about the participants is presented in descriptive data on how autonomous the learners were and what language learning strategies they used. The student teachers were preparing to improve their situation by learning English, which is the international language for communicating with others in ASEAN countries after the year 2015. Accordingly, they should need to improve their ability to communicate in English.

3.2 Research Instruments

There were three sets of research instruments in the study: the Quick Placement Test (QPT), two sets of questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews. Firstly, the Quick Placement Test was employed to assess students' English proficiency. The test results were used to group students into high and low English proficiency. Secondly, the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire developed by Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002) was used to investigate students' attitudes towards learner autonomy: responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities students undertake inside and outside language learning classrooms. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) was administered to explore the frequency of use of language learning strategies by high and low English proficiency students. Lastly, semi-structured interviews were used to gather the

insightful data about how individual students learned English autonomously and what language learning strategies they used.

3.2.1 Quick Placement Test (QPT)

The Quick Placement Test (QPT) is a reliable and time-saving tool to test students' English proficiency; it was developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL (Geranpayeh, 2003). This test is useful for teachers or course managers in assessing students' English proficiency at all levels and ages. The characteristics of the test are: (1) it is in multiple-choice format; (2) it assesses students in reading and structure including grammar and vocabulary; (3) there are two versions: a computer-based (CB) version and a paper and pen (P&P) version; the test scores for each type test are equivalent with those of the other version; (4) the test takes 30 minutes (Geranpayeh, 2003). The paper and pen version was used in the study. As a result, students took the paper and pen version in this study because it was the most convenient for them. In fact, the paper and pen version is divided into two parts. Part 1 consists of 40 items; every participant takes this part of the test. The other part (items 40-60) is provided to ask students who score more than 35 out of 40 on the first part. However, in this study all students were asked to complete all 60 items. The scores for students are compared and interpreted in Table 3.1.

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Table 3.1 Interpretation of the Results of the Quick Placement Test (Paper and Pen Version)

Level	ALTE Level	Paper and pen test score		Scores of the participants	Number of students
		Part 1, Score out of 40	Part 1 & 2, Score out of 60		
Low	0 Beginner 1 Elementary 2 Lower Intermediate	0-15 16-23 24-30	0-17 18-29 30-39	12-35	63
High	3 Upper Intermediate 4 Advanced 5 Very Advanced	31-40 If a student scores 36 or more, it is recommended they complete Part 2 of the test	40-47 48-54 55-60	43-52	4

Adapted the criteria for Quick Placement Test Interpretation in the paper and pen version from Geranpayeh, A. (2003). **A quick review of the English quick placement test**. Retrieved from http://www.uniss.it/documenti/lingue/what_is_the_QPT.pdf

As can be seen in Table 3.1 above, scores of 40-60 represent upper intermediate to very advanced ranking; these students are classified as high English proficiency students, and students who got scores below 40 were classified as low English proficiency students.

In order to establish the validity and reliability of the test, the test was trialed with 6,000 students from 20 countries, and the reliability is close to 0.9 for the 60-item test (Geranpayeh, 2003).

3.2.2 Quantitative Instruments

The quantitative instruments used in the study included the sections: personal background information, the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire,

and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Summative rating scales were used for reporting students' attitudes expressed on the questionnaire. A five-point Likert Scale was used to rate students' attitudes on the two parts of the questionnaire: 1 = never or almost never true of me, 2 = generally not true of me, 3 = somewhat true of me, 4 = generally true of me, and 5 = always or almost always true of me.

Part 1: Background Information

Participants were asked to provide personal information: name, age, gender, the field of study for their bachelor's degree, and email address.

Part 2: The Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire

Participants rated their attitudes on roles of autonomous learners by responding to 50 items in four sections: responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities students performed inside and outside class.

3.2.2.1 Development of the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire

The Autonomous Language Learning questionnaire was developed by Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002). The questionnaire is based on input from Deci (1995), Deci and Ryan (1985), Holec (1981), and Littlewood (1999). It includes four sections: responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities in and outside class and consists of 52 items.

The questionnaire items are based on Holec's definition of learner autonomy. Holec defined autonomy as being "the abilities to take charge of one's own learning". This means "to have and to hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of learning" (Chan et al., 2002). According to Holec (1981), there are five stages in learner autonomy: (1) determining objectives; (2) identifying content and progression; (3) selecting methods and techniques to be used; (4) monitoring procedures of acquisition; and (5) evaluating what the outcome has been. Thus, responsibilities and decision-making abilities helping students to be autonomous learners were examined by different items on the questionnaire.

Another section in this part was about motivation. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), motivation can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation has an influence on learner autonomy in language learning. Furthermore, Littlewood (1999) described two kinds of autonomy: reactive

and proactive autonomy. Reactive autonomy means that learners decide to manage the ways to achieve goals that they did not set; whereas, proactive autonomy means that learners require setting their own goals and finding a means to reach their goals in language learning. Also, Littlewood (1996) said that the core notion of autonomy consists of students' ability and willingness. Ability can be subdivided into knowledge about considering which choices are essential and which skills are needed. Willingness is related to motivation and confidence in taking responsibility for the choices required.

Lastly, the questionnaire included items about activities inside and outside the class in order to explore students' behaviors as autonomous language learners. Each item on the questionnaire about activities include items from a list of activities, a group discussion, and a structured interview in Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys's study (2002) study.

To sum up, the questionnaire in this study includes 50 items on learner autonomy in four sections: responsibilities (items 1-12), motivation (item 13), decision-making abilities (items 14-23), and the activities students employed inside and outside class (items 24-50). The questionnaire was used in this study after obtaining permission to use it from Victoria Chan, one of the questionnaire owners, following these steps: 1) reviewing literature on autonomous language learning, 2) sending a consent form to Victoria Chan via email to ask for permission to use the autonomous language learning questionnaire, 3) translating the questionnaire into Thai by using back translation, 4) consulting members of the thesis committee in order to check each item on the questionnaire, 5) conducting piloting with a group (approximately 30 individuals) similar to that of this student in order to identify any ambiguities, 6) deleting some items on the autonomous language learning in order to make the items match with research objectives (2 items deleted), 7) assessing the revised questionnaires for reliability using Cronbach's alpha .

In the back translation technique employed in this study, the first bilingual translator translated the original questionnaire (English version) into the target language (Thai). After that, the Thai translation was translated back into English by another bilingual translator. The two versions (the original and the final translated versions) were compared by an individual bilingual translator. Finally, inconsistencies

and errors were removed. The piloting phase for all questionnaire items on autonomous language learning in this study showed an acceptable reliability at 0.85. Autonomous learning is divided into high and low levels as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Criteria for Interpreting Autonomous Learning

Level of Autonomous Learning	Average Mean Scores
High	2.51-5.00
Low	1.00-2.50

3.2.2.2 Reliability and Validity of the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire

The questionnaire was piloted with a large number of Hong Kong students and revised before use in Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002) research. All of the participants in the context were EFL students in Hong Kong. In this study, after the questionnaire was translated and piloted, its reliability was established at 0.85. Also, its validity was checked by three experts in order to check the content validity and construct validity. Therefore, the questionnaire showed acceptable reliability and validity.

Part 3: The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

In this final part of the questionnaire, participants were asked to rate the frequency of use of the language learning strategies by responding to 50 items. This section included six categories of language learning strategies: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

3.2.2.3 Development of the SILL

This study used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990). According to Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), using a questionnaire, an inventory, or a survey using rating scale is an agreeable and effective way to explore student language learning use.

There are two versions of the SILL: (1) version 5.0 for English speakers learning a new language and (2) version 7.0 for speakers of other languages

learning English. The questionnaire used in the study is version 7.0 which is appropriate for EFL/ESL students. It consists of 50 items about the six categories of learning strategies: memory strategies (items 1-9), cognitive strategies (items 10-23), compensation strategies (items 24-29), metacognitve strategies (items 30-38), affective strategies (items 39-44), and social strategies (items 45-50). The overall average for each category is divided into high, medium, and low levels as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Criteria for Evaluating the Frequency of Language Learning Strategy Use

Levels	Frequency of Strategy Use	Average
High	5=Always or almost always used	4.50-5.00
	4=Usually used	3.50-4.49
Medium	3=Sometimes used	2.50-3.49
Low	2=Generally not used	1.50-2.49
	1=Never or almost never used	1.00-1.49

* Criteria for Evaluating the Frequency of Language Learning Strategy Use adapted from Oxford (1990)

The following steps were used in selecting, developing and administering the questionnaire: 1) reviewing the literature on language learning strategies, 2) sending a consent form to Rebecca L. Oxford via email in order to ask for permission to use the SILL version 7.0 for ESL/EFL learners, 3) sending a consent form via email to Naruemol Kaotsombut who translated the SILL version 7.0 into Thai, asking her for permission, 4) consulting members of the thesis advisory committee in order to check each item on the questionnaire, 5) piloting the questionnaire with a small group (approximately 30 individuals) in order to identify any ambiguities. The characteristic of the pilot group were similar to those of the subjects in the present study, 6) assessing the revised questionnaire for reliability using Cronbach's alpha coefficiency. The piloting phase in this study showed a reliability of 0.96.

3.2.2.4 Reliability and Validity of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

According to Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), SILL has been piloted with a number of language learners all over the world. It has been translated and administered in various contexts such as Chinese, Korean, and Japanese; it has high reliability among various groups and cultures (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995) with a Cronbach's alpha of more than .90. In Thailand, SILL was administered in a number of studies (Koatsombut, 2003; Satta-udom, 2007; Tappoon, 2008, Tianchai, 2012). For example, in Koatsombut's research (2003), the Thai version of SILL was piloted with graduate students. Reliability, as established by Cronbach's alpha, was at an acceptable level of .92. Also, reliability as established by Satta-udom (2007) and Tappoon (2008) was .94.

The SILL questionnaire has content validity, criterion-related validity, and constructs validity (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). First, content validity: the questionnaire directly measures student use of language learning strategies, which is consistent with the content of the questionnaire (Brown, 2005). According to Oxford & Burry-Stock (1995), the agreement on SILL items is at .99 for more than 200 possible strategy types. Second, criterion-related validity was used to measure validity. (Brown, 2005). The SILL questionnaire is reliable according to a number of studies, so different language learning strategies were studied. Those studies were conducted by using language proficiency tests, grades in a language course, proficiency self-ratings (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Lastly, construct validity refers to the scale which measures the construct being investigated (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). For instance, there is a significant relationship (r = .73) between the parts of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the categories on the SILL. Thus, the SILL contains both validity and reliability.

3.2.3 Qualitative Instrument

An interview is necessary way when exploring behaviors, feelings, thoughts, and intentions (Merriam, 2009; Creswell, 1994). "Most common is the semi-structured interviews that are guided by a set of questions and issues to be explored, but neither the exact wording nor the order of questions is predetermined (Merriam,

2009, p. 114).” Individual interviews were conducted to gain in-depth information in this study to investigate students’ feelings and thoughts about autonomous language learning and the use of language learning strategies.

The interview questions focused on two main parts of the questionnaire about autonomous language learning and language learning strategies. The interviews were approximately 20 minutes in length. In this study, the researcher asked questions in semi-structured interviews based on autonomous learning and language learning strategy use. Therefore, the interviews were flexible. The researcher asked additional questions based on the participants’ responses when the researcher needed clearer views and deeper understanding about some points. The participants who took part in the interview were selected using the following criteria:

1. They were graduate diploma students in the teaching profession program at Thonburi University.
2. They completed the questionnaires used in this study.
3. They were able to communicate fluently in Thai.
4. They were willing to take part in the interviews after the researcher informed them about the details of data collection.

3.2.3.1 Reliability and Validity of Qualitative Instrument

Validity refers to “the degree to which the explanations of phenomena match the reliabilities of the world” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p.404). Data are classified into several strategies for validity by qualitative instruments (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). In this study, some data obtained from participants is presented in transcriptions and direct quotations. The data were tape-recorded while interviewing participants to decrease bias and get reliable data. In addition, before the data obtained by the qualitative method were analyzed and presented as research findings, the subjects reviewed and examined the data.

The data obtained in this study was peer-reviewed with the research assistant. Peer debriefing is one of seven ways to encourage reliability of research findings and help to control researcher subjectivity (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). In this way, bias when analyzing and interpreting the data is limited. The researcher also used field logs to record information on date, place, and

individuals. Before the research questions were used to interview the participants, a pilot study was conducted with three students with characteristics to those of the participants in order to the check validity and reliability of the questions (Basit, 2010).

3.3 Data Collection Procedures

The study was conducted during the first semester of the academic year of 2012. First, the researcher asked for permission from the target university, the classroom instructors, and participants. After that, the researcher made appointments with participants to collect the data. All phases of data collection are described in the following sections.

3.3.1 Quantitative Data Collection Procedures

Session I: The Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire

1.) The Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire in Part 2 of the questionnaire was administered to all participants. All participants were asked to complete the questionnaires to investigate learner autonomy. The questionnaire comprises four sections: learners' responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities inside and outside the classroom. There are 50 items in all. To avoid ambiguity and misunderstanding, the questionnaire was translated into Thai by back translation, and it was checked by three linguistic experts.

2.) The participants took about 15 minutes to complete this part of the questionnaire. While they were taking it, the researcher gave them advice and helped them understand when needed.

3.) The researcher collected the questionnaires when the participants had finished all three parts.

4.) All questionnaires were analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

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Session II: The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

1.) The questionnaire was distributed to all participants with the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire version 7.0 for EFL/ ESL students of Thai version (Koatsombut, 2003) as the third part, consisting of 50 items.

2.) The participants took about 15 minutes to complete this part of the questionnaire, and the researcher answered questions about the questionnaire.

3.) The questionnaires were collected after participants had finished all three parts.

4.) The collected questionnaires were analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

3.3.2 Qualitative data collection procedures

Session III: Semi-structured interviews

1.) Before conducting the interviews, the researcher asked them for volunteers. High and low English proficiency students were selected at random.

2.) They were informed of the confidentiality of their information. Their answers would not have any effect on their course grades, and answers were not right or wrong.

3.) The participants made appointments for the interview. The interview questions were based on the autonomous language learning questionnaire, and the SILL. The individual interview questions were based on these two open-ended questionnaires shown in Appendix C. During the interviews, all participants' information was tape-recorded. The data obtained from interviews were transcribed immediately.

4.) While interviewing, the participants could speak in Thai. The following are the main questions for the interviews.

Question 1: How do you feel about autonomous learning?

Question 2: What language learning strategies will help you in your autonomous language learning?

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Question 3: What factors do you think can promote autonomous language learning?

- Your own responsibility
- Your own decision-making abilities
- Your motivation
- The activities you undertake inside and outside the classroom

3.4 Data Analysis

This mixed methods research includes the quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative data includes responses to two sets of questionnaires: the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire and the SILL questionnaire. These responses were collected and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Descriptive statistics and a measure of the relationship were used to answer the research questions. Also, interview data were transcribed and analyzed by the open and axial coding technique (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

3.4.1 Quantitative Data

3.4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics (Mean (*M*) and Standard Deviation (*SD*))

The mean (*M*) represents the central tendency because it is the arithmetic average of all the scores (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Standard deviations (*SD*) show numerically the distance between the average scores and the mean (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). This was used to examine how autonomous learners of high and low English proficiency students were and how they used language learning strategies.

3.4.1.2 Correlation Statistics (the Spearman Rho (r_s))

The relationships among variables are significant in three ways: finding the possible causes of important educational outcomes, identifying other variables for further investigation, and predicting which variables are affected by

others (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Additionally, the correlation coefficients can describe the directions of relationships and the strength of the relationships between variables as shown in Figure 3.1 (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Furthermore, relationships between variables are divided into positive and negative. A positive correlation means that high values for one variable are related to high values for another variable, while a negative correlation means that high values for one variable are related to low values for another variable. Charles and Mertler (2002) said that the correlation can be interpreted on three levels from -1 to +1. The results can be interpreted according to these ranges: a score of ±.70 or above is "high", a score between ±.40 and ±.60 is "moderate", and a score below ±.20 is "below". Moreover, McMillan and Schumacher (2001) stated that the relationship value could be interpreted from +1 or -1 to zero. For example, high positive values such .85, .90, .96 display a high positive relationship. If the results obtained were .15, .20, .08, they would represent a low positive relationship, while scores of -.40, -.37, -.52 represent a moderate relationship. If there was no relationship, the value would be 0.

