

# Autonomy in Thai Universities: English Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

**Author:**

Na Chiangmai, Siriwimon

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**Autonomy in Thai Universities:  
English Teachers' Beliefs and Practices**

**Siriwimon Na Chiangmai**

**A thesis in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy**

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Other name/s:

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Motivation is an important area of knowledge and ability for teachers of English in Thai universities. This thesis addresses the concern that in many English classrooms in Thailand, students' motivation is not optimal, despite the importance of the subject and the education policy requiring teachers to support student autonomy. A mixed methods study was undertaken drawing on the theoretical framework of self-determination theory. Three phases of research explored the dynamic relationship between teachers' beliefs about motivation and autonomy, the strategies they used in their classrooms, and their students' perceptions. First, a questionnaire was used to gather data about teachers' personal backgrounds as well as their beliefs about autonomy and teaching practices in the Thai university context. Then, interviews were used to gather more in-depth data from nine autonomy-supportive teachers in different locations. Interview participants were then targeted for classroom observations to gain a deeper understanding of the teachers' practices in relation to their beliefs about autonomy and the perceptions of their students as provided through an open-ended questionnaire.

The findings revealed that teachers' understandings about the nature of autonomy were usually aligned with the idea of independence, and they believed that independent learning was the goal of a student-centred approach to teaching. Not only their beliefs about autonomy but also their beliefs about student motivation, their teaching goals, their prior learning experiences, and their autonomy influenced their actual teaching practices. Furthermore, the study found that the curriculum itself was the main constraint in the implementation of teaching practices they believed were effective. Viewed in the context of motivation literature in cross-cultural educational settings, the findings suggest that students could potentially be more motivated and engaged in the classrooms. The findings of this study offer teachers and university administrators new insights into learner autonomy and motivation as well as the opportunity to more effectively influence English language education in Thailand.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Motivation is an important area of knowledge and ability for teachers of English in Thai universities. This thesis addresses the concern that in many English classrooms in Thailand, students' motivation is not optimal, despite the importance of the subject and the education policy requiring teachers to support student autonomy. A mixed methods study was undertaken drawing on the theoretical framework of self-determination theory. Three phases of research explored the dynamic relationship between teachers' beliefs about motivation and autonomy, the strategies they used in their classrooms, and their students' perceptions. First, a questionnaire was used to gather data about teachers' personal backgrounds as well as their beliefs about autonomy and teaching practices in the Thai university context. Then, interviews were used to gather more in-depth data from nine autonomy-supportive teachers in different locations. Interview participants were then targeted for classroom observations to gain a deeper understanding of the teachers' practices in relation to their beliefs about autonomy and the perceptions of their students as provided through an open-ended questionnaire.

The findings revealed that teachers' understandings about the nature of autonomy were usually aligned with the idea of independence, and they believed that independent learning was the goal of a student-centred approach to teaching. Not only their beliefs about autonomy but also their beliefs about student motivation, their teaching goals, their prior learning experiences, and their autonomy influenced their actual teaching practices. Furthermore, the study found that the curriculum itself was the main constraint in the implementation of teaching practices they believed were effective. Viewed in the context of motivation literature in cross-cultural educational settings, the findings suggest that students could potentially be more motivated and engaged in the classrooms. The findings of this study offer teachers and university administrators new insights into learner autonomy and motivation as well as the opportunity to more effectively influence English language education in Thailand.

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# 1. INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background to the study

In an era of globalization, English has become the international language for communication, education and employment. English therefore has a significant role in Thailand, since the nation's economic progress depends on cooperation with regional and international countries. Many Thai jobs require that applicants be fluent in English. Thus, knowledge of English as a second language is very important for Thai people. English is considered to be the first foreign language that Thai learners must learn (Wiriyachitra, 2002). According to the Sub-Committees on Learning Reform of the National Education Commission (2000), in the age of globalization, learners must have competencies in the use of more than one language. Learners must use the Thai language fluently and must also have communicative competence in a foreign language, English being the most important. Moreover, Thailand is one of 10 ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) 2015 countries, and for economic operation and investment English is the official working language (Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Secretariat, 2008). Thus, all Thai learners shall have a good command of at least two foreign languages: English and one language of neighbour countries such as Indonesian, Laos, and Vietnamese (Social Institute of Bureau of Academic Affairs and Educational Standards, 2011).