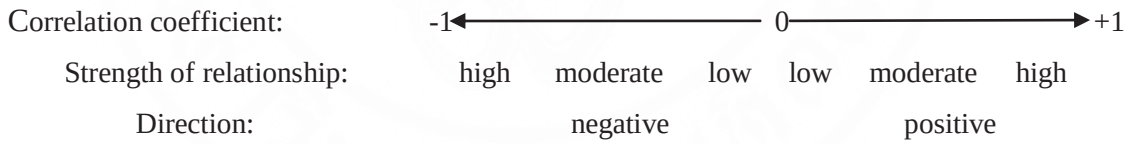

Figure 3.1: The Direction and Strength of the Relationship of Correlations (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 231).

Both the Spearman Rho and the Pearson Product-Moment were used to establish the relationship between two variables. The Spearman Rho was used in this study to investigate the correlation between the data types in a rank-ordering of variables, using a Likert scale. See Appendix G.

3.4.2 Qualitative Data

3.4.2.1 Open and Axial Coding Techniques

All interview data were transcribed and analyzed by using Strauss and Corbin's (1990) open and axial coding technique. Open coding is a means to categorize information into groups by breaking down, examining, selecting, comparing, conceptualizing, and naming the received data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

After that, axial coding is used to rearrange the categories and link related information into groups for each factor.

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CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

This chapter presents the research findings obtained from the analysis of the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. Demographic data about the respondents are presented first. The total number of subjects who participated voluntarily in this study was 67 graduate diploma students in the teaching profession. All of them were enrolled in this program to prepare themselves in the teaching profession. There were 23 males (34.3%), 33 females (49.3%), and 11 of unidentified gender (16.4%). The majority of the respondents were females (49.3%), the minority of the respondents was males (34.3%), and a few of the respondents (16.4%) did not disclose their gender. Their ages ranged between 23 and 50 (M = 29.52). This group of the participants was adults of a variety of ages.

Interview data were employed to answer the research questions as follows:

This study aimed to find the following.

1. How do all students in the graduate diploma program in the teaching profession perceive autonomous learners' responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities as used inside and outside classes in learning English?

2. How do high and low English proficiency students in the program perceive autonomous learners' responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities as used inside and outside classes in learning English?

3. What language learning strategies do all students in the program use in learning English?

4. What language learning strategies do high and low English proficiency students in the program use in learning English?

5. To what extent are there any relationships between autonomous learners and language learning strategies among students in the program?

4.1 Finding One

Research Question 1 was "How do all students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession perceive autonomous learners' responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities as used inside and outside classes in learning English?" To investigate the graduate students' perceptions about autonomous learning, the frequency of use of four components of autonomous learning are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Frequency of Use of the Four Components of Autonomous Learning by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

The Perceived Roles of Autonomous Learners	μ	σ	Cronbach's alpha (α)	Average Degree of Learner Autonomy
1. Motivation	3.54	1.12	-	High
2. Responsibilities	3.31	0.64	0.89	High
3. Decision-making abilities	3.24	0.64	0.90	High
4. Activities engaged in inside and outside class	2.90	0.80	0.97	High
Overall	3.08	0.68	0.97	High

(N = 67)

As shown in Table 4.1, all components of autonomous language learning employed at high levels. The overall average frequency for the four components also has a high level of 3.08. The most frequently perceived role in autonomous learning was motivation (M = 3.54), which shows that participants had a motivation to learn English by rating themselves, while the least perceived component in autonomous learning was activities participants engaged in inside and outside the classroom (M = 2.90). The reliability for all 50 items on this part of the questionnaire was highly acceptable at 0.97.

The standard deviation for motivation was high (SD = 1.12); it was found that participants had a variety of motivations. Additionally, the interview data revealed that both high and low English ability respondents had rather high motivation to learn English in order to meet their own needs in study and work. For example, all three

high English ability respondents (student B, student C, and student E) reported that English was a subject that they were enthusiastic to learn. For example, student B said that "*I like it (English) because it is important for both study and work nowadays ... I think it (interest in learning English) is an important point because if I know English, I can learn more… it can be a tool for learning ... It (the inspiration) is because I am keen to learn.*" Also, student C said that "*When I've studied English, I've understood it, so I like it. English is the kind of subject that I like to study ... in the past, I got 16 out of 30 ... I think the teacher's role was an influential factor. There are a variety ways of learning (e.g. learning through listening and seeing). I liked the teacher's method. If I just have to memorize by rote, I don't do it*." In addition, student E stated that "*I have liked to learn English since I was a child because I was in a Roman Catholic school. As we've known, the schools will provide learning on vocabulary, activities, and culture, so I have liked it since then. However, I discovered that I liked it very much about the time I was in Mathayom 1-3, so I worked on improving my English so that it would be one of my distinguishing characteristics in Mathayom 4-6. Thus, I was chosen as a representative of the school in English competitions.*"

All low English ability respondents (student A, student D, and student F) had motivations in learning English. For instance, student A stated that "*I like to learn English. Actually, I think English is useful, especially for my work. It is used in my work because I am a lecturer, and it is useful for going abroad*" (See Appendix E.) Also, student D said that "*I like to learn it (English) ... I think it is an easy subject. I usually like to play games and read captions… It inspires me to learn English when I play games.*" Moreover, the student F was often motivated to learn English when seeing someone who was good at English speaking, as these statements show. Student F said that "*When I see someone who speaks English frequently, I would like to be like that. I've taken some courses, but they didn't focus on grammatically correct speaking. I only remember some of the vocabulary*."

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Table 4.2 Frequency of Use of Responsibilities by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Responsibilities	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Responsibilities
1. Choosing what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	3.57	1.00	High
2. Identifying your weaknesses in English	3.52	1.11	High
3. Making you work harder	3.45	0.96	High
4. Stimulating your interest in learning English	3.36	1.04	High
5. Deciding what you should learn outside class	3.36	1.05	High
6. Making sure you make progress outside Class	3.33	1.05	High
7. Deciding the objectives of your English Course	3.31	0.86	High
8. Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	3.30	0.90	High
9. Evaluating your course	3.19	0.84	High
10. Being responsible for your progress during Lessons	3.18	0.78	High
11. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	3.13	0.98	High
12. Evaluating your learning	2.99	0.79	High

(N = 67)

Table 4.2 shows the frequency use of the perceived roles in autonomous learning employed by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession in terms of responsibilities. The participants were mostly responsible for choosing what materials to use to learn English in their English lessons (item 1) (*M* = 3.57) and identifying their weaknesses in English (item 2) (*M* = 3.52). However, they did not all agree about being responsible for identifying their weaknesses in English as can be seen by the highest standard deviation (*SD* = 1.11). On the other hand, they seldom took responsibility for deciding how long to spend on each activity (item 11) (*M* = 3.13). Also, participants were least responsible for evaluating their learning (item 12) (*M* = 2.99).

Similarly, the interview data revealed that all of the high and low English ability respondents said that they were frequently responsible for selecting materials such as dictionaries, mobile applications, and grammar books (item 1) to help in their

own English learning. The interview data from all high English ability students (student B, student C, and student E) revealed that they could choose materials to improve their English, and the materials they chose were related to the English lessons supporting their professions. Moreover, interview data from one high English ability respondent (student E) showed that the benefits of selecting materials for one's own learning were also useful in the teaching profession. For instance, student E said that "*In the morning, during the 25 minutes it takes me to drive to work, I always turn on the FM radio to listen to the news in English. When, there is no English radio station available, I will listen to songs in English on my CD player. Actually, if I listen to the radio, I can find out what songs are popular now. After listening to the radio, I can tell my students about up-to-date news and songs. It can stimulate my students' interest in IT.*"

However, another high English ability respondent not only chose materials for learning English frequently (item 1), but also often identified weaknesses (item 2) and worked harder on these items (item 3). For example, student B said that "*I would like to earn a master's degree in teaching English. That is one thing I plan to do for learning English … I can communicate in English very well. If I have to teach Science, I can do it. If I have to teach English, I accept that I can't do it well. I would like to be able to teach English also… I will surf the Internet looking for information, and I will survey the booths of university open houses because I think that if I ask for information from students who are studying in those programs they may just give me their own opinions.*"

As an example of one low English ability student's opinion about choosing learning materials in the lesson, student A stated that "*I mostly learn by myself by downloading mobile applications to practice vocabulary and grammar… If I see a word whose meaning I don't know, I look for the meaning on Google and use context clues. Also, I always look for the meaning of unknown words by using a dictionary*" (See Appendix E.) In contrast, responsibility for deciding how long to spend on each activity (item 11) and for evaluating your learning (item 12) were not mentioned in the interviews by either high or low English ability respondents.

Table 4.3 Frequency of Use of Decision-making Abilities by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Decision-making Abilities	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Decision-making Abilities
1. Identifying your weaknesses in English	3.39	1.00	High
2. Choosing learning objectives outside class	3.33	0.94	High
3. Choosing learning materials outside class	3.30	0.82	High
4. Choosing learning activities outside class	3.28	0.90	High
5. Choosing learning materials in class	3.28	0.95	High
6. Choosing learning activities in class	3.24	0.85	High
7. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	3.21	0.83	High
8. Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	3.16	0.85	High
9. Evaluating your learning	3.15	0.82	High
10. Evaluating your course	3.09	0.81	High

(N = 67)

Table 4.3 shows the frequency use of the perceived roles of autonomous learners by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession in terms of decision-making abilities. The overall score for decision-making abilities was at a high level. Participants could usually identify their weaknesses in English (item 1) (*M* = 3.39) and choose learning objectives outside class (item 2) (*M* = 3.33). In responding to interview questions, respondents of both the high and low English ability (student A, student B, student D, and student F) knew what their weaknesses were (item 1) and chose learning objectives outside class (item 2). For example, one high English ability student (student C) said that "*In my plans for the future, I would like to improve my grammar because I know what my weak point is. I can speak and listen in English, but my reading and writing are not good. As a result, I will improve these.*" However, only some of the participants were able to identify their weaknesses in English well as the high standard deviation shows (*SD* = 1.00). Many participants were not good at evaluating their learning (item 9) (*M* = 3.15) or evaluating their courses (item 10) (*M* = 3.09). Most of the respondents did not mention evaluating their learning and their course. However, one of the low ability respondents (student A) said

that when he takes an English course, he has to be confident that he will improve. Student A stated that "*If I take an English course, I will certainly be successful in learning*" (See Appendix E.)

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Table 4.4 Frequency of Engagement in Activities Inside and Outside Class by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Activities Engaged in Inside and Outside Class	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Activities Engaged in
1. Doing assignments which are not compulsory	3.39	1.10	High
2. Listening to English songs	3.37	1.14	High
3. Watching English movies	3.25	1.20	High
4. Using the Internet in English	3.19	1.21	High
5. Asking the teacher questions when you don't Understand	3.16	1.08	High
6. Noting down new information	3.13	1.89	High
7. Noting down new words and their meaning	3.10	1.06	High
8. Reading English notices around you	3.10	1.22	High
9. Doing revision not required by the teacher	3.07	0.97	High
10. Taking opportunities to speak in English	3.01	1.13	High
11. Discussing learning problems with classmates	3.00	1.04	High
12. Reading grammar books on your own	2.97	1.10	High
13. Talking to foreigners in English	2.94	1.15	High
14. Going to see your teacher about your work	2.87	1.23	High
15. Sending e-mail in English	2.87	0.90	High
16. Watching English TV programs	2.85	1.12	High
17. Practicing using English with friends	2.84	1.15	High
18. Collecting texts in English (e.g. articles, brochures, labels, etc.)	2.73	1.08	High
19. Attending a self-study center (e.g. CILL)	2.72	1.19	High
20. Doing grammar exercises	2.72	1.00	High
21. Doing English self-study in a group	2.69	1.05	High
22. Listening to English on the radio	2.69	1.16	High
23. Reading newspapers in English	2.61	1.04	High
24. Making suggestions to the teacher	2.61	1.04	High
25. Reading books or magazines in English	2.58	1.03	High
26. Writing letters in English to pen pals	2.54	1.17	High
27. Writing a diary in English	2.19	1.10	Low

(N = 67)

Table 4.4 shows the frequency of the perceived roles for autonomous learning employed by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession in terms of activities. All of the activities were employed at high levels, except for item 27 "writing a diary in English", which obtained a low level of frequency (M = 2.19). This shows that participants rarely wrote a diary in English

(item 27). In addition, they only sometimes engaged in the activity of writing letters in English to pen pals (item 26) (*M* = 2.54). The most frequent activities were listening to English songs (*M* = 3.37) and doing assignments which were not compulsory (item 1) (*M* = 3.39). Only some participants listen to English songs (item 2) because the standard deviation is quite high (*SD* = 1.14).

However, the interview data show that that most of the respondents of both high and low English ability were willing to do assignments on their own (*M* = 3.39) (item 1), learn English by listening to English songs (*M* = 3.37) (item 2), watch English movies (*M* = 3.25) (item 3), and surf the Internet for their learning (*M* = 3.19) (item 4). For example, student B said that "*I am someone who frequently learns on my own. I will find ways to learn everything (including English). I have to read and acquire information by myself. I think although some environments may lead to learning, learners themselves should accept to learn it."* Furthermore, some of the respondents of both high and low English ability (student C and student D) said that they used the Internet to look up some words and help explain some words to foreign friends (item 4). For example, student C said that "*For example, I would like to tell a foreigner something I don't know the word for, but I can't explain it. If there was a computer, I would search on Google to show him/her a picture of that word*." Additionally, student D said that "*When we meet an unknown word, we can find the answer because now answers aren't found only in dictionaries. We can download applications as learning tools or search for the word on the Internet ... I can use an online dictionary."*

Summary for Finding One

The high overall rankings for the components of learner autonomy show that this group of respondents had a positive motivation for learning English. However, the most frequently used item in this study was item 12 (*M* = 3.58), which falls under the responsibilities sub-division of the perceived roles of autonomous learners. The items about motivation (item 13) (*M* = 3.54) and responsibilities (item 10) (*M* = 3.52) respectively were most frequently employed. All three items were highly ranked. The least used item was writing a diary in English, which comes under the activities sub-division, and was ranked at a low level (item 40) (*M* = 2.19), which

is accordance with the interview data in which two high English ability respondents revealed that they did not do writing tasks often.

4.2 Finding Two

Research Question 2 was "How do high and low English proficiency students in the program perceive autonomous learners' responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities as used inside and outside classes in learning English?"

Table 4.5 Frequency of the Perceived Roles of Autonomous Learners Employed by High and Low English Proficiency Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Components of Learner Autonomy	High English Proficiency Students (N = 4)				Low English Proficiency Students (N = 63)			
	μ	σ	Rank Order	Level	μ	σ	Rank Order	Level
Motivation	5.00	0.00	1	High	3.44	1.09	1	High
Responsibilities	4.08	0.41	2	High	3.26	0.62	2	High
Activities engaged in inside and outside class	4.01	0.35	3	High	2.83	0.77	4	High
Decision-making abilities	3.90	0.57	4	High	3.20	0.62	3	High

(N = 67)

As can be seen in Table 4.5, all four perceived roles for autonomous learners are employed by high and low English proficiency students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession at a high level. Both high and low

English proficiency respondents had high motivation to learn English. The high English proficiency respondents have high mean for motivation at 5.00, while the low English proficiency respondents also have a high mean for motivation at 3.44. Interestingly, all of the high proficiency students agreed that they had a high level of motivation to learn English (*SD* = 0.00). The least employed component of learner autonomy shown by the high English proficiency students was decision-making abilities; while the low proficiency students engaged least frequently in activities inside and outside class.

The interview data revealed similarities for both the high and low English proficiency students to the responses given on the questionnaire. All of the high English proficiency students said that they were keen to learn and enjoy learning English, while the low English proficiency students would also like to learn English though they often said that they had no time to practice English. For example, one of the high English proficiency students (student B) said that "*Yes, I like (English)… because it is important for both study and work nowadays. (What inspires you to learn by yourself?) It is because of being keen to learn … I need to know*." On the other hand, all low English proficiency students (student A, student D, and student F) said that they liked English and thought it was important for their work and study, but they frequently said that there was not much time to practice it. An illustration of such from the low English ability respondents is that student F stated that "*I have liked English since I was in a primary school…, but it depends on individual effort. I went to a private primary school, and the school provided English since I was a child. However, when I was in secondary school, I didn't attend English classes, like my friends (e.g. skipping classes). Since then, I haven't been interested in English. Actually, I still like it. If I had time to practice it (English), I would like to improve it. For this reason, I try to learn indirectly it through listening to English songs and going to English movies now*."

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Summary for Finding Two

The results concerning the components of learner autonomy show that both high and low English proficiency participants in this study had rather positive motivation for learning English. The results of the two groups show that motivation ranked highest. However, all of the high English ability respondents (N = 4) had similar motivation, whereas the low English ability respondents had different levels of motivation. The high standard deviation (*SD* = 1.09) shows that not all the low English ability respondents were highly motivated in learning English. In addition, interview data for both high and low English ability respondents reveals that the least used components of learner autonomy were different. The high English ability group of participants employed decision-making abilities the least because they rarely evaluate their learning and their courses, but they often evaluated their strengths in English and practiced it as much so that they could be successful language learners. As a result, they used several activities to learn the language more often than decision-making abilities. On the other hand, the low English ability group of participants was aware of their weaknesses, but they did not spend much time engaging in activities. As the interview data illustrates, they often think that they do not have time to do so.

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4.3 Finding Three

Research Questions 3 was "What language learning strategies do all students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession use in English learning?"

Table 4.6 Frequency of the Use of Language Learning Strategies Employed by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Language Learning Strategies	μ	σ	Cronbach's alpha (α)	Levels
1. Metacognitive strategies	3.27	0.84	0.93	Medium
2. Compensation strategies	3.23	0.74	0.83	Medium
3. Affective strategies	3.10	0.79	0.81	Medium
4. Social strategies	3.08	0.86	0.89	Medium
5. Memory strategies	3.06	0.81	0.94	Medium
6. Cognitive strategies	2.93	0.82	0.96	Medium
Overall	3.09	0.73	0.98	Medium

(N = 67)

Table 4.6 gives the descriptive statistics for the frequency of use of language learning strategies employed by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession. The six strategies subdivisions are: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The average mean for overall use of language learning strategies was at a medium level (M = 3.09). The most frequently used strategy subdivision was metacognitive strategies, such as arranging and planning your learning (M = 3.27). This corresponds to the most used strategy (item 38) "Thinking about my progress in learning English" (M = 3.60) in the metacognitive subdivision. On the other hand, the least used strategy subdivision was cognitive strategies, such as practicing and receiving and sending messages (M = 2.93). However, it was found that the least used questionnaire item was in the affective subdivision (item 43) "Writing down my feelings in a language learning diary" (M = 2.39). The reliability for the 50 items in this part of the questionnaire was highly acceptable at 0.98.

Table 4.7 Frequency of Use of Memory Strategies Employed by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Memory Strategies	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Use of Memory Strategies Item
1. Thinking of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English	3.30	0.87	Medium
2. Remembering a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used	3.19	0.94	Medium
3. Connecting the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word	3.18	1.03	Medium
4. Using new English words in a sentence so I can remember them	3.07	1.00	Medium
5. Using rhymes to remember new English words	3.06	1.06	Medium
6. Acting out new English words physically	3.04	0.99	Medium
7. Using flashcards to remember new English words	2.97	0.98	Medium
8. Remembering new English words or phrases by location	2.94	1.07	Medium
9. Reviewing English lessons often	2.84	1.07	Medium

(N = 67)

Table 4.7 shows the frequency of use of language learning strategies employed by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession in terms of memory strategies. Participants frequently thought of relationships between what they already knew and new things they learned in English (item 1) (*M* = 3.30) and remembered a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used (item 2) (*M* = 3.19). Most of them used these two memory strategies subdivision (*SD* = 0.87, *SD* = 0.94 respectively). However, remembering new English words or phrases by location (item 8) (*M* = 2.94) and reviewing English lessons often (item 9) (*M* = 2.84) were strategies which were sometimes used in the memory subdivision. As the high standard deviations for the least used two items

show (item 8 and item 9), all of the participants only occasionally employed remembering new English words or phrases by location (item 8) (*SD* = 1.07) and reviewing English lessons (item 9) (*SD* = 1.07). Similarly, the interview data show that the respondents did not review English lessons often (item 9). For example, student C said that *"I am not a good student who reviews lessons after class. I just always do assignments following the teachers' instruction. I do not do extra work, so I do only as much as they tell us."*

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Table 4.8 Frequency of Use of Cognitive Strategies Employed by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Cognitive Strategies	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Use of Cognitive Strategies Item
1. Watching English language TV shows or going to English movies	3.13	1.01	Medium
2. Practicing the sounds of English	3.10	1.00	Medium
3. Trying to talk like native English speakers	3.10	1.05	Medium
4. Using the English words I know in different ways	3.09	1.04	Medium
5. Trying not to translate word-for-word	2.99	1.02	Medium
6. Looking for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English	2.99	0.98	Medium
7. Saying or writing new English words several times	2.97	1.06	Medium
8. Finding the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand	2.96	1.02	Medium
9. Trying to find patterns in English	2.93	0.94	Medium
10. Reading for pleasure in English	2.85	1.09	Medium
11. Starting conversations in English	2.82	0.98	Medium
12. Making summaries	2.76	1.09	Medium
13. Skimming English passages	2.76	1.12	Medium
14. Writing notes, messages, letters, or reports in English	2.63	1.03	Medium

(N = 67)

Table 4.8 shows the frequency of use of cognitive strategies employed by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession. Watching English language TV shows or going to English movies (item 1) (M = 3.13), practicing the sounds of English (item 2) (M = 3.10), and trying to talk like native English speakers (item 3) (M = 3.15) were the cognitive strategies most used by the participants. In agreement with these questionnaire items (item 1, item 2, and item 3), the interview data also reveals that most of respondents frequently practiced their English learning by watching English movies. This activity helps them to make their accents in English more like that of a native speaker. Interview data from the low English ability respondents illustrate this point: student A stated that "*I usually listen to 105.5 FM radio and watch English movies in the original version ... It also helps me become familiar with the sounds of English*" (See Appendix E.) Another respondent

(student D) stated that "*I often watch movies in the original version. Sometimes I don't have time to do this. However, I prefer buying the original version of a movie when I buy a DVD.*"

In contrast, making summaries (item 12) (*M* = 2.76), skimming English passages (item 13) (*M* = 2.76), and writing notes, messages, letters, or reports in English (item 14) (*M* = 2.63) were least used, in descending order. On the other hand, the high English level respondents said in the interview that they rarely practiced English writing except for writing letters or notes. However, they do not practice as much as they should; they just write some words in English as notes. For example, student C said that "*I rarely practice writing. When I was in the university, I usually practiced conversations and discussions in groups. As far as writing is concerned, the lecturer assigned me only a few topics and had me write not more than 300 to 500 words. That really was my writing practice in my life as a student. Anyway, after I graduated from the university, I didn't practice like that anymore. Apart from that practice, I sometimes wrote letters to foreigners and wrote short notes*." The standard deviations for most of the items in this subdivision were quite high (item 1,2,3,4,5,7,8,10,12,13, and 14) (*SD* = 1.01, *SD* = 1.05, *SD* = 1.00, *SD* = 1.04, *SD* = 1.02, *SD* = 1.06, *SD* = 1.02, *SD* = 1.09, *SD* = 1.09, *SD* = 1.12, and *SD* = 1.03).

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Table 4.9 Frequency of Use of Compensation Strategies Employed by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Compensation Strategies	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Use of Compensation Strategies Item
1. Guessing unfamiliar English words	3.46	1.03	Medium
2. Using gestures during a conversation in English	3.42	0.97	Medium
3. Making up new words if you do not know the right ones in English	3.37	1.06	Medium
4. Using a word or phrase that means the same thing	3.16	0.99	Medium
5. Trying to guess what the other person will say next in English	3.10	0.96	Medium
6. Reading English without looking up every new Word	2.90	1.07	Medium

(N = 67)

Table 4.9 shows the frequency of the use of compensation strategies employed by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession. In the compensation strategies subdivision, guessing unfamiliar English words (item 1) (*M* = 3.46) and using gestures during a conversation in English (item 2) (*M* = 3.42) were most frequently employed in English learning, while the participants only sometimes try to guess what the other person will say next in English (item 5) (*M* = 3.10) and read English without looking up every new word (item 6) (*M* = 2.90). However, not all participants employed reading English without looking up every new word (*SD* = 1.07). Similarly, one of the high English ability respondents (student B) in the interview stated that "*When I had to learn by myself I translated it word by word and tried to repeat those words*" (See Appendix E.) Furthermore, two interviewees said that they usually used context clues to help them read English passages, so the meanings of some unfamiliar words in the passages could be guessed (item 1). In item 3 As an example of "Making up new words if you do not know the right ones in English", one respondent (student C) said that "*For example, I would like to say something I didn't know the words for to a foreigner, but I couldn't do it. If there was*

a computer, I would search on Google to show him/her a picture of the word. If there was not a computer there, I would explain first using some other words. When I wanted to describe a "coconut", I would describe it to him/her with the words like "tree, round, heavy, eat, delicious", but if finally he/she didn't get it, I would type the word on my computer and show him/her see the picture."

Table 4.10 Frequency of Use of Metacognitive Strategies Employed by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Metacognitive Strategies	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Use of Metacognitive Strategies Item
1. Thinking about your progress in learning English	3.60	1.05	High
2. Trying to find out how to be a better learner of English	3.45	1.13	Medium
3. Looking for opportunities to read as much as possible in English	3.42	1.06	Medium
4. Having clear goals for improving your English Skills	3.40	1.18	Medium
5. Paying attention when someone is speaking English	3.36	1.05	Medium
6. Noticing my English mistakes and using that information to help me do better	3.24	1.06	Medium
7. Looking for people I can talk to in English	3.13	1.04	Medium
8. Trying to find as many ways as I can to use my English	3. 12	1.05	Medium
9. Planning a schedule to study English	2.76	0.99	Medium

(N = 67)

Table 4.10 shows the frequency of the use of metacognitive strategies employed by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession. Participants frequently thought about their progresses in learning English (item 1) (M = 3.60) which was ranked at a high level, and they often tried to find out how to be better learners of English (item 2) (M = 3.45). Item 2 "Trying to find out how to be a better learner of English" has a high standard deviation, so only some of the

participants try to find the ways of being a better learner of English (item 2) (*SD* = 1.13). On the other hand, participants sometimes try to find as many ways as they can to use their English (item 8) (*M* = 3.12) and plan a schedule to study English (item 9) (*M* = 2.76).

In the interview, one low English ability respondent said that his thought about progresses in learning English (item 1). Student A said that "*If I take an English course, I will make sure that I am successful*" (See Appendix E.) In addition, some of the respondents tried many different ways of finding out how to be better learners of English (item 2). Nevertheless, although item 9 "Planning a schedule to study English" was employed the least in this category of sub-strategies, one low English ability respondent (student A) in the interview said " *I plan to study English in the future at a language institute at Central Pinklao because I have to pursue a Ph.D.*" (See Appendix E.)

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Table 4.11 Frequency of Use of Affective Strategies Employed by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program the Teaching Profession

Affective Strategies	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Use of Affective Strategies Item
1. Encouraging yourself to speak English even when you are afraid of making a mistake	3.57	1.05	High
2. Trying to relax when you feel afraid of using English	3.39	1.06	Medium
3. Giving myself a reward or treat when I do well in English	3.25	1.06	Medium
4. Noticing if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English	3.21	1.16	Medium
5. Talking to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English	2.84	1.14	Medium
6. Writing down your feelings in a language learning diary	2.39	1.15	Low

(N = 67)

Table 4.11 shows the frequency of use of affective strategies employed by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession. Participants frequently encouraged themselves to speak English even when they were afraid of making a mistake (item 1) (*M* = 3.57) and tried to relax when they felt afraid of using English (item 2) (*M* = 3.39). However, they only sometimes talked to someone else about how they felt when they were learning English (item 5) (*M* = 2.84). In addition, they rarely wrote down their feelings in a language learning diary (item 6) (*M* = 2.39). The standard deviation for all items in the affective strategies subdivision is rather high (*SD* = 1.05, *SD* = 1.06, *SD* = 1.06, *SD* = 1.16, *SD* = 1.14, and *SD* = 1.15) (item 1, item 2, item 3, item 4, item 5, and item 6), so participants used the activities in this subdivision at different levels.

In the interview, both high and low English ability respondents (student A, student B, student C, and student E) stated that they felt confident speaking English, so they didn't worry about mistakes when speaking with others in English (item1). They also had positive attitudes towards speaking English, so it helped them feel relaxed

(item 2). For example, student E stated that "*Of the four skills, I think I am good at speaking. Speaking doesn't require that you have to speak grammatically in real situations because sometimes we make mistakes in speaking English. However, when we speak English, we can use different tones of voice and gestures (i.e. hands and face). It is easier to explain than just reading texts or listening something*."

Table 4.12 Frequency of Use of Social Strategies Employed by All Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Social Strategies	μ	σ	Levels of Frequency of Use of Social Strategies Item
1. Asking the other person to slow down or say it again	3.46	0.97	Medium
2. Asking English speakers to correct me when I talk	3.19	1.09	Medium
3. Asking for help from English speakers	3.10	1.13	Medium
4. Practicing English with other students	3.00	1.10	Medium
5. Trying to learn about the culture of English speakers	2.99	1.09	Medium
6. Asking questions in English	2.76	1.07	Medium

(N = 67)

Table 4.12 shows the frequency of use of social strategies by 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession. In this subdivision, most of the participants frequently asked the other person to slow down or say it again (item 1) (M = 3.46) and asked English speakers to correct them when they were talking (item 2) (M = 3.19), while they only sometimes tried to learn about the culture of English speakers (item 5) (M = 2.99) and asked questions in English (item 6) (M = 2.76). The standard deviation for item 1 "Asking the other person to slow down or say it again" was low. This shows that most of the participants frequently asked the other person to slow down or say something again (SD = 0.97).

In the interview, two high English ability respondents (student C and student E) stated that when they faced difficulties in speaking English, they asked their conversation partners to say something again (item 1) and sometimes asked them for

help (item 3) . For example, student C said "*I will use a facial expression like a question mark and ask them again. They understand what I mean, which is I don't understand some of words they have used, especially some idioms, so I will ask them to say it again slowly and clearly. Also, if they are friends of mine, I will say "What, Pardon, and Say it again" because I talk to them every day. I try to repeat the word that I don't understand. Finally, they will explain it again. Sometimes they use different words, and I can get it*."

Summary for Finding Three

The results show that the respondents employed the metacognitive strategies the most, while the least used strategies were the cognitive strategies. Similarly, the most used item was "Thinking about my progress in learning English" (item 38) (M = 3.60) which is in the metacognitive subdivision. On the other hand, item 43 of the affective strategies "Writing down your feelings in language learning diary" was the least used (item 43) (M = 2.39), but the strategies least used by all participants were the cognitive strategies (M = 2.93).