Motivation is a vital factor in learning. Learning English as a second or foreign language requires immense levels of motivation to sustain learning and attain competence. Motivation is the "process by which goal-directed behaviour is instigated and sustained" (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008, p. 4). Motivation is the internal process that gives behaviour its energy and direction, and consists of needs, cognitions (thoughts, beliefs) and emotions (Reeve, 1996). Motivation is a critical factor for achieving success in the acquisition of a second language (L2). According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), motivation is the most important characteristic of a second language learner in the learning task. Furthermore, motivation is a factor for differential success in learning a second language (Gass & Selinker, 1994). In other words, motivation is a predictor of English language learning success. Therefore, one of the main goals for successful L2 teaching is to sustain student motivation (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999).

Autonomy is also an important need in human motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Autonomy is "the freedom to choose and to have choices, rather than being forced or coerced to behave according to someone else's desire, [it] is a prerequisite to motivation" (Dörnyei, 2001a,



p. 103). The development of human motivation depends on how autonomy is enhanced or reduced from social context (Ryan & Deci, 2002). For example, autonomy is enhanced when teachers take their students' perspectives, provide explanatory rationales, use language that is not perceived as controlling, and help students to identify with their learning (Reeve, 2009). Autonomy is reduced when students are controlled by external events, such as rewards, threats of punishment, deadlines and evaluations. Reducing autonomy undermines motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002). In language education, the interaction between autonomy and motivation is vital. According to Benson (2006), autonomy has become increasingly important in language education since the early 1980s, and the significance of autonomy is now widely accepted (Smith, 2008).

In order to sustain and increase the motivation of English language learners, teachers play a crucial role, especially in cultivating learners' motivation. By supporting their autonomy, teachers help students to develop aspirations, achieve goals, and gain confidence (Dörnyei, 2001a). In research on motivation in language learning, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) argue that teacher behaviour is the most important motivational factor. The teacher is also involved with learner autonomy in the process of helping learners perceive greater control over their learning (Benson, 2001). The teacher is a facilitator of learning and a helper whose role is to foster learner autonomy (Voller & Benson, 1997). Since teachers play a significant role in fostering learner autonomy, it is worth understanding what they believe and know about autonomy and also how they foster students' autonomy in the classrooms, because teachers' beliefs are a great influence on teaching practices (Pajares, 1992). Teaching practices and behaviours create the classroom climate which affects students' autonomy and motivation (Reeve, 1996). This research therefore aims to explore English teachers' beliefs about autonomy, how teachers motivate and foster learner autonomy in the English language classrooms, and how teaching practices influence students' autonomy and motivation.

## **1.2 Context of study: Thailand**

Thailand has a population of sixty-three million people and is one of a large number of countries in Southeast Asia (Thiro et al., 2014). The country shares a border with four other countries: Myanmar and Laos in the north; Myanmar in the east; Laos and Cambodia in the west; and Malaysia in the south (Wongtes, 2000). Thailand is divided into four main regions: the northern mountainous region, the central plains region, the north-eastern plateau region; and the south coastal region (O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997). Across the four regions are 76 provinces and its capital city, Bangkok or '*Krung Thep*', has a population of seven and a half

million people (Thiro et al., 2014). The official national language of Thailand is *pasha Thai* (Wongtes, 2000). There are four main dialects of *pasha Thai* (Thai): Central Thai, Northern Thai, North-eastern Thai, and Southern Thai (O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997).

Thailand is based on three fundamentals; nation, religion and monarchy. Each fundamental is represented by a colour on the Thai national flag: red for nation; white for religion; and blue for monarchy (O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997). Thailand had never been colonised by a Western country and as a result its religion and monarchy have primarily been influenced by Indian cultural traditions (Thiro et al., 2014). The national religion is Buddhism, practised by 95% of Thai people (O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997). Buddhist principles are embedded in Thai people's lives and rituals; for example, monks give their blessing at weddings, housewarming ceremonies and religious ceremonies. Monks are held in high esteem and are respected among Thai people.

Thailand is a constitutional monarchy, with King Bhumipol Adulyadej (Rama IX) the longest-reigning living monarch since 1946 (Aphornsuvan, 2000; Thiro et al., 2014). The King is loved, admired, and respected by Thai people and is regarded as "the symbol of Thai culture, the patron and guardian of Buddhism and the unifying symbol of the nation" (O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997, p. 24).

### **1.2.1 Thai culture**

One important characteristic of Thai society is its hierarchical structure. *Power distance* refers to "the perceived level of dominance of one group over another" (O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997, p. 3). In Thai culture, high power distance is a characteristic of the hierarchical social relationship concerned with obligation (O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997). Thais will therefore defer to, obey, and pay respect to senior people. Examples of such hierarchical relationships include adults and children, bosses and workers, King and subjects, teachers and students. According to Thai hierarchy, the gesture to greet another person with respect is called *wai* and is performed by joining the palms together, lifting toward the chin and bowing (Thiro et al., 2014). Thai juniors must initially greet and pay respect to seniors by *wai* every time they meet. Seniority is important in Thai culture.

There are the two crucial obligations and rights associated with seniors and juniors in Thailand as shown in Figure 1.

	<b>Obligations</b>	<b>Rights</b>
<b>Seniors</b>	must guide and assist juniors, lead by example, be role models, protect the juniors' interests	can expect the juniors' help, loyalty, respect, and support
<b>Juniors</b>	must help, respect, support, and be loyal to seniors	can expect seniors to guide and assist them, show them the way, and look after their interest

Figure 1 Obligations and rights in Thai culture  
(O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997, p. 31)

*Kreng jai* (consideration) is a social practice in Thai culture whereby Thai people “show unusually high deference (*kreng jai*) towards those of senior status in all social relations” (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000a, p. 192). For example, when a parent says something wrong and a child knows that it is wrong he or she will keep silent and listen to the parent without correcting them because he feels '*kreng jai*'. Similarly, when a boss invites workers to his house for dinner the workers must accept his invitation and attend because they feel '*kreng jai*', even though they do not want to go. Furthermore, students show deference towards teachers by not asking questions, even when they do not understand the topic, because they feel '*kreng jai*' (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000b). In Thai culture, a good student is one who follows the rules set by the teacher (O'Sullivan & Tajaroensuk, 1997). However, this obedience results in a lack of active interaction and involvement between students and teachers (Khamkhien, 2010).

### 1.2.2 Recent change in education policy

One outcome of traditional Thai Language instruction is that Thai learners may not develop the necessary skills for self-learning, critical thinking, and creative problem solving (Chayarathee & Waugh, 2006). In response to this the Thai government recently started to pay more attention to the development of students' capacities for learning. In the Education Chapter of the 2007 Constitution of Thailand, the supreme law of Thailand, Section 49 shows that the government supports the right of people to be educated. In addition, it emphasises the importance of self-learning and lifelong learning processes by providing learning resources and centres to all citizens who want to learn:

A person shall enjoy an equal right to receive education for the duration of not less than twelve years which shall be provided by the State thoroughly, up to the quality, and without charge.

The provision of education by professional organizations or the private sector, alternative education by the people, self tuition and life-long learning shall be protected and promoted by the State as appropriate. (The Comparative Constitutions Project, 2007, p. 15)

In addition, the Office of the National Education Commission (ONEC), along with many scholars, researchers and teachers, initiated a change in the policy on instruction from a teacher-centred approach to a student-centred approach. Section 22, “Student-centred Approach” of “the 1999 National Education Act” primarily focuses on education policy in Thailand. It implies that all students have the ability to learn and the teaching-learning process should therefore focus mainly on the learner. In short, the main aim of the learning process is to develop a capacity for continuous self-learning:

Education shall be based on the principle that all learners are capable of learning and self-development, and are regarded as being most important. The teaching-learning process shall aim at enabling the learners to develop themselves at their own pace and to the best of their potentiality. (National Education Committee, 1999, p. 10)

In the 1999 National Education Act, the learning process through the student-centred approach refers to:

... the process that relates to identification of objectives, contents, activities, learning sources, instructional media and evaluation aimed at development of the “persons” and the enrichment of their “lives”. Learners should therefore be allowed learning experiences to their highest potential and in line with their aptitude, interests and needs. (National Education Committee, 2000, p. 24)

Student-centred classrooms are “those in which learners are actively involved in their own learning processes” (Nunan & Lamb, 1996, p. 9). In the curriculum, for this approach, including implementation, assessment is negotiated between teachers and students (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). Hence, the learning content and activities are mainly based on learners’ needs and

preferences (Tudor, 1993). In other words, teachers encourage students to be involved in their learning and provide students with choices about what to learn on the basis of their interests. Students in student-centred language classrooms not only learn the target language, but also how to contribute to the decision-making on the language learning process (Tudor, 1993). This approach is thus related to learner autonomy as it emphasises the importance of learner autonomy (Tudor, 1996). Hence, “student-centred learning gives students greater autonomy and control over choice of subject matter, learning methods and pace of study” (Gibbs, 1992, p. 23). Furthermore, the student-centred approach is a tool for promoting learner autonomy and motivation (Prapaisit de Segovia & Hardison, 2009; Pulist, 2001).