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4.4 Finding Four

Research Questions 4 was "What language learning strategies do high and low English proficiency students in the program use in English learning?"

Table 4.13 Frequency of Use of Language Learning Strategies Employed by High and Low English Proficiency Students in the Graduate Diploma Program for the Teaching Profession

Language Learning Strategies	High English Proficiency Students (N = 4)				Low English Proficiency Students (N = 63)			
	μ	σ	Rank Order	Level	μ	Σ	Rank Order	Level
Metacognitive strategies	4.67	0.16	1	High	3.19	0.80	1	Medium
Social strategies	4.46	0.88	2	High	3.00	0.79	4	Medium
Compensation strategies	4.38	0.55	3	High	3.16	0.70	2	Medium
Memory strategies	4.36	0.45	4	High	2.98	0.76	5	Medium
Cognitive strategies	4.30	0.63	5	High	2.85	0.76	6	Medium
Affective strategies	4.25	0.52	6	High	3.03	0.75	3	Medium

(N = 67)

Table 4.13 gives the descriptive statistics for the frequency of use the six language learning strategies by high and low proficiency students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession. The high English proficiency students frequently used metacognitive strategies in their English learning (M = 4.67), while they used affective strategies in their English learning least (M = 4.40). The data for the low English proficiency students show that they also used metacognitive strategies

in their English learning most (M = 3.19); the least used strategy subdivision for this group was cognitive strategies (M = 2.85). The dispersion of the standard deviations in these two groups of students was similarly low. Most of the high and low English proficiency students used all language learning strategies similarly, as shown in Table 19.

Moreover, the interview data show that most high English proficiency respondents usually noticed their English mistakes and used that information to help them do it better. Furthermore, the high English proficiency students always find chances to practice English as often as they can in order to make progress by using the metacognitive strategies. However, it was found that affective strategies were employed least. In the interviews, the group of low English proficiency students reported that they usually set goals in learning English and tried to find ways to improve (metacognitive strategies), whereas they claimed that there was never enough time to practice and that they did not often practice reading, speaking, or writing; they only practiced listening, by watching movies (cognitive strategies).

Summary for Finding Four

The results show that the most used language learning strategies high and low English proficiency students were similar. The high English proficiency students frequently used strategies in the metacognitive strategies subdivision (M = 4.67). Also, the low English proficiency students employed strategies in the metacognitive division most in their learning of English (M = 3.19). However, the strategies least used by the high English proficiency students were the affective strategies (M = 4.25), while the low English proficiency students employed the cognitive strategies least (M = 2.85).

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4.5 Finding Five

Research Questions 5 was “To what extent are there any relationships between autonomous learners and language learning strategies among students in the program?”

Table 4.14 Summary of Intercorrelation between Autonomous Learners and Language Learning Strategies

IV \ DV	Language Learning Strategies
Autonomous Learners	.901**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level ($p < .01$) (N = 67)

Table 4.14 shows the relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies at $r_s = .901$, $p < .01$. There was a high positive relationship between these two variables.

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Table 4.15 Summary of Intercorrelation between the Perceived Roles of Autonomous Learners and Language Learning Strategies

IV \ DV	Memory strategies	Cognitive strategies	Compensation strategies	Metacognitive strategies	Affective strategies	Social strategies
Responsibilities	.667**	**.674****	.580**	.610**	.590**	.629**
Decision-making abilities	.668**	.691**	.577**	.645**	.653**	**.674****
Motivation	.591**	.644**	.561**	.700**	.604**	**.715****
Activities	.834**	**.893****	.690**	.742**	.689**	.815**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level ($p < .01$) (N = 67)

The results in Table 4.15 show that there are relationships between the perceived roles of autonomous learners regarding responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities and six language learning strategies. There were statistically significant at 99% of the significant level as follows:

4.5.1 Relationships Between Responsibilities and the Six Language Learning Strategies

a) Responsibilities were correlated with memory strategies at $r_s = .667$, $p < .01$.

b) Responsibilities were correlated with cognitive strategies at $r_s = .674$, $p < .01$.

c) Responsibilities were correlated with compensation strategies at $r_s = .580$, $p < .01$.

d) Responsibilities were correlated with metacognitive strategies at $r_s = .610$, $p < .01$.

e) Responsibilities were correlated with affective strategies at r_s = .590, p < .01.

f) Responsibilities were correlated with social strategies at r_s = .629, p < .01.

4.5.2 Relationships Between Decision-making Abilities and the Six Language Learning Strategies

a) Decision-making abilities were correlated with memory strategies at r = .668, p < .01.

b) Decision-making abilities were correlated with cognitive strategies at r_s = .691, p < .01.

c) Responsibilities were correlated with compensation strategies at r_s = .577, p < .01.

d) Decision-making abilities were correlated with metacognitive strategies at r_s = .645, p < .01.

e) Decision-making abilities were correlated with affective strategies at r_s = .653, p < .01.

f) Decision-making abilities were correlated with social strategies at r_s = .674, p < .01.

4.5.3 Relationships Between Motivation and the Six Language Learning Strategies

a) Motivation was correlated with memory strategies at r_s = .591, p < .01.

b) Motivation was correlated with cognitive strategies at r_s = .644, p < .01.

c) Motivation was correlated with compensation strategies at r_s = .561, p < .01.

d) Motivation was were correlated with metacognitive strategies at r_s = .700, p < .01.

e) Motivation was correlated with affective strategies at r_s = .604, p < .01.

f) Motivation was correlated with social strategies at r_s = .715, p < .01.

4.5.4 Relationships Between Activities and the Six Language Learning Strategies

a) Activities were correlated with memory strategies at r_s = .834, p < .01.

b) Activities were correlated with cognitive strategies at r_s = .893, p < .01.

c) Activities were correlated with compensation strategies at r_s = .690, p < .01.

d) Activities were correlated with metacognitive strategies at r_s = .742, p < .01.

e) Activities were correlated with affective strategies at r_s = .689, p < .01.

f) Activities were correlated with social strategies at r_s = .815, p < .01.

Summary for Finding Five

The results show that there were positive relationships between the perceived roles of autonomous learners and language learning strategies at r_s = .901, p < .01. There were relationships between the four components of learner autonomy and the six language learning strategies. It was found that there was a high positive relationship between activities and cognitive strategies at r_s = .893 (p < .01), and it was also found that there was a positively significant relationship between motivation and social strategies at r_s = .715, decision-making abilities and social strategies at r_s = .674, and responsibilities and cognitive strategies at r_s = .674 (p < .01) respectively. Meanwhile, there was a significant relationship between motivation and compensation strategies at r_s = .561, the lowest of the correlations.

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CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the findings from the previous chapter. The discussion is divided into six categories according to the five research questions and the implications of the study, as follows:

5.1 Discussion of finding one: all students' perceptions on the roles of autonomous learners according to four characteristics: responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities engaged in inside and outside class

5.2 Discussion of finding two: high and low proficiency students' perceptions of the roles of autonomous learners according to four characteristics: responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities engaged in inside and outside class

5.3 Discussion of finding three: the language learning strategies employed by all students

5.4 Discussion of finding four: the language learning strategies employed by high and low proficiency students

5.5 Discussion of finding five: the relationship between the perceived roles of autonomous learners and language learning strategies

5.6 Discussion of the implications of the study

5.1 Discussion of Finding One

In this section, all students' perceptions of the four categories roles of autonomous learners (responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation, and activities engaged in inside and outside class are explored. Statistics derived from responses to the autonomous language learning questionnaire (Chan, Spratt, & Humphreys, 2002) and data from interviews about students' autonomous language learning are included. As the data analysis shows, motivation was ranked at the

highest level for learner autonomy (*M* = 3.54). Responsibilities (*M* = 3.31), decision-making abilities (*M* = 3.24), and activities engaged in inside and outside class (*M* = 2.90) were employed in descending order. To sum up, all components of learner autonomy were presented at high levels which revealed that students in this study were likely to be highly autonomous language learners.

5.1.1 Motivation

This section discusses the perceptions of motivation by all students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession (N = 67). The mean and standard deviations for motivation were ranked highest among the four components of learner autonomy (*M* = 3.54). Moreover, the interviews show how students had their own motivation. It was found that highly motivated students in this study were more autonomous; this corresponds to the findings of many researchers (Spratt, Humphrey, & Chan, 2002) who found that motivation plays an important role in learner autonomy. In addition to information derived from descriptive statistics, data from the interviews identified the types of motivation that students in the program employed. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), there are two types of motivation, which are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation helps students to perform activities in order to achieve the goals. As a result, some students in this study who were intrinsically motivated to learn English were more autonomous than students who held extrinsic motivation.

5.1.2 Responsibilities

The use of responsibilities were by all students ranked second (*M* = 3.57). Most students chose materials in English lessons (*M* = 3.57), identified their weaknesses in English (*M* = 3.52), and worked harder (*M* = 3.45). These findings for student's responsibility are in accord with those of Sakai, Takaki, and Chu's (2010), who found that the most useful items regarding responsibilities in learner autonomy are related to having a clear focus on setting goals, making an effort, and planning and considering individual differences when selecting learning material, content, and purposes for learning English. Meanwhile, the four least used items among responsibilities employed by all students in this study were evaluating their

courses (M = 3.19), being responsible for your progress during lessons (M = 3.18), deciding how long to spend on each activity (M = 3.13), and evaluating their learning (M = 2.99). It was found that students in this study evaluated their own courses (M = 3.19) more often than evaluating their own learning (M = 2.99). This is not consistent with the results of a study by Sakai, Takaki, and Chu (2010) which showed that students were better able to assess their own learning more than their course; they reported that course evaluation was the responsibility of the teachers. Accordingly, students' evaluation of their courses depended on the learning and teaching context in class.

5.1.3 Decision-making Abilities

Decision-making abilities were ranked third (M = 3.24). According to Littlewood (1996), the behaviors in autonomous language learning are driven by both willingness and ability. Willingness means that a person has to be motivated and have the self-confidence to take responsibility for tasks, while ability needs skills and knowledge. However, the results section of the study showed that students were responsible for evaluating their own course (M = 3.19) more often than their own study (M = 2.99); this is not consistent with students; saying that they were better able to make decisions about evaluating their own learning (M = 3.15) than their courses (M = 3.09). Thus, students revealed that they had the decision-making ability to assess their own learning if they had responsibility for doing it.

5.1.4 Activities engaged in inside and outside class

Activities engaged in inside and outside class ranked fourth among the four components of learner autonomy, at a high level (M = 2.90). It was found that the most used activities were doing assignments not required by teachers or others (M = 3.39), listening to English songs (M = 3.37), watching English movies (M = 3.25), and using the Internet in English (M = 3.19) were easy to perform by themselves at home or anywhere. Interview data revealed that although this type of learner autonomy ranked last, some students tried to improve their English, especially in receptive skills, even in the limited time available. For instance, one participant listened to English songs while he/she was driving to work, and when a participant had

a choice of CD's, he preferred to buy one which might be more expensive but have subtitles to help practice English. Interview data from both students revealed that these activities help them learn English in daily life, and they can access up-to-date information. This agrees with the findings of Sumonwiriya (2007), who reported that most activities that secondary students in English and regular programs employed outside class were related to receptive skills rather than productive skills, such as listening to English songs, watching English movies, and playing online games or computer games.

However, the least used activities were writing English letters to pen pals (M = 2.54) and writing a diary in English (M = 2.19). It was found that students rarely had the opportunity to correspond with foreigners or practice writing in English, and they did not have enough free time to look for activities to improve their English. The results of this study are in line with those of Sumonwiriya (2007), who found that the activities least used outside class by secondary students in English and regular programs in secondary schools were activities involving the productive skills; they only occasionally used these activities, especially writing a diary in English. In order to encourage students to do the tasks in learning English, Sumonwiriya (2007) reported five important factors: activities for practicing English, support facilities from schools, chances for using English with foreign teachers, family support, and the different kinds of motivation students had. These factors seem to be similar to the findings of the present study, which reported that the productive skills of speaking and writing were less frequently used by students in this study, although they were used at a high level; the opportunities to practice speaking with peers and to practice writing essays in English were needed, as data from the interviews show.

5.2 Discussion of Finding Two

This section discusses the roles of autonomous learners employed by high (N = 4) and low (N = 63) English proficiency students. Responses to the questionnaires reveal that the motivation (ranked first) and responsibilities (second rank) were employed by both groups of students at the same level. 'The decision-

making abilities and activities that the two groups of students employed were different. However, mean scores for the four components were at a high level for being highly autonomous learners.

5.2.1 Motivation

Data analysis shows that both high and low English proficiency students' perceptions on motivation were at high levels and at the highest rank. Interestingly, all high English proficiency students (N = 4) had high motivation, at a high level (M = 5.0). The low English proficiency students also showed motivation at a high level (M = 3.44). The interview data show that the motivation levels of high and low English proficiency students were different, based on Deci and Ryan's (1985) ideas. Their needs are related to intrinsic motivation: the need for competence and the need for self-determination. These two needs deal with the intrinsic motivation and work together to support autonomous learning.

The interview data show that the high English proficiency students' interests motivated them to learn English actively, and they were stimulated by the joy of learning, their own motivation, and by being challenged at an optimal level. Clearly, most of the high English ability students learnt English through intrinsic motivation although they reported that English could be helpful and useful as a language tool for getting a better job and opening them up to the outside world. However, their competence in performing tasks may influence their learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985). It was found that rewards such as getting a better job and opening them up to the outside world were secondary motivators. In contrast, the low English ability students were interested in learning English when they were encouraged to learn English, and they thought that the rewards for learning English were the major factor motivating their learning. As a result, the low English proficiency students seemed to carry out tasks in order to reach their rewards, an example of extrinsic motivation. These findings are similar to psychological theories on intrinsic and extrinsic motivations proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985), who said that students who had intrinsic motivation performed tasks by themselves, whereas students who had extrinsic motivation performed tasks because of outside factors such as rewards or grades. Learning outcomes from doing tasks seem different for high and low English

ability students in relation to autonomous learning. As a consequence, the learning performance of high and low English ability students seems different. As the interview data shows, some high English ability students who held intrinsic motivation performed activities both inside and outside class more often than their peers.

5.2.2 Responsibilities

The high (M = 4.08) and low English ability (M = 3.26) students ranked the frequency on responsibilities second. According to Littlewood (1996), motivation and the confidence to employ responsibilities are the key factors that encourage students to be autonomous. The results of this study show that students who had high motivation and English ability were likely to be more autonomous learners than students of low motivation and low English ability, so both groups of students were highly autonomous learners in terms of taking the responsibility to be autonomous in language learning.

5.2.3 Activities engaged in inside and outside class

The high and low English ability learners show different students behaviors in performing activities inside and outside class. The findings show that the high English ability students (M = 4.01) did relevant English tasks more frequently than the low ability students (M = 2.83). Accordingly, satisfaction for doing activities differed between the two groups of students. The high English ability students ranked these activities third (M = 4.01), whereas the low English ability students ranked them fourth level (M = 2.83). These findings agree with Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory of intrinsic motivation in which self-determination and competence lead to actions. When a person needs to perform a task, their ability to accomplish it depends on their competence. If that task is very difficult, the person cannot accomplish it. Also, a person who desires to do a challenging task is likely to freely take responsibility on it.

5.2.4 Decision-making abilities

Analysis of the data revealed that the high English proficiency students employed decision-making abilities least (M = 3.90), while the low English

proficiency students employed decision-making abilities in third position (*M* = 3.20). According to Littlewood (1996), decision-making abilities are one necessary component for successful autonomous learning; learning actions conclude knowledge, the skill of choosing tasks, motivation, and the confidence of contributing tasks. Therefore, the high English ability students in this group are likely to be successful autonomous learners although they employed the abilities least frequently; overall, the components of learner autonomy were at high levels. High levels of use for these components can encourage the learner to acquire knowledge successfully and autonomously, in accord with Littlewood's (1996) components of autonomy. Meanwhile, the low English proficiency students employed decision-making abilities third, but at a high level of the frequency. However, the ability is not the only factor, but willingness (motivation and confidence to take responsibility) is also needed to improve learner autonomy.

5.3 Discussion of Finding Three

The data from responses to the SILL and interview data reveal the language learning strategies employed by 67 graduate diploma students in the teaching profession. In this study, the most frequently used learning strategies were "Metacognitive strategies" (*M* = 3.27). Also, "Compensation strategies" (*M* = 3.23), "Affective strategies" (*M* = 3.10), "Social strategies" (*M* = 3.08), and "Memory strategies" (*M* = 3.06), were employed in descending order. The least used strategy was "Cognitive strategies" (*M* = 2.93). This shows that students frequently used "Metacognitive strategies" such as "thinking about your progress in learning English" (item 38), which was the highest used strategy item among the 50 learning strategy items. This result is consistent with other research findings (Anugkakul, 2011; Ghee, Ismail, & Kabilan, 2010; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; On-chun, 2011; Park, 1997; Satta-udom, 2007), in which "Metacognitive strategies" were frequently used in language learning. In particular, the findings are in line with Fazeli's (2012) findings that the most used strategies were "Metacognitive strategies" and the least used strategies were "Cognitive strategies". Surprisingly, the results differ from those of

Ghavamnia, Kassaian, and Dabaghi (2011), which showed that Persian most seniors in applied linguistics in the tertiary level ranked cognitive strategies highest, and there was a strong relationship between learners' beliefs on language learning and language learning strategies. Overall, all six strategies students employed were at medium levels, which is in accord with other findings (Park, 1997; Satta-udom, 2007; Tappoon, 2008). Specially, the results of Satta-udom (2007) and Tappoon's (2008) research also reported Thai students used all language learning strategies at a medium level.

5.3.1 Metacognitive strategies

"Metacognitive strategies" ranked highest among the strategies used by the 67 students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession (M = 3.27). The students in Satta-udom's (2007) study also ranked "Metacognitive strategies" highest; the non-science university students in this study ranked "Metacognitive strategies" at a medium level. According to Oxford (1990), this strategy division is concerned with the learning processes such as centering, arranging and planning, and evaluating. The findings show that students are able to evaluate their learning very well, as shown by the most frequently used item (item 38) "Thinking about your progress in learning English", which agrees with the mostly reported item in a previous study (Tappoon, 2008). Students also reported that they knew what their weak points were and that they tried to find opportunities to improve their use of the four skills. Their report in the interview data concerning evaluation is in line with their report on decision-making abilities in order to develop learner autonomy in which they said that they could assess themselves learning better than they could assess their course. Moreover, they put an emphasis on the ways of arranging and planning their learning, such as trying to explore the means for being a better language learner and looking for opportunities to improve reading in English. However, the point about evaluating learning does not agree with language learning research in China (Yu-xia, 2008). Yu-xia (2008) reported that evaluation in learning depended on the cultural background in learning and teaching in which Chinese students rarely the opportunity to evaluate their own abilities and tasks because of the teacher-centered approach to learning; only some students said that they could identify

their own study problems and choose learning styles to reach their own learning goals. Finally, proficient language students reported that using "Metacognitive strategies" in language learning can help students to manage their learning process successfully (Hong-nam & Leavell, 2006; Shmais, 2003; Takeuchi, 2003; Wharton, 2000).

5.3.2 Compensation strategies

Students in this study ranked the compensation strategies second (*M* = 3.23). According to Oxford (1990), compensation strategies help learners to overcome their difficulties in learning language by guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing; they rely on experience and understanding. Students used these strategies to improve their English by guessing the meaning of unfamiliar English words, using gestures, and making up new words if they do not know the right ones, which are all strategies were employed when students find difficulties using English, as shown by data from the interview. This result is similar to that showing the ranking of compensation strategies as second by first-year non-science undergraduate students (Satta-udom, 2007); use was at a medium level.

5.3.3 Affective strategies

The mean score of "Affective strategies was at the third rank order using at the medium level (*M* = 3.10). Although "Affective strategies" were ranked third ranked among learning strategies, it was found that the least used item on SILL was item 43 "Writing down my feelings in a language learning diary" (*M* = 2.39), in the affective strategies subdivision, which is consistent with Tappoon's (2008) findings. As the interview data shows, students rarely practiced writing, so they rarely expressed their feelings by writing in a diary. Interestingly, students in this group usually encouraged themselves to speak English even when they were afraid of making a mistake (*M* = 3.57).

5.3.4 Social strategies

In this section, the mean score was at a medium level (*M* = 3.08). As the interview data shows, when students face difficulties in listening to or speaking English and had the chance to talk with foreigners or friends in English, they

usually asked them to slow down or say things again to better understand what they had said; they also asked their conversation partners to correct them when they were talking with, which is a type of for clarification or verification in the sub-category under "Social strategies" (Oxford, 1990). Oxford (1990) said that the three subsets of the strategy division were asking for clarification or verification, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others. The first subset was clearly shown by students in this study who reported wanting to have a clear understanding of the meaning and use appropriate language when using the language.

5.3.5 Memory strategies

Students in this study ranked "Memory strategies" the fifth (M = 3.06). "Thinking of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English" and "Remembering a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used" were most frequently employed. Also, the interviewees in this study revealed that they sometimes tried to recognize what they already knew in order to apply this to the new knowledge; this helped them to accomplish some tasks more easily. However, "Reviewing English lessons" was rarely employed because they claimed that there was not enough time to review.

5.3.6 Cognitive strategies

This subdivision of "Cognitive strategies" was used by all 67 students in this study least at a medium level (M = 2.93). This result is similar to that of Fazeli (2012), who found that these strategies were the least frequently used. Also, it concurs with the results of Tianchai's (2012) study, which explored language learning strategy use of both high and low English ability undergraduate students and found that the least used strategies were the cognitive strategies, which were used at a medium level. On the other hand, several studies have found the most frequently used strategies were the "Cognitive strategies:, especially among ESL students and EFL undergraduate students who reported using these strategies with easy tasks; in contrast they used "Metacognitive strategies" with more difficult tasks (Oxford, 1990, p. 242).

5.4 Discussion of Finding Four

The language learning strategies employed by high (N = 4) and low English proficiency students (N = 63) were explored; the statistical results for strategy use show that the strategies were used differently by the two groups. The high English proficiency students used “Metacognitive strategies” (*M* = 4.67) followed by “Social strategies” (*M* = 4.46), “Compensation strategies”, (*M* = 4.38) “Memory strategies” (*M* = 4.36), “Cognitive strategies” (*M* = 4.30), and “Affective strategies" (*M* = 4.25); overall use was at high or medium level. Meanwhile, the low English proficiency students used “Metacognitive strategies” (*M* = 3.19), “Compensation strategies” (*M* = 3.16), “Affective strategies” (*M* = 3.03), “Social strategies” (*M* = 3.00), “Memory strategies” (*M* = 2.98), and “Cognitive strategies” (*M* = 2.85) in descending order. It can be seen that both groups of students ranked use of “Metacognitive strategies” highest, but use of the other strategies varied.

5.4.1 Metacognitive strategies

Both high and low ability students in this study ranked “Metacognitive strategies” first. As the interview data shows, students in both groups had clear goals for studying English, and when they evaluated themselves on their weaknesses in English, they were likely to be able to decide which complementary courses could help them to improve their language use. Furthermore, when they took English courses, they made sure that these courses matched their needs and would help them improve in the skills where they needed help.

5.4.2 Social strategies

The high English ability students ranked “Social strategies” second, while the low English ability students ranked “Social strategies” as fourth. The most frequently used of the “Social strategies”, as reported by the high English ability students during the interviews, was practicing English with foreigners. This practice also helped them to learn English culture; they also reported asking for clarifications about English. The high English ability students had more opportunities to get involved with the strategies than the low English ability students.

5.4.3 Compensation strategies

The high English ability students in this study ranked "Compensation strategies" (*M* = 4.38) highly, which concurs Kaotsombut's (2003) finding that all graduate students used this strategy subdivision, at a high level. In contrast, the low English ability students employed "Compensation strategies' less often than the high group, with use at a medium level (*M* = 3.16). Although the low English ability students sometimes used "Compensation strategies", they still ranked the use of "Compensation strategies" second, which is in the same rank given by non-science undergraduate students in Satta-udom's (2007) study.

5.4.4 Memory strategies

The different English ability groups in this study employed "Memory strategies" differently. The high English ability group ranked "Memory strategies" fourth which concurs with Satta-udom's (200) finding about strategy use by first-year science students' although the rankings in the two studies are similar, the levels of use are different; the science students employed "Memory strategies" at a high level. Data from the interview show that the high English ability students frequently were able to apply previous knowledge about English to the new lessons much better than the low English ability students.

5.4.5 Cognitive strategies

As responses to the questionnaire show, "Cognitive strategies" were ranked fifth and used at a high level by the high ability students. Meanwhile, the low English ability students ranked "Cognitive strategies" last and used these strategies at a medium level. These results agree with those of Gerami and Baighlou (2011), who found that overall strategy use by successful Iranian learners was more frequent than that of unsuccessful learners., It was found that the unsuccessful learners were more likely to use "Cognitive strategies" than the successful learners, which is seen as a surface learning approach (Gerami & Baighlou, 2011). However, the activities that both groups of students employed were those that were easily available for practice in their daily life. For example, "Watching English language TV shows or going to English movies" was most frequently used. In addition, one example of

practicing learner autonomy, “Trying not to translate word-for-word”, was sometimes used in their study or work. Data from the interview show that this strategy was useful in learning English. Thus, the use of “Cognitive strategies” depends on situations and practice time.

5.4.6 Affective strategies

“Affective strategies” were ranked last by the high English proficiency students; they were used at a high level, which was corresponds with the results for Thai undergraduate high English ability students and Chinese tertiary students who ranked “Affective strategies” last but at a different level, that of medium use, (Xiaoguo & Yongbing, 2005; Tianchai, 2012) and with results for Iranian EFL successful and unsuccessful learners (at medium and low levels respectively) (Gerami & Baighlou, 2011). However, this group of students had a positive attitude about being confident in speaking English although they may make mistakes. Meanwhile, the low English ability students ranked “Affective strategies” third, with use at a medium level, which concurs with the results for all graduate science students (Kaotsombut, 2003) and for the successful Iranian students who reported using the “Affective strategies” in a medium level (Gerami & Baighlou, 2011).

5.5 Discussion of Finding Five

In order to examine the relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies used among students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession, this study used two instruments: (1) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) and (2) Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire (Chan, Spratt, & Humphreys, 2002).

Students in this study were highly autonomous learners (M = 3.08) and medium language learning strategy users (M = 3.09). Oxford (1990) and Wenden (1991) said that learning strategies play a crucial role in helping students to learn language and in supporting their self-directed learning. As a result, autonomous learners and language learning strategies are two key variables; the relationship

between them needs to be determined The results of this study reveal that there is a high positive relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies (r_s = .901). This confirms that language learning strategies can help learners to achieve language learning on their own; "Language learning strategies encourage greater overall self-direction for learners" (Oxford, 1990, p. 10).

The relationship between four components of autonomous learning and the six language learning strategies reveals moderate and high positive correlations for pairs of learner autonomy. Interestingly, the relationship between activities that students employed inside and outside class and cognitive strategies had a high positive correlation (r = 0.881). The cognitive strategies comprise repeating, analyzing, and summarizing; they give practical support to language learning (Oxford, 1990). If language learners use the language learning resources as much as they can and practice the activities provided, they will become effective autonomous learners. In addition, data analysis gave valuable information about differences between the high and low English ability groups of students. Students are likely to be autonomous learners if they take part in activities to help them learn English effectively and become autonomous learners Sumonwiriya (2007); this study showed that the English program students practiced more out-of-class activities than the regular program students who have less intrinsic motivation.

5.6 Discussion of the Implications

The research explored the relationship between autonomous learning and language learning strategies by administering the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire and the SILL. Also, the Quick Placement Test (QPT) was used to separate students into high and low English ability groups. The test results show that a minority of students had a high score and were classified as high English ability students. Thus, further research should resolve this problem by using the test with a large number of participants. Moreover, it will be useful if the research is conducted with a variety of adult learners in different contexts for English language learning at the same level. Recommendations for use are also provided for teachers and learners

to improve the teaching and learning processes in order to help learners become autonomous by undertaking activities inside and outside class. Another recommendation is for curriculum developers to play a crucial role in educational reform.

5.6.1 Implications for learning and teaching

Language learning strategies can encourage students in to learn effectively and can improve teaching processes; a number of studies on language learning strategies show a positive relationship between language learning strategy use and proficiency (Bruen, 2001; Ghavamnia, Kassaian, & Dabaghi, 2011; Murray. 2010; Park, 1997; Sheorey, 1999). Moreover, some studies have found that successful learners employ learning strategies more often than less successful learners (Gerami & Baighlou, 2011; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Yılmaz, 2010). The use of the six language learning strategies is correlated with proficiency, as reported by many studies (Park, 1997; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Murray, 2010; Ghavamnia, Kassaian, & Dabaghi, 2011). Accordingly, students should be supported in their use of language learning strategies. Murray (2010) found that there are weak positive relationships between strategy use and students' proficiency in language classes, and the cognitive strategies showed the highest correlation, at 0.30. However, Rees-Miller (1993) reported that not only does learning strategy use affect students' achievement, but motivation and aptitude for language learning also play a role in learning outcomes.

To sum up, all areas of learner authonomy, such as responsibilities, ability, motivation, and activities, and language learning strategies should be supported in language learning. Altogether, not only do learning strategies promote autonomous learners (Wenden, 1991; Oxford, 1990), but motivation also plays an important role in effective autonomous language learning (Littlewood, 1996; Swatevacharkul, 2010); intrinsic motivation is especially important (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Responsibility (Sakai, Takaki & Chu, 2010; Swatevacharkul, 2010), decision-making ability (Littlewood, 1996; Swatevacharkul, 2010), and activities (Sumonwiriya, 2007) are also important. Researchers in teaching and learning methods should examine factors influencing the promotion of learner autonomy and support learners in practical ways

5.6.2 Implications for the language learning curriculum

The findings of this study show that the perceived roles of autonomous learners and using language learning strategies should help learners to become life-long learners, which is the ultimate goal of learning. Effective learning and teaching should focus on autonomous language learning, emphasizing the learner's role. Moreover, support for learner autonomy takes place inside and outside class. For example, in the classroom context, textbooks and the teacher's role must consider the concept of autonomous language learning. Learners have to practice the responsibility and develop the ability, under Holec's (1981) concept, which consists of (1) determining the objectives; (2) defining the content and progression; (3) selecting methods and techniques to be used; (4) monitoring the procedures for speaking properly (rhythm, time, place, etc); (5) evaluating what has been acquired (Holec, 1981, p. 3).

In conclusion, learner autonomy is an important concept for all students from beginning to advanced levels. Students must be trained in taking responsibility, decision-making, motivation, activities, and learning strategies. These need to be practiced inside and outside class, with learners themselves, teachers, and curriculum developers. As a result, if students are able to apply the knowledge gained in class and out of class, they will be successful language learners.

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CHAPTER VI
CONCLUSION

6.1 Conclusions of the Study

Autonomous learning is considered a fundamental goal in education by many teachers, and the teachers try to improve their teaching in order to achieve this goal (Waterhouse, 1990). There have been several definitions of learner autonomy and various reasons have been given for achieving this goal. First, it is related to concerns such as examination styles, large classes, strict learning schedules, insufficient resources, and the educational expectations. Furthermore, there are some technical reasons. For example, some young learners need teachers' support in the education system, and they still need teachers' guidance and help in their independent practice. Thus, learner autonomy should include many perspectives as to how to reach its goals, including learner-centeredness (Little, 1990; Nunan, 1989; Phungphol, 2005). In the Thai context, this approach has focused on learners' roles in their own learning in order to achieve the goals of the Framework of the Second 15-Year Long Range Plan on Higher education in Thailand since 2008-2022 (Commission on Higher Education, 2008). Learners are expected to gain knowledge by themselves via the knowledge-based society by choosing their own language learning strategies to reach the target successfully.