Indeed, the 1999 National Education Act recognised this and aimed to encourage Thai students to be autonomous learners for lifelong learning. The Ministry of Education also promoted the use of self-access learning in the curriculum policy of primary and secondary schools and various universities in Thailand (Kongchan & Darasawang, 2015). This will ultimately allow for self-directed learning beyond classroom environments. According to these two policies, it is clear that the goal of teaching, in relation to the learning process, is to foster learner autonomy and motivation, in order to develop the students’ self-learning skills.

### **1.2.3 Role of English teachers**

Teachers play a crucial role in the successful implementation of government education policies as they have to adapt from a teacher-centred approach to learning, to a student-centred approach: one where students are more involved, have more choice, and are more engaged. In English language instruction, the aim of the student-centred approach is to emphasise learners’ communicative competence and learner autonomy in the language classroom (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf Jr, & Moni, 2006). According to the section on foreign languages in the Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008, English is the core basic language and Thai students are expected to be able to communicate in English effectively (Basic Education Committee, 2008). As stated in the curriculum document:

Language for Communication: use of foreign languages in listening, speaking, reading and writing, exchanging data and information, expressing feelings and opinions, interpreting, presenting data, concepts and views on various matters, and creating interpersonal relationships appropriately. (Basic Education Committee, 2008, p. 267)

Furthermore, teachers are encouraged to focus on the practical applications of English and the use of assessments based on learners' performance, group work and discussion skills (Wongsothorn, Hiranburana, & Chinnawongs, 2002). Importantly, teachers are responsible for supporting the students in all activities and for providing an environment which motivates the students to learn (National Education Committee, 2000). Hence, it is a crucial responsibility for teachers to foster learner autonomy, stimulate communicative competence, and motivate students in the language classroom.

The Basic Education Curriculum 2001 and Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008 encourage use of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach in foreign language classrooms. British linguists first introduced the CLT approach during the mid-1960s. They proposed the theory of language as communication with the aim of replacing traditional methods of language learning instruction (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In other words, students must have knowledge of linguistic forms and their meaning, as well as knowledge of the functions for which language is used, in order to communicate with others outside the classroom. In the late 1970s and early 1980s there was a shift from the linguistic structure to the communicative approach (Widdowson, 1990). The goal of this approach was to focus on students' communicative competence in relation to linguistic and pragmatic aspects (H. D. Brown, 2007).

In a CLT classroom, the teacher's goal is to enable students to communicate in the target language fluently rather than accurately, with a view to facilitate lifelong language learning (H. D. Brown, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The teacher's role is to facilitate communication, establish real-world situations or contexts, promote communication, and provide authentic learning materials. There is therefore some overlap between CLT and autonomy-supportive teaching; that is, teachers provide students with opportunities to express their opinions and ideas or to choose their learning process (H. D. Brown, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards, 2006). This method aligns with the student-centred approach. Thus, teachers exercise less control than those using a teacher-centred approach. The student's role is as a communicator who learns and uses language through communicative activities (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Students are active, responsible for their learning and interact with both teachers and peers (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Use of this approach is now increasingly encouraged in Asian language classrooms (see Butler, 2011).

#### **1.2.4 Current English teaching in Thailand**

The 1999 National Education Act was adopted to change teaching methods in Thai education from a teacher-centred to a student-centred approach in order to foster learner autonomy and lifelong learning. In addition, English teachers are encouraged to use communicative language teaching. Even though the National Education Act has obliged teachers to adopt a student-centred approach for more than a decade, the implementation of the policy has been slow and has brought disappointment and frustration (Hallinger & Lee, 2011). Due to the fact that the current English curriculum is exam-oriented, teaching mostly involves the teacher giving lectures and describing the materials with the students memorising, listening to the teacher attentively and taking notes carefully in order to pass examinations (Danuwong, 2006). Assessment is mostly based on the use of multiple-choice exams (Prapphal, 2008), with those testing practices influencing teaching practices (Prapphal, 2008). As Tangkitvanich (2013) stated:

The curriculum focuses on testing student memory of what they are taught rather than their understanding of a subject...The current curriculum does not allow true learning to happen as teachers have to cover the detailed content set by the Ministry of Education first before they can turn to doing anything else. (p. 1)

Therefore, most English teaching methods are still teacher-centred, focusing on rote-learning, memorization, textbooks and the grammar-translation approach (Khamkhien, 2010; Mackenzie, 2005; Raktham, 2008). Teachers still focus on grammar, vocabulary, and reading skills (Suwanarak & Phothongsunan, 2008). They rarely focus on communicative speaking skills (Jaipetch, 2012; Khamkhien, 2010). They also mainly speak the Thai language in English classrooms (Jaipetch, 2012).