This study explored the perceived autonomous learners and language learning strategies used by high and low English proficiency students in the graduate diploma program for the teaching profession. Also, the relationship between the perceived roles of autonomous learners and language learning strategies was investigated to find out how the four aspects of autonomous learners can be developed by using the six language learning strategies.

Participants in the study were chosen by purposive sampling; there were 67 graduate diploma students in the teaching profession. They took part in this study voluntarily during the academic year 2012. To answer the five research questions, the

autonomous language learning questionnaire and the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) were administered to explore how these participants viewed the four aspects of autonomous learning and what language learning strategies were employed by both high and low English ability students. Moreover, semi-structured interviews were used to better explain the data obtained.

6.1.1 Conclusions About Research Purpose One

Motivation was perceived as the crucial factor in supporting autonomous language learning; it was rated at the highest level. Intrinsic motivation is an important motivator driving learners' actions into action. Also, taking responsibility and having decision-making ability should support each other. It was found that students in this study rated themselves higher in evaluating their own courses than in rating their own study. However, students not only play a role in assessing their course, but should pay attention to assessing their own learning in accord with the results for decision-making abilities on how well they could assess their own learning. The behavior of performing activities both in and outside class was ranked lowest by all students in this study.

6.1.2 Conclusions About Research Purpose Two

The high English ability students in this study clearly reported being more highly motivated than the low English ability students. Deci and Ryan say that (1985) intrinsic motivation can play a crucial role in learner autonomy by motivating language learners to act successfully. As the descriptive statistics show, frequency of use of taking responsibility and decision-making ability differed between the high and low English ability students. Although the high English ability students ranked the decision-making ability lower than their low-level peers, decision-making ability, which is related to the knowledge and skills of learners, was ranked higher by the high English ability students. Thus, all factors influencing learner autonomy can support one another and lead to actions of learner autonomy.

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6.1.3 Conclusions About Research Purpose Three

Students in this study ranked "Metacognitive strategies" highest, as can be seen by the highest-ranked item (38) "Thinking about your progress in learning English"; it can be seen that students in this study managed their learning processes very well, especially self-evaluating, which enhances the process of autonomous language learning. This process can improve students' learning by encouraging them to seek opportunities to improve themselves. However, the lowest rank was given to "Cognitive strategies"; this is not consistent with the lowest-ranked item, which was an "Affective strategies"—"Writing down their feelings in a language learning diary'. Students should practice all four sets of "Cognitive strategies" in learning language: practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output. They should focus on reading and writing; they reported that they had a limited amount of time to practice these skills as shown by the lowest ranked "Cognitive strategies". Writing should be practiced by make summaries and writing notes, messages, letters, or reports in English. Also, students should practice skimming when reading English passages.

6.1.4 Conclusions About Research Purpose Four

"Metacognitive strategies" were ranked highest by both high and low English ability students. High English ability students looked for opportunities to read as often as possible in English, tried to find how to be better learners of English, paid attention when someone was speaking English, and noticed their English mistakes and used that information to help them do better. These actions helped them to acquire knowledge autonomously and as actively as possible. Meanwhile, the low English ability students ranked all these items at a lower level. The way the high English ability students rated categories differed from the ratings of the low English ability students. The high English ability students rated ""Affective strategies" highest, especially encouraging themselves to speak English. All of them tried to speak and none worried about their mistakes. Among the "Affective strategies", they ranked being tense or nervous when studying or using English lowest.

6.1.5 Conclusions About Research Purpose Five

All of the language learning strategies affect how the students perform as autonomous learners, as can be seen by the activities that students ranked highest in learning English inside and outside their class and "Cognitive strategies". Moreover, each component of learner autonomy is related to all language learning strategy use. Taking responsibility and "Memory strategies: showed the highest correlation among the learning strategies. Decision-making ability highly correlates with the use of "'Metacognitive strategies". Furthermore, among the subdivision of motivation, the highest correlation is between "Metacognitive strategies" and 'Social strategies". Thus, all students who want to become more effective autonomous language learners should use language learning strategies and should focus more on some strategies to improve their English ability to learn successfully.

6.2 Recommendations for Further Studies

Further studies should be conducted about how autonomous graduate diploma students in the teaching profession are and what language learning strategies they used. In order to be successful autonomous language learners, students should the components of learner autonomy and use language learning strategies in learning. The following recommendations are provided for further studies based on the results.

1. Further studies should be conducted with a larger number of participants so as to achieve a balance in the number of high and low English ability students. A *t*-test can be conducted to examine the differences and similarities in autonomous learning and use of language learning strategies. Also, the results can be generalized to a wider variety of students with the same level, background, and experience.

2. Studies with students in other contexts should be conducted. For instance, students in schools and those not in schools can improve their language learning in several ways, such as by choosing suitable textbooks and using Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL).

3. Further studies can investigate motivation's role in learner autonomy by developing other research instruments examining motivation and learner autonomy.

4. In conducting further studies on the relationship between autonomous learning and use of language learning strategies, there are many influential factors to investigate, such as gender, teaching style, English proficiency, and teaching materials, in order to find teachers' and students' perspectives.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A
A LETTER OF CONSENT

คณะศิลปศาสตร์
มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล ต.ศาลายา
อ.พุทธมณฑล จ.นครปฐม ๗๓๑๗๐
โทรศัพท์ ๐-๒๔๔๑-๔๔๐๑-๔

วันที่ ๒๔ กรกฎาคม ๒๕๕๕
เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์เก็บข้อมูลเพื่อประกอบการทำวิทยานิพนธ์

เรียน คณบดีบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย มหาวิทยาลัยธนบุรี

ด้วยนางสาวนิรมล รัตนสงเคราะห์ นักศึกษาหลักสูตรศิลปศาสตรบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาภาษาศาสตร์ประยุกต์ คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล อยู่ในระหว่างเก็บข้อมูลเพื่อทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง "ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองและกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้ภาษาของนักศึกษาประกาศนียบัตรบัณฑิตวิชาชีพครู" อาจารย์ผู้ควบคุมวิทยานิพนธ์ คือ รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ทรงศรี สรณสถาพร ในการศึกษาเรื่องดังกล่าว นักศึกษามีความจำเป็นต้องขอความอนุเคราะห์เข้าศึกษาข้อมูลจากมหาวิทยาลัยธนบุรี โดยการแจกแบบสอบถาม ในวันที่ ๒๘ เดือนกรกฎาคม ๒๕๕๕ และสัมภาษณ์ ในวันที่ ๑๘ เดือนสิงหาคม ๒๕๕๕

ทั้งนี้ อาจารย์ผู้ควบคุมวิทยานิพนธ์ได้มอบหมายให้นางสาวนิรมล รัตนสงเคราะห์ โทรศัพท์ ๐๘-๑๗๒๘-๔๒๕๐ หรือ อีเมลล์ iam.niramon@gmail.com เป็นผู้ประสานงานในรายละเอียดกับท่านโดยตรง

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณาอนุเคราะห์ จะเป็นพระคุณยิ่ง

ขอแสดงความนับถือ
(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ทรงศรี สรณสถาพร)
อาจารย์ผู้ควบคุมวิทยานิพนธ์

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APPENDIX B

QUICK PLACEMENT TEST

This test (A Paper and Pen Version) is divided into two parts:

- Part One: Questions 1 – 40
- Part Two: Questions 41 – 60

Instructions: Choose the best alternative for each item, and write your answers in the answer sheet.

Part 1
Questions 1 – 5

- Where can you see these notices?
- For questions **1** to **5**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

1.

Please leave your room key at reception.

A. in a shop
B. in a hotel
C. in a taxi

2.

Foreign money changed here

A. in a library
B. in a bank
C. in a police station

3.

AFTERNOON SHOW BEGINS AT 2PM

A. outside a theatre
B. outside a supermarket
C. outside a restaurant

4.

CLOSED FOR HOLIDAYS Lessons start again on the 8 th January

A. at a travel agent's
B. at a music school
C. at a restaurant

5.

Price per night: £10 a tent £5 a person

A. at a cinema
B. in a hotel
C. on a camp-site

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Questions 6 – 10

• In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the text below.

• For questions **6** to **10**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

Scotland

Scotland is the north part of the island of Great Britain. The Atlantic Ocean is on the west and the North Sea on the east. Some people **(6)**..... Scotland speak a different language called Gaelic. There are **(7)**..... five million people in Scotland, and Edinburgh is **(8)** ..... most famous city. Scotland has many mountains; the highest one is called 'Ben Nevis'. In the south of Scotland, there are a lot of sheep. A long time ago, there **(9)** ..... many forests, but now there are only a **(10)** ..... . Scotland is only a small country, but it is quite beautiful.

	A	**B**	**C**
6.	on	in	at
7.	about	between	among
8.	his	your	its
9.	is	were	was
10.	few	little	lot

Questions 11 – 20

• In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the texts.

• For questions **11** to **20**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

Alice Guy Blaché

Alice Guy Blaché was the first female film director. She first became involved in cinema whilst working for the Gaumont Film Company in the late 1890s. This was a period of great change in the cinema and Alice was the first to use many new inventions, **(11)** ..... sound and colour. In 1907 Alice **(12)** ..... to New York where she started her own film company. She was **(13)** ..... successful, but, when Hollywood became the centre of the film world, the best days of the independent New York film companies were **(14)** ..... . When Alice died in 1968, hardly anybody **(15)** ..... her name.

	A	**B**	**C**	**D**
11.	bringing	including	containing	supporting
12.	moved	ran	entered	transported
13.	next	once	immediately	recently
14.	after	down	behind	over
15.	remembered	realised	reminded	repeated

UFOs – do they exist?

UFO is short for 'unidentified flying object'. UFOs are popularly known as flying saucers, **(16)** ..... that is often the **(17)** ..... they are reported to be. The **(18)** ..... "flying saucers" were seen in 1947 by an American pilot, but experts who studied his claim decided it had been a trick of the light. Even people experienced at watching the sky, **(19)** ..... as pilots, report seeing UFOs. In 1978 a pilot reported a collection of UFOs off the coast of New Zealand. A television **(20)** ..... went up with the pilot and filmed the UFOs. Scientists studying this phenomenon later discovered that in this case they were simply lights on boats out fishing.

	A	**B**	**C**	**D**
16.	because	therefore	although	so
17.	look	shape	size	type
18.	last	next	first	oldest
19.	like	that	so	such
20.	cameraman	director	actor	announcer

Questions 21 – 40

• In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.

• For questions **21** to **40**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

21. The teacher encouraged her students ..... to an English pen-friend.

A should write **B** write **C** wrote **D** to write

22. They spent a lot of time ..... at the pictures in the museum.

A looking **B** for looking **C** to look **D** to looking

23. Shirley enjoys science lessons, but all her experiments seem to ..... wrong.

A turn **B** come **C** end **D** go

24. ..... from Michael, all the group arrived on time.

A Except **B** Other **C** Besides **D** Apart

25. She ..... her neighbour's children for the broken window.

A accused **B** complained **C** blamed **D** denied

26. As I had missed the history lesson, my friend went ..... the homework with me.

A by **B** after **C** over **D** on

27. Whether she's a good actress or not is a ..... of opinion.

A matter **B** subject **C** point **D** case

28. The decorated roof of the ancient palace was ..... up by four thin columns.

A built **B** carried **C** held **D** supported

29. Would it ..... you if we came on Thursday?

A agree **B** suit **C** like **D** fit

30. This form ..... be handed in until the end of the week.

A doesn't need **B** doesn't have **C** needn't **D** hasn't got

31. If you make a mistake when you are writing, just ..... it out with your pen.

A cross **B** clear **C** do **D** wipe

32. Although our opinions on many things ..... , we're good friends.

A differ **B** oppose **C** disagree **D** divide

33. This product must be eaten ..... two days of purchase.

A by **B** before **C** within **D** under

34. The newspaper report contained ..... important information.

A many **B** another **C** an **D** a lot of

35. Have you considered .....to London?

A move **B** to move **C** to be moving **D** moving

36. It can be a good idea for people who lead an active life to increase their ..... of vitamins.

A upturn **B** input **C** upkeep **D** intake

37. I thought there was a ..... of jealousy in his reaction to my good fortune.

A piece **B** part **C** shadow **D** touch

38. Why didn't you ..... that you were feeling ill?

A advise **B** mention **C** remark **D** tell

39. James was not sure exactly where his best interests ..... .

A stood **B** rested **C** lay **D** centred

40. He's still getting ..... the shock of losing his job.

A across **B** by **C** over **D** through

Part 2

Questions 41 – 50

• In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best fits each space in the texts.

• For questions **41** to **50**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

The tallest buildings - SKYSCRAPERS

Nowadays, skyscrapers can be found in most major cities of the world. A building which was many **(41)** …….. high was first called a skyscraper in the United States at the end of the 19th century, and New York has perhaps the **(42)** …….. skyscraper of them all, the Empire State Building. The **(43)** …….. beneath the streets of New York is rock, **(44)** …….. enough to take the heaviest load without sinking, and is therefore well-suited to bearing the **(45)** …….. of tall buildings.

	A	B	C	D
41.	stages	steps	storeys	levels
42.	first-rate	top-class	well-built	best-known
43.	dirt	field	ground	soil
44.	hard	stiff	forceful	powerful
45.	weight	height	size	scale

SCRABBLE

Scrabble is the world's most popular word game. For its origins, we have to go back to the 1930s in the USA, when Alfred Butts, an architect, found himself out of **(46)** ……. . He decided that there was a **(47)**…….. for a board game based on words and **(48)** …….. to design one. Eventually he made a **(49)** ……… from it, in spite of the fact that his original **(50)** …….. was only three cents a game.

	A	B	C	D
46.	earning	work	income	job
47.	market	purchase	commerce	sale
48.	took up	set out	made for	got round
49.	wealth	fund	cash	fortune
50.	receipt	benefit	profit	allowance

Questions 51 – 60

• In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.

• For questions **51** to **60**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

51. Roger's manager ..... to make him stay late if he hadn't finished the work.

A insisted **B** warned **C** threatened **D** announced

52. By the time he has finished his week's work, John has hardly ..... energy left for the weekend.

A any **B** much **C** no **D** same

53. As the game ..... to a close, disappointed spectators started to leave.

A led **B** neared **C** approached **D** drew

54. I don't remember ..... the front door when I left home this morning.

A to lock **B** locking **C** locked **D** to have locked

55. I ..... to other people borrowing my books: they always forget to return them.

A disagree **B** avoid **C** dislike **D** object

56. Andrew's attempts to get into the swimming team have not ..... with much success.

A associated **B** concluded **C** joined **D** met

57. Although Harry had obviously read the newspaper article carefully, he didn't seem to have ..... the main point.

A grasped **B** clutched **C** clasped **D** gripped

58. A lot of the views put forward in the documentary were open to ..... .

A enquiry **B** query **C** question **D** wonder

59. The new college ..... for the needs of students with a variety of learning backgrounds.

A deals **B** supplies **C** furnishes **D** caters

60. I find the times of English meals very strange – I'm not used ..... dinner at 6pm.

A to have **B** to having **C** having **D** have

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APPENDIX C
RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS IN ENGLISH AND THAI

Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire

(Chan et al., 2002)

This questionnaire is developed by Chan et al. (2002) to explore the roles of learners and teachers in language learning.