Although teachers are encouraged to apply a student-centred approach, this approach is perceived to impose on students a greater workload and many assignments outside the classroom, such as independent project work, critical reports and group work. Some students also mentioned that due to a lack of time, because of the workload, and consequent lack of understanding and a lack of self-study, they relied heavily on teachers or peers (Raktham, 2008). They said that they needed their teachers' supervision and help since their English competence is still low and they lack knowledge of self-learning (Raktham, 2008). As a result, teachers play the main role in the classroom. In addition, teachers revealed that it is difficult for them to follow a student-centred approach because of their limited time, workload, unfamiliarity

with team-teaching, lack of facilities, lack of understanding about the student-centred approach and lack of training (Nonkukhetkhong et al., 2006; Punthumasen, 2007). It is clear that the current English teaching in Thailand rarely supports learner autonomy and motivation.

Research shows that most Thai students regard English as boring to learn (Punthumasen, 2007). They are poorly-motivated and lack interest in learning English (Nonkukhetkhong et al., 2006; Noom-ura, 2013; Prapaisit de Segovia & Hardison, 2009). The majority of Thai undergraduate students find English difficult, yet they view English as necessary and useful for their future careers (Nuchnoi, 2008). They learn English only to pass tests or to get good grades (Nuchnoi, 2008; Vongkiatkajorn, 2012).

As a result, the English academic competence of Thai learners is at a low level. The English proficiency of Thai learners is dramatically lower compared with the students in other Asian countries (Wiriyaichitra, 2002). The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) average scores summary in January - December 2014 showed that Thailand's average score is 74 out of 120, and it ranked 7<sup>th</sup> of 9 ASEAN countries (Educational Testing Service, 2015). Thailand's score is a little higher than Laos (64) and Cambodia (69) but it is lower than Myanmar (78), Vietnam (79), Indonesia (84), Philippines (89), Malaysia (89) and Singapore (98). Additionally, the 2014 Education First English Proficiency Index (EF EPI) revealed that Thailand ranked 48<sup>th</sup> of 63 countries around the world. Thailand was categorized as average, compared to the 'very low proficiency' countries with average scores of 47.79 (EF Education First, 2014). Thailand's score ranked 11<sup>th</sup> of 14 Asian countries (EF Education First, 2014). It was above only the three countries, Sri Lanka, Kazakhstan, and Cambodia. It seems clear that the English proficiency of Thai students needs to be improved dramatically. Motivation needs to be emphasized in learning English in the Thai education system.

### **1.2.5 Influence of Thai culture on Thai education**

Another important factor which influences English teaching is Thai culture, because Thailand has a strong hierarchical social structure where seniority provides the most important status (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000b). Senior people have more authority than junior people as they are considered knowledgeable and highly respected. Juniors must respect them and obey what they say. In schools, teachers are the senior people and are treated as having the ultimate authority in the classroom and they are regarded as providing full knowledge and wisdom, while students must listen and obey. Therefore, teachers currently dominate interaction in classrooms (Khamkhien, 2010). Teachers are considered to provide all knowledge and so tend to ignore the importance of students' needs or interests (Dueraman, 2013). In my own learning experience in



Thailand, classroom interaction between teachers and students was limited because learners were not encouraged to question or allowed to choose what they want. Rather, they are expected to passively accept what they are given. As junior people in Thai culture, students regard good teachers as people who provide them with full knowledge and who explain the knowledge clearly and understandably. According to Raktham (2008), Thai students:

...are trained to place their trust in their teachers and to believe what they are taught without question. Students are not trained to be curious or articulate and most students do not believe that their contribution as an individual is important. (p. 86)

It is clear that Thailand is a significantly challenging context in which to foster learner autonomy and motivation in Thai education. Therefore, it is worth exploring how learner autonomy and motivation might be supported in Thailand, in the case of English teaching.