Section 1: Responsibilities
When you're taking English classes at your university, whose responsibility should it be to:

	Not at all	A little	Some	Mainly	Completely
1. make sure you make your progress during lesson? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
2. make sure you make your progress outside class? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
3. stimulate your interest in learning English? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
4. identify your weaknesses in English? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
5. make you work harder? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
6. decide the objectives of your English course? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
7. decide what you should learn next in your English lessons? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
8. choose what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
9. decide how long to spend on each activity? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					

Section 1: Responsibilities

When you're taking English classes at your university, whose responsibility should it be to:

	Not at all	A little	Some	Mainly	Completely
10. choose what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
11. evaluate your learning? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
12. evaluate your course? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					
13. decide what you learn outside class? a. Yours b. Your teacher's					

Section 2: Abilities

If you have the opportunities how good do you think you would be at:

	Very poor	Poor	OK	Good	Very Good
14. choosing learning activities in class?					
15. choosing learning activities outside class?					
16. choosing learning objectives in class?					
17. choosing learning objectives outside class?					
18. choosing learning materials in class?					
19. choosing learning materials outside class?					
20. evaluating your learning?					
21. evaluating your course?					
22. identifying your weaknesses in English?					
23. deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons?					
24. deciding how long to spend on each activity?					

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Section 3: Motivation

	Highly motivated	Well motivated	motivated	Slightly motivated	Not at all motivated
25. How would you describe yourself?					

Section 4: Activities

In this last academic year, how often have you:

Outside class

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
26. read grammar books on your own?				
27. done assignments which are not compulsory?				
28. noted down new words and their meaning?				
29. written English letters to penpals?				
30. read English notices around you?				
31. read newspapers in English?				
32. sent e-mail in English?				
33. read books or magazines in English?				
34. watched English TV programs?				
35. listened to English radio?				
36. listened to English songs?				
37. talked to foreigners in English?				
38. practiced using English with friends?				
39. done English self-study in a group?				
40. done grammar exercises?				
41. watched English movies?				
42. written a diary in English?				
43. used the Internet in English?				
44. done revision not required by the teacher?				
45. attended a self-study center (e.g. CILL)?				
46. collected texts in English (e.g. articles, brochures, labels etc.)?				
47. gone to see your teacher about your work?				

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Section 4: Activities

In this last academic year, how often have you:

Inside class

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
48. asked the teacher questions when they don't understand?				
49. noted down new information?				
50. made suggestions to the teacher?				
51. taken opportunities to speak in English?				
52. discussed learning problems with classmates?				

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Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL version 7.0 for ESL/EFL)
Oxford (1990)

The questionnaire includes 50 items. Each statement of the questionnaire represents how you actually perform in your English learning through five scales as follows:

5=Always or almost always used
4=Usually used
3=Sometimes used
2=Generally not used
1=Never or almost never used

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning	**Always or almost always used (5)**	**Usually used (4)**	**Sometimes used (3)**	**Generally not used (2)**	**Never or almost never used (1)**
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.					
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.					
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
7. I physically act out new English words.					
8. I review English lessons often.					
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.					
10. I say or write new English words several times.					
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.					
12. I practice the sounds of English.					
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.					

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning	Always or almost always used (5)	Usually used (4)	Sometimes used (3)	Generally not used (2)	Never or almost never used (1)
14. I start conversations in English.					
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.					
16. I read for pleasure in English.					
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.					
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.					
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.					
20. I try to find patterns in English.					
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.					
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.					
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.					
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.					
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					
27. I read English without looking up every new word.					
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.					
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.					
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.					
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.					
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.					
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.					

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning	**Always or almost always used (5)**	**Usually used (4)**	**Sometimes used (3)**	**Generally not used (2)**	**Never or almost never used (1)**
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.					
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.					
38. I think about my progress in learning English.					
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.					
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.					
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.					
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.					
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.					
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.					
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.					
47. I practice English with other students.					
48. I ask for help from English speakers.					
49. I ask questions in English.					
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.					

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แบบสอบถาม

เรื่อง ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองและกลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาของนักศึกษาประกาศนียบัตรบัณฑิตวิชาชีพครู

โปรดทำเครื่องหมายกากบาท (✕) ลงบนตัวเลขที่ตรงกับสภาพความเป็นจริงของท่านในปัจจุบัน

<u>ส่วนที่ 1</u>: ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

ชื่อ _____ สาขาวิชา/คณะ _____

อายุ _____ ปี เพศ _____ Email_____

<u>ส่วนที่ 2</u>: บทบาทของผู้เรียนในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษด้วยตนเอง

ระดับ: ① = น้อยที่สุด/ ไม่เคยเลย ② = น้อย ③ = ปานกลาง ④ = มาก ⑤ = มากที่สุด

ท่านปฏิบัติตามข้อความต่อไปนี้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษด้วยตนเอง <u>มากน้อย</u>เพียงใด	**ระดับ**
ท่านกำหนด:	
1. วัตถุประสงค์ในการเรียน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
2. สิ่งที่ควรจะเรียนในครั้งต่อไป	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
3. ระยะเวลาในการทำแต่ละกิจกรรม	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
4. สิ่งที่จะเรียนนอกห้องเรียน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ท่านมั่นใจว่าตนเองมีพัฒนาการ:	
5. การเรียนรู้ระหว่างบทเรียน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
6. การเรียนรู้นอกห้องเรียน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
7. ท่านประเมินการเรียนรู้ของตัวท่านเอง	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
8. ท่านประเมินรายวิชาที่ท่านเลือกศึกษา	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
9. ท่านได้รับแรงผลักดันให้มีความสนใจในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
10. ท่านเห็นจุดด้อยของท่านด้านการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
11. ท่านตั้งใจเรียนมากขึ้น	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
12. ท่านเลือกสื่อการเรียนรู้เพื่อนำมาใช้ในบทเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
13. ท่านมีแรงจูงใจในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ท่านปฏิบัติตามข้อความต่อไปนี้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษด้วยตนเอง <u>ได้ดี</u>เพียงใด	**ระดับ**
ท่านสามารถ:	
14. ประเมินการเรียนรู้ของตนเองได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
15. ประเมินการเรียนรู้ในรายวิชาที่ศึกษาได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

ท่านปฏิบัติตามข้อความต่อไปนี้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษด้วยตนเอง <u>ได้ดี</u>เพียงใด	**ระดับ**
ท่านสามารถ:	
16. บอกข้อด้อยของตัวเองในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
17. ตัดสินใจสิ่งที่ควรจะเรียนในบทเรียนครั้งต่อไปได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
18. ตัดสินใจระยะเวลาในการทำแต่ละกิจกรรรมได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ท่านเลือก:	
19. กิจกรรมการเรียนรู้ในห้องเรียนได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
20. กิจกรรมการเรียนรู้นอกห้องเรียนได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
21. วัตถุประสงค์การเรียนรู้นอกห้องเรียนได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
22. อุปกรณ์และสื่อการเรียนรู้ในห้องเรียนได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
23. อุปกรณ์และสื่อการเรียนรู้นอกห้องเรียนได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ท่านทำกิจกรรมต่อไปนี้ <u>บ่อยมากน้อย</u>เพียงใด	**ระดับ**
24. ท่านอ่านหนังสือไวยากรณ์ด้วยตัวเอง	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
25. ท่านทำงานที่ได้รับมอบหมายโดยไม่ต้องถูกบังคับ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
26. ท่านจดคำศัพท์ใหม่ๆพร้อมด้วยความหมาย	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
27. ท่านเขียนจดหมายหาเพื่อนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
28. ท่านอ่านประกาศภาษาอังกฤษรอบๆตัว	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
29. ท่านอ่านหนังสือพิมพ์ภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
30. ท่านส่งจดหมายอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ (E-Mail) ภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

ท่านทำกิจกรรมต่อไปนี้ บ่อยมากน้อยเพียงใด	ระดับ	ท่านทำกิจกรรมต่อไปนี้ บ่อยมากน้อยเพียงใด	ระดับ
31. ท่านอ่านหนังสือหรือนิตยสารภาษาอังกฤษ...	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	41. ท่านใช้อินเตอร์เน็ตโดยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
32. ท่านดูรายการทีวีภาคภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	42. ท่านตรวจสอบแก้ไขงานเพิ่มเติมด้วยตัวเอง...	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
33. ท่านฟังวิทยุภาคภาษาอังกฤษ.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	43. ท่านเข้าร่วมศูนย์การเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเอง	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
34. ท่านฟังเพลงภาษาอังกฤษ.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	44. ท่านรวบรวมสื่อการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ	
35. ท่านสนทนากับชาวต่างชาติเป็น		เช่น บทความ, แผ่นพับโฆษณา, ป้าย เป็นต้น	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ภาษาอังกฤษ…….....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	45. ท่านเข้าพบอาจารย์เพื่อปรึกษาเรื่องงาน.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
36. ท่านฝึกใช้ภาษาอังกฤษกับเพื่อน……..	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	46. ท่านถามคำถามกับอาจารย์เมื่อท่านไม่เข้าใจ ..	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
37. ท่านทำกิจกรรมในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ		47. ท่านจดบันทึกข้อมูลใหม่ๆ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ด้วยตัวเองเป็นกลุ่ม	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	48. ท่านให้คำเสนอแนะกับอาจารย์.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
38. ท่านทำแบบฝึกหัดเกี่ยวกับไวยากรณ์.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	49. ท่านมีโอกาสในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
39. ท่านดูภาพยนตร์พากษ์ภาษาอังกฤษ.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	50. ท่านปรึกษาปัญหาในด้านการเรียนกับ	
40. ท่านเขียนบันทึกประจำวันเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ..	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	เพื่อนร่วมชั้น…….....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

<u>ส่วนที่ 3</u>: กลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ

ระดับการใช้: ① = ใช้น้อยที่สุดถึงไม่เคยใช้เลย ② = ใช้น้อย ③ = ใช้ปานกลาง
④ = ใช้มาก ⑤ = ใช้มากที่สุด

กลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ	ระดับการใช้	กลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ	ระดับการใช้
1. ท่านคิดเชื่อมโยงความสัมพันธ์ระหว่าง		10. ท่านพูดหรือเขียนคำใหม่ๆในภาษาอังกฤษ	
สิ่งที่เรียนรู้มาแล้วกับสิ่งที่เรียนรู้ใหม่.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	ซ้ำแล้วซ้ำอีกหลายๆครั้ง.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
2. ท่านนำเอาคำใหม่ๆในภาษาอังกฤษใช้		11. ท่านพยายามพูดให้มีสำเนียงใกล้เคียงกับ	
ในประโยค เพื่อให้จำได้ดียิ่งขึ้น.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	เจ้าของภาษา.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
3. ท่านเชื่อมโยงเสียงของคำใหม่ในภาษาอังกฤษ		12. ท่านฝึกฝนการออกเสียงภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
กับภาพ (image or picture)ของคำนั้น		13. ท่านใช้คำศัพท์ในภาษาอังกฤษที่ท่านรู้ใน	
เพื่อช่วยให้จำได้.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	สถานการณ์ที่แตกต่างกันออกไป เช่น	
4. ท่านจดจำคำใหม่ โดยการคิดถึงภาพของ		ใช้ในการพูดหรือใช้ในการเขียน.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
เหตุการณ์ซึ่งคำเหล่านั้นอาจจะถูกใช้.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	14. ท่านเริ่มต้นบทสนทนากับผู้อื่นโดยใช้	
5. ท่านใช้คำพ้องเสียงเพื่อช่วยในการจำคำใหม่		ภาษาอังกฤษ.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ในภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	15. ท่านดูรายการโทรทัศน์หรือภาพยนตร์	
6. ท่านใช้บัตรคำซึ่งด้านหนึ่งของบัตรเป็นคำศัพท์		ภาคภาษาอังกฤษ.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ส่วนอีกด้านหนึ่งเป็นคำแปล (flashcard)		16. ท่านอ่านสิ่งพิมพ์ภาษาอังกฤษต่างๆที่ทำให้	
เพื่อช่วยในการจำคำใหม่ในภาษาอังกฤษ….....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	ท่านเพลิดเพลิน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
7. ท่านแสดงท่าทางประกอบ เพื่อช่วยในการจำ		17. ท่านใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการจดโน้ต, ข้อความ,	
คำใหม่ในภาษาอังกฤษ เช่น drink = ดื่ม		จดหมาย หรือรายงาน.....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ท่านจึงทำท่าทางดื่มน้ำไปด้วย…….....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	18. ท่านอ่านบทความต่างๆที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ	
8. ท่านทบทวนบทเรียนภาษาอังกฤษบ่อยๆ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	โดยอ่านแบบผ่านๆในครั้งแรกเพื่อหาใจความ	
9. ท่านจดจำคำหรือวลีใหม่ๆ ในภาษาอังกฤษ		สำคัญ และกลับมาอ่านทบทวนอีกครั้งอย่าง	
โดยการจำว่าคำเหล่านั้นอยู่หน้าใดของหนังสือ,		ละเอียด…….....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
ส่วนใดของกระดาน หรือตามป้ายต่างๆบน		19. ท่านค้นหาคำในภาษาไทยที่มีความหมาย	
ท้องถนน…….....	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	ใกล้เคียงกับคำศัพท์ใหม่ในภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

กลยุทธ์ที่ใช้ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ	ระดับการใช้
20. ท่านศึกษารูปแบบการเรียงประโยคในภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อนำไปใช้ได้อย่างถูกต้อง	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
21. ท่านหาความหมายของคำในภาษาอังกฤษโดยการแบ่งคำนั้นๆออกเป็นส่วนๆ เพื่อให้เกิดความเข้าใจ เช่น แบ่งตามรากศัพท์	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
22. ท่านหลีกเลี่ยงการแปลภาษาอังกฤษแบบคำต่อคำ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
23. ท่านทำสรุปข้อมูลต่างๆที่ท่านได้ฟังหรืออ่านเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
24. ท่านใช้วิธีการเดา เพื่อให้เข้าใจคำในภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่คุ้นเคย	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
25. ท่านใช้ท่าทางประกอบระหว่างการสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ เมื่อท่านนึกคำภาษาอังกฤษไม่ออก	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
26. ท่านใช้คำอื่นแทน เมื่อท่านไม่รู้คำที่ถูกต้องในภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
27. ท่านอ่านภาษาอังกฤษ โดยไม่ต้องค้นหาคำใหม่ทุกคำ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
28. ท่านพยายามเดาหรือคาดการณ์เป็นภาษาอังกฤษว่าผู้สนทนาชาวต่างชาติจะพูดอะไรต่อไป	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
29. ถ้าท่านไม่สามารถคิดถึงคำในภาษาอังกฤษได้ ท่านจะใช้คำหรือวลีที่มีความหมายเหมือนหรือใกล้เคียงกับคำที่ท่านต้องการ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
30. ท่านพยายามหาวิธีการต่างๆเท่าที่ท่านจะทำได้เพื่อได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
31. ท่านสังเกตข้อผิดพลาดต่างๆในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ และใช้ข้อผิดพลาดเหล่านั้นเป็นบทเรียน เพื่อช่วยให้ท่านเรียนได้ดีขึ้น	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
32. ท่านให้ความสนใจ เมื่อมีใครก็ตามพูดภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
33. ท่านพยายามที่จะหาวิธีการที่จะทำให้ท่านเรียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีขึ้น	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
34. ท่านจัดตารางเวลา เพื่อให้มีเวลาเพียงพอที่จะศึกษาภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
35. ท่านมองหาคนที่ท่านสามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับเขาได้	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
36. ท่านหาโอกาสที่จะอ่านภาษาอังกฤษให้ได้มากที่สุดเท่าที่จะทำได้	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
37. ท่านมีเป้าหมายชัดเจนในการปรับปรุงทักษะภาษาอังกฤษของท่าน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
38. ท่านคาดหวังในความก้าวหน้า/การพัฒนาในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของท่าน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
39. ท่านพยายามผ่อนคลาย เมื่อรู้สึกกลัวที่จะต้องใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
40. ท่านให้กำลังใจตนเอง เมื่อต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษ แม้ว่าในใจจะกลัวความผิดพลาด	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
41. ท่านให้รางวัลกับตนเองเมื่อใช้ภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
42. ท่านพบว่าตัวเองเป็นกังวลหรือเครียดในขณะที่กำลังเรียนหรือใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
43. ท่านเขียนบรรยายความรู้สึกของท่านเป็นภาษาอังกฤษในสมุดบันทึกประจำวัน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
44. ท่านพูดคุยกับผู้อื่นถึงความรู้สึกของท่านในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
45. ท่านขอร้องให้ผู้พูดพูดช้าลงหรือพูดซ้ำถ้าท่านไม่เข้าใจภาษาอังกฤษที่เขาพูดอยู่ในขณะนั้น	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
46. ท่านขอให้ผู้ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษช่วยแก้ไขภาษาอังกฤษของท่าน เมื่อท่านพูดผิด	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
47. ท่านฝึกฝนภาษาอังกฤษกับเพื่อนนักศึกษาคนอื่นๆ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
48. ท่านขอความช่วยเหลือจากอาจารย์/ เพื่อนนักศึกษาต่างชาติในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
49. ท่านมักจะถามคำถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษกับผู้ที่อยู่ในแวดวงเดียวกับท่าน	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
50. ท่านพยายามศึกษาวัฒนธรรมของคนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาประจำชาติ	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

ท่านยินดีที่จะเข้าร่วมให้สัมภาษณ์ เพื่อให้ข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมกับผู้วิจัย

☐ ใช่ ☐ ไม่

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หมายเลขโทรศัพท์ติดต่อ …….. Email: ……

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS ON AUTONOMOUS LEARNERS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Question 1: How do you feel about autonomous learning?