### **1.3 Teachers' beliefs about autonomy in non-Western contexts**

Some studies have explored teachers' beliefs and teaching strategies for learner autonomy and motivation in non-Western contexts which share similar hierarchical cultures. In a study of teachers' perceptions of autonomy, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) found that Taiwanese teachers rated 'promote learner autonomy' as unimportant for motivating language learners because they may be familiar with traditional teaching and maintaining control over the teaching and learning processes. Cowie and Sakui (2011) also explored motivational strategies from Japanese teachers' perceptions and they found that the teachers did not regard 'fostering autonomy' as a motivational strategy because they thought that it is not their role. Nakata (2011) discovered that Japanese EFL high school teachers were not fully ready to promote learner autonomy. Nguyen (2014) showed that Vietnamese university teachers still apply a traditional approach in which they act as controllers in the classrooms because they lack understanding of the concept of learner autonomy and teachers are a significant obstacle to foster learner autonomy. These findings demonstrate that non-Western teachers lack knowledge of the importance and benefit of facilitating learner autonomy. It shows that teachers' beliefs or perceptions about autonomy are a crucial factor in teaching practices.

#### **1.4 Aim and scope of the study**

Teachers need to have the knowledge to help learners build autonomy in order to support the improvement of students' motivation and English achievement. Thai education policy has ratified the importance of learner autonomy in education, and research demonstrates the importance of motivation as an essential factor in learning English as a second language. Therefore, part of the teacher's role is to enhance the autonomy and motivation of students. However, teachers do not seem to understand the nature and benefits of the student-centred approach and autonomy-supportive teaching. As a consequence, they may not have developed sufficient knowledge and skills to motivate and foster autonomy in their classrooms. Little is known about Thai English teachers' beliefs about autonomy (i.e., their knowledge about autonomy support) and their practices (i.e., their ability to support autonomy in the language classroom). Moreover, there is limited research about the practices that Thai English teachers currently use to foster autonomy and motivate students. More broadly, there has been little empirical work on cross-cultural perspectives on learner autonomy and motivation for language learning (Kaur, 2011). Therefore, this research thesis explores teachers' beliefs about autonomy and the teaching practices which foster learner autonomy and motivation in Thai classrooms and how teaching practices influence learner autonomy and motivation.

#### **1.5 Research questions**

The proposed study will address the following research questions:

1. What are the broad understandings teachers have about autonomy and how does this relate to the teaching approaches of Thai English teachers?
2. What beliefs do autonomy-supportive teachers report about the nature of autonomy in relation to their teaching practices?
3. What is the relationship between what autonomy-supportive teachers believe and practise in their classrooms and their students' perceptions of their teaching practices?

This research will yield information about teachers' beliefs about autonomy and teaching practices which support autonomy, and reveal how teaching practices affect learner autonomy and motivation in English language classrooms. In addressing the above questions, this study will uncover the teachers' beliefs regarding the concept of autonomy, explore a variety of teaching practices used by teachers to promote learner autonomy, and explore students'

perception of teaching practices. In so doing, the findings will reveal the obstacles or constraints in implementing teaching practices in supporting autonomy and motivation in Thai higher education, and highlight the implications for teacher support and training.

## **1.6 Significance of the study**

Many studies have been conducted in the area of teaching practices which support learner autonomy, that foster learners' motivation and how teaching practices influence learner autonomy and motivation in the classrooms in Western countries (Black & Deci, 2000; Reeve, 2002, 2006). However, only a few studies (e.g., Boonma, 2013; Kaur, 2011) have been conducted focusing on teaching practices which support learner autonomy and motivation in Thailand. Very little is known about what English teachers say and do to motivate students in the language classroom explicitly and intensively. The first intended outcome of the study on a theoretical level is to identify the understanding of autonomy and autonomy-supportive practices which connect to student motivation. The second intended outcome is to clarify the challenges or problems in supporting autonomy and motivation for educational leaders to facilitate their determination of possible solutions (e.g., teacher training, workshops, etc.), and to accelerate the implementation of autonomy-supportive teaching.

## **1.7 Thesis structure**

This thesis consists of eight chapters. Chapter 2 provides various theoretical approaches to motivation relevant to autonomy. Self-determination theory forms the framework adopted for this study. Chapter 3 presents the methodological approach to the study. The methodology uses a mixed-methods approach with three phases: a teacher questionnaire survey, interviews and observations, and a student questionnaire survey. Chapter 4 provides the results of the teacher questionnaire survey and open-ended results. Chapter 5 presents the findings of interviews. The interview findings focus on the definitions of autonomy, autonomy-supportive practices, student-centred teaching approaches and the challenges and problems. Chapter 6 shows the results of four case studies. Each case is discussed by combining the results of the interviews, observations, and students' responses from the open-ended results. Chapter 7 presents the discussion from the key findings of this study, based on self-determination theory. Chapter 8 provides the implications and recommendations proposed for English teaching education and further research.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter begins with a description of various theoretical approaches to motivation in second language learning. Following this is an overview of the various definitions of autonomy in second language learning and in self-determination theory (SDT). The chapter then reviews SDT in the context of cross-cultural settings. Finally, the links in SDT between autonomy and motivation are discussed in relation to the role of the teacher and different teaching styles, and the implication for the theoretical framework for this thesis research.

### **2.2 Theoretical approaches to motivation**

This section reviews a range of theoretical and empirical approaches to student motivation in language learning. Four main theories about motivation are discussed: theories of Gardner and Lambert; Dörnyei; Norton (investment theory); and Deci and Ryan (self-determination theory).

#### **2.2.1 Gardner and Lambert's theory**

Research into motivation in second language learning was initiated by social psychology researchers Robert Gardner and William Lambert (1972). Second language motivation was defined as “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (Gardner, 1985, p. 10). Moreover, it was asserted that motivation combines with effort, desire and positive affect to encourage the student to learn the new language (Gardner, 2001). Gardner (1985) concluded that the three components yield motivation and demonstrated the distinction between integrative and instrumental orientations as his main theory.

##### ***Integrative and instrumental orientations***

According to Gardner (2001), ‘orientation’ is not part of motivation, but is a reason for studying a second language. There are two types of orientation: integrative and instrumental. In integrative orientation, the student desires to be a member of the target language community and to become associated with the target culture (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). In contrast, instrumental orientation is learning the language to gain social recognition or economic advantage through the knowledge of a foreign language, such as getting a good job, gaining

rewards, and meeting an educational requirement (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). These orientations function as motivation origins “to arouse motivation and direct it towards a set of goals, either with a strong interpersonal quality (integrative) or a strong practical quality (instrumental)” (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 49). An integrative orientation results in better motivation compared with an instrumental orientation, because the former perceives a long-term need to master the language (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Therefore, integrative orientation has received greater emphasis.

However, there are criticisms of the integrative orientation as the main motivational variable. Some researchers argue that integrative orientation does not suit most foreign language settings (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994a, 2003; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). As Gardner’s studies originally took place in Canada where French and English speaking people live in the same country, the students there would have a more positive attitude toward each respective community and culture than in a foreign language context where people have had little or no previous contact with the foreign community or culture. In the Philippines for example, the instrumental orientation has clearly been influential in developing students’ proficiency in second language use (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). In addition, Clément and Kruidenier (1985) found additional orientations: knowledge, friendship, travel and socio-cultural factors were relevant to foreign language learners. Furthermore, Oxford and Shearin (1994) found the integrative and instrumental orientations may not be relevant to all second language learning. For example, “seeking a personal challenge,” “showing off to friends,” “having a private code that parents would not know,” etc., are not linked with either integrative or instrumental orientations (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 12). Lastly, Skehan (1991) argued that the difficult part of this theory is:

...clarifying the orientation-context links that exist. There would seem to be a wider range of orientations here than was previously supposed, and there is considerable scope to investigate different contextual circumstances (outside Canada!) by varying the L1-L2 learning relationship in different ways. (p. 284)

Therefore, it appears the integrative orientation component of Gardner’s theory is neither clear nor universal in cross-cultural settings.