Question 2: What language learning strategies will help you in your autonomous language learning?

Question 3: What factors do you think can promote autonomous language learning?

- Your own responsibility
- Your own decision-making abilities
- Your motivation
- The activities you undertake inside and outside the classroom

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คำถามที่ใช้ในการสัมภาษณ์ (แปลไทย)

1. ท่านรับรู้ถึงการเป็นผู้เรียนที่เรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองอย่างไร?
2. กลยุทธ์ในการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษอะไรบ้างที่จะช่วยส่งเสริมการเรียนรู้ภาษาด้วยตนเอง?
3. ปัจจัยใดบ้างที่ท่านคิดว่าสามารถนำมาช่วยส่งเสริมการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษด้วยตนเอง?
   - หน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบของท่าน
   - ความสามารถในการตัดสินใจของท่าน
   - แรงจูงใจของท่าน
   - กิจกรรมที่ท่านเข้าร่วมทั้งในและนอกห้องเรียน

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APPENDIX E
A SAMPLE OF TRANSCRIPTIONS

Tape Script A

Subject Reference (Interviewee): **A** Interview Date: August 18, 2012

Time: 13 minutes Place: The graduate studies building

Interviewer: Do you like English?

Interviewee A: Yes, I like to learn English.

Interviewer: Why do you like it?

Interviewee A: Actually, I think it is useful, especially for my work.

Interviewer: How do you use English in your work?

Interviewee A: It is used in my work because I am a lecturer, and it is useful for going abroad.

Interviewer: How often do you use English?

Interviewee A: I usually use it because I am a lecturer.

Interviewer: What subjects do you teach your students?

Interviewee A: I teach about Energy system, so I have to use vocabulary such as 'solar cell', 'wind', and 'turbine'. I would like to use it for helping students familiar with words in the subject and understanding the meaning of words also.

Interviewer: What skills do you mostly use in English?

Interviewee A: I usually practice reading skill because I have to read papers and translate it.

Interviewer: Have you participated in any activities to improve your English?

Interviewee A: Not yet. Anyway, I would like to improve my English by studying in a language institute.

Interviewer: How do you practice yourself to be an autonomous learner?

Interviewee A: I mostly learn by myself by downloading mobile applications to practice vocabulary and grammar.

Interviewer: What about the others?

Interviewee A: Also, I practice English by reading papers.

Interviewer: What do you think about learner autonomy?

Interviewee A: I think it is important. Anyway, I do not have time to practice myself, so now I do not practice my English.

Interviewer: So do you have any plans to improve your English?

Interviewee A: I plan to study English in the future at a language institute at Central Pinklao because I have to pursue a Ph.D.

Interviewer: How do you plan to practice your English more? Why?

Interviewee A: I would like to take an extra course to gain more knowledge on how to use it for my study and real life communication because I have to prepare myself for teaching in the upcoming AEC in the year 2015 also.

Interviewer: How do you cope with the problems in studying English?

Interviewee A: If I see a word whose meaning I don't know, I look for the meaning on Google and use context clues. Also, I always look for the meaning of unknown words by using a dictionary.

Interviewer: How do you feel when you have to use English?

Interviewee A: I feel nervous. In that situation, I have vocabulary in my mind, but it seems it is running in my head. It is difficult to express in sentences. Anyway, I joined a conference at Karnchanaburi lately, and I have to use English. I could read from the memo and understood the concept of my work, so I did not worry when using it at that time.

Interviewer: How to solve the problem?

Interviewee A: I think I should take a course to improve my English.

Interviewer: How do you expect from the course taken?

Interviewee A: If I take an English course, I will certainly be successful in learning.

Interviewer: How do you practice your English more in daily life except taking an extra course?

Interviewee A: I usually listen to 105.5 FM radio and watch English movies in the original version. Sometimes I try to speak English with my girlfriend. I can speak with her in English, while she cannot talk to me in English, anyway.

Interviewer: How do you think about learner autonomy especially learning English?

Interviewee A: I would like to give you one example in this point. Taxi drivers in Pattaya can practice English because they have to communicate with foreigners every day.

Interviewer: So do you mean it depends on practicing in daily life?

Interviewee A: Yes.

Interviewer: OK. Thank you for your cooperation.

Interviewee A: You're welcome.

……

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APPENDIX F

LETTERS OF CONSENT

Letters of consent for using the Autonomous Language Learning Questionnaire

จาก: Niramon Rattanasongkhroh <iam.niramon@gmail.com>
ถึง: ecchan@polyu.edu.hk
วันที่: 25 เมษายน 2555, 01:03
เรื่อง: Asking for permission for using your questionnaire
ส่งโดย: gmail.com

Dear, Professor Victoria Chan

I am a master's student in the Applied Linguistics Program, faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Thailand. I am undertaking my thesis on the topic of "The relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategy use". This research aims to examine the relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategy use by a group of students in a Thai university. I would like to investigate student readiness for autonomous language learning and the language strategy they use. To what extent the relationship between their readiness to be autonomous learners and the language strategy use are examined, so I would like to employ your questionnaire on the topic of "Autonomous Language Learning: Hong Kong Tertiary Students' Attitudes and Behaviors" developed in 2002 as the research instrument. Thus, I wonder if you could please allow me to use the questionnaire.

Looking forward to your reply.

Thank you very much for your kindness in advance.

Sincerely yours,

Niramon Rattanasongkhroh

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จาก: Victoria Chan <ecchan@polyu.edu.hk>
ถึง: Niramon Rattanasongkhroh <iam.niramon@gmail.com>
วันที่: 27 เมษายน 2555, 18:47
เรื่อง: Re: Asking for permission for using your questionnaire
ส่งโดย: polyu.edu.hk
: สำคัญโดยมีเหตุผลหลักคือคุณมีการโต้ตอบกับข้อความในการสนทนา

Hi Niramon,

Thank you for your interest in the research and do feel free to use/ adapt the questionnaire in ways that suit your context best.

In fact, over the years since the project was done and the paper was published, we've got numerous requests from all over the world for permission to use the questionnaire. That's most encouraging to the research team.

I hope all goes well with your research and if you like, do update me with your findings in future.

Regards,

Victoria Chan,
Lecturer,
English Language Centre,
Hong Kong Polytechnic University,
Hong Kong SAR.

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Letters of consent for using the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL version 7.0 translated in Thai)

จาก: Niramon Rattanasongkhroh <iam.niramon@gmail.com>
ถึง: panicha.nitisakunwut@gmail.com
วันที่: 6 พฤษภาคม 2555, 14:27
เรื่อง: Asking for permission for your SILL in Thai version
ส่งโดย: gmail.com

Dear Khun Panicha Nitisakunwut,

I am a master's student in the Applied Linguistics Program, faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Thailand. I am undertaking my thesis on the topic of "The relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies employed by high and low English proficiency students". This research aims to examine the relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategy use of a group of students in a Thai university. I would like to investigate student readiness for autonomous language learning and the language strategy they use. To what extent the relationship between their readiness to be autonomous learners and the language strategy use are examined, so I would like to use your SILL (version 7.0), that you translated into Thai in 2003, to explore what language learning strategies students employ as the research instrument. Thus, I would like to ask for your permission to use your SILL translated in Thai in my study.

Looking forward to your reply.

Thank you very much for your kindness in advance.

Sincerely yours,

Niramon Rattanasongkhroh

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จาก: panicha nitisakunwut <panicha.nitisakunwut@gmail.com>
ถึง: Niramon Rattanasongkhroh <iam.niramon@gmail.com>
วันที่: 21 พฤษภาคม 2555, 19:22
เรื่อง: Re: Asking for permission for your SILL in Thai version
ส่งโดย: gmail.com
ลงชื่อโดย: gmail.com
: **สำคัญโดยมีเหตุผลหลักคือคุณมีการโต้ตอบกับข้อความในการสนทนา**

Dear Niramon Rattanasongkhroh,

You have my permission to use it. Good luck

Best wishes,

Panicha N.

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Letters of consent for using the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL version 7.0)

จาก: Niramon Rattanasongkhroh <iam.niramon@gmail.com>
ถึง: rebecca.oxford@maxwell.af.mil
วันที่: 18 กรกฎาคม 2555, 10:36
เรื่อง: Asking for your permission to use the ESL/EFL SILL version 7.0
ส่งโดย: gmail.com

Dear Professor Oxford,

I am a master's student in the Applied Linguistics Program, faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Thailand. I am undertaking my thesis on the topic of "The relationship between autonomous learners and language learning strategies employed by students in a graduate diploma program in teaching profession". This research aims to examine the relationship between autonomous learners and six language learning strategies used by a group of students in a Thai university. Also, I would like to explore language learning strategies of high and low English proficiency students in the graduate diploma program in teaching profession, so I would like to use your SILL (version 7.0), that you developed in 1990, to explore what language learning strategies they employ as the research instrument. As these reasons, I would like to ask for your permission to use the ESL/EFL SILL version 7.0 in my intended research.

Looking forward to your reply.

Thank you very much for your kindness in advance.

Sincerely yours,

Niramon Rattanasongkhroh

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จาก: OXFORD, REBECCA L AD-24 USAF AETC Spaatz Center/CLC <rebecca.oxford@us.af.mil>
ถึง: Niramon Rattanasongkhroh <iam.niramon@gmail.com>
วันที่: 24 กรกฎาคม 2555, 02:28
เรื่อง: RE: Asking for your permission to use the ESL/EFL SILL version 7.0
ส่งโดย: us.af.mil
: สำคัญโดยมีเหตุผลหลักคือคุณมีการโต้ตอบกับข้อความในการสนทนา

Dear Niramon,

You have my permission to use the SILL in your planned research. I wish you all the best!

Warm wishes,

Dr. Oxford

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APPENDIX G
RESULTS OF CORRELATIONS
USING SPEARMAN RHO AND PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT

Independent Variables

Autonomous Learners	AL
Responsibilities	RESPON
Decision-making Abilities	ABILI
Motivation	MOTIV
Activities Engaged inside and outside Classes	ACTIV

Dependent Variables

Language Learning Strategies	LLS
Memory Strategies	MEMO
Cognitive Strategies	COG
Compensation Strategies	COMPEN
Metacognitive Strategies	METACOG
Affective Strategies	AFFECT
Social Strategies	SOCIAL

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Calculation of Spearman Rho Correlation for the Relationship between Autonomous Learners and Language Learning Strategies (N = 67)

			MEMO	COG	COMPEN	METACOG	AFFECT	SOCIAL	RESPON	ABILI	MOTIV	ACTIV
Spearman's rho	MEMO	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.876(**)	.748(**)	.711(**)	.587(**)	.726(**)	.667(**)	.668(**)	.591(**)	.834(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	COG	Correlation Coefficient	.876(**)	1.000	.753(**)	.770(**)	.642(**)	.757(**)	.674(**)	.691(**)	.644(**)	.893(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	COMPEN	Correlation Coefficient	.748(**)	.753(**)	1.000	.609(**)	.509(**)	.556(**)	.580(**)	.577(**)	.561(**)	.690(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	METACOG	Correlation Coefficient	.711(**)	.770(**)	.609(**)	1.000	.677(**)	.835(**)	.610(**)	.645(**)	.700(**)	.742(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	AFFECT	Correlation Coefficient	.587(**)	.642(**)	.509(**)	.677(**)	1.000	.778(**)	.590(**)	.653(**)	.604(**)	.689(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	SOCIAL	Correlation Coefficient	.726(**)	.757(**)	.556(**)	.835(**)	.778(**)	1.000	.629(**)	.674(**)	.715(**)	.815(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	RESPON	Correlation Coefficient	.667(**)	.674(**)	.580(**)	.610(**)	.590(**)	.629(**)	1.000	.868(**)	.740(**)	.726(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	ABILI	Correlation Coefficient	.668(**)	.691(**)	.577(**)	.645(**)	.653(**)	.674(**)	.868(**)	1.000	.680(**)	.744(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	MOTIV	Correlation Coefficient	.591(**)	.644(**)	.561(**)	.700(**)	.604(**)	.715(**)	.740(**)	.680(**)	1.000	.700(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
	ACTIV	Correlation Coefficient	.834(**)	.893(**)	.690(**)	.742(**)	.689(**)	.815(**)	.726(**)	.744(**)	.700(**)	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
		N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Calculation of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation for the Relationship between Autonomous Learners and Language Learning Strategies (N = 67)

		MEMO	COG	COMPEN	METACOG	AFFECT	SOCIAL	RESPON	ABILI	MOTIV	ACTIV
MEMO	Pearson Correlation	1	.883(**)	.755(**)	.721(**)	.588(**)	.710(**)	.667(**)	.660(**)	.592(**)	.823(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
COG	Pearson Correlation	.883(**)	1	.763(**)	.797(**)	.641(**)	.746(**)	.642(**)	.668(**)	.622(**)	.881(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
COMPEN	Pearson Correlation	.755(**)	.763(**)	1	.677(**)	.545(**)	.594(**)	.604(**)	.615(**)	.559(**)	.711(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
METACOG	Pearson Correlation	.721(**)	.797(**)	.677(**)	1	.704(**)	.832(**)	.659(**)	.695(**)	.694(**)	.745(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
AFFECT	Pearson Correlation	.588(**)	.641(**)	.545(**)	.704(**)	1	.832(**)	.607(**)	.649(**)	.629(**)	.701(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
SOCIAL	Pearson Correlation	.710(**)	.746(**)	.594(**)	.832(**)	.832(**)	1	.635(**)	.689(**)	.694(**)	.795(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
RESPON	Pearson Correlation	.667(**)	.642(**)	.604(**)	.659(**)	.607(**)	.635(**)	1	.865(**)	.747(**)	.730(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
ABILI	Pearson Correlation	.660(**)	.668(**)	.615(**)	.695(**)	.649(**)	.689(**)	.865(**)	1	.671(**)	.760(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
MOTIV	Pearson Correlation	.592(**)	.622(**)	.559(**)	.694(**)	.629(**)	.694(**)	.747(**)	.671(**)	1	.691(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67
ACTIV	Pearson Correlation	.823(**)	.881(**)	.711(**)	.745(**)	.701(**)	.795(**)	.730(**)	.760(**)	.691(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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