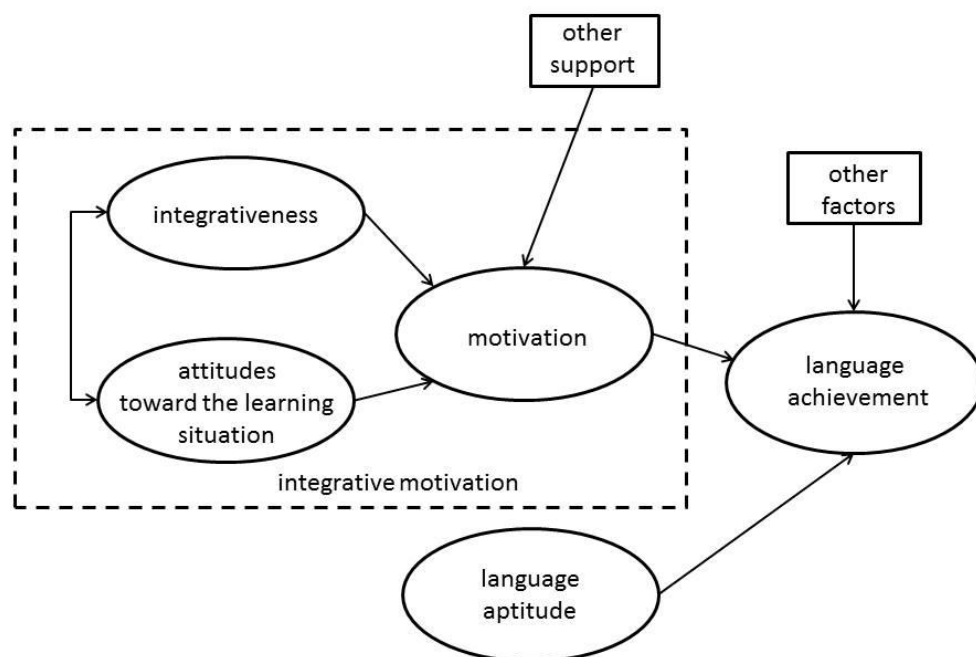


Figure 2 Basic model of the role of aptitude and motivation in second language learning (Gardner, 2001, p. 5)

### ***The socio-educational model***

The socio-educational model posits two classes of variables: *integrativeness* and *attitudes* which, together, influence motivation. Subsequently, motivation and language aptitude have an influence on language achievement, as demonstrated in Figure 2. The first variable, integrativeness, combines with integrative orientation, interest in a foreign language, and openness to other groups (Gardner, 2001). Integrativeness is also linked to the concept of identification (Gardner, 2005). Language learners are “willing to identify with members of another ethnolinguistic group and to take on very subtle aspects of their behaviour, including their distinctive style of speech and their language” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 135). Another variable is attitude toward the language situation (e.g., the language teacher and the L2 course) and motivation combined with effort, desire, and positive affect (Gardner, 2001).

The combination of integrativeness, attitudes toward the language situation and motivation form *integrative motivation*. Integrative motivation is “a complex of attitudinal, goal-directed, and motivational variables” (Gardner, 2001, p. 1). The integratively motivated student is “one who is motivated to learn the second language, has openness to identification with the other

language community, and has favourable attitudes toward the learning situation” (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, p. 174). Other support can be *instrumental motivation* or teaching styles (Gardner, 2001). The last variable is other factors which may influence achievement directly such as language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990) and/or self-confidence with language use (Clément, 1980). However, this model mainly focuses on the role of integrative motivation (Gardner, 2001).

Dörnyei (1994b) criticised Gardner’s model in regards to the components of integrative motivation. He argued that it is difficult to position “motivation” as a sub-component of the integrative motivation construct because “motivation” is a broader term that includes integrative motivation. Moreover, the author posits ‘integrative motivation’ has “no obvious parallel in any areas of mainstream motivational psychology and its exact nature is difficult to define” (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 5). Furthermore, Dörnyei (1990) argued that integrative motivation is not a fit for foreign language learners, but is relevant for second language learners who live in the target community.

Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) argued that Gardner and Lambert’s theory is limited to the notion of the integrative-instrumental dichotomy. Moreover, they asserted Gardner’s approach never explicitly addressed the classroom implications of motivation theory and did not propose to provide language teachers with direct help for promoting their teaching practice (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). It is clear that Gardner’s theory is still ambiguous and cannot universally apply in all contexts, especially foreign language settings including Thailand, and offers no practical applications for teachers to utilise to stimulate student motivation.

### **2.2.2 Dörnyei’s theoretical approach**

Due to insufficient information about motivational influences on student behaviour in the classroom, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) introduced a process-oriented approach. This approach aims to design motivational strategies for the purpose of classroom intervention in second language (L2) education (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). Their process-oriented approach was adopted from the “action control theory” developed by German psychologists Heinz Heckhausen and Julius Kuhl (e.g., Heckhausen, 1991; Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985; Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994). The process of action control is “at the point at which an intention has been formed and it continued to be effective until the intended action has actually been initiated and then executed” (Kuhl, 1984, p. 101). Figure 3 presents a model for learning motivation consisting of three phases developed by Dörnyei (2001a) based on the process-oriented approach:

1. Pre-actional Stage: First, motivation needs to be *generated*. The motivational dimension related to this initial phase can be referred to as *choice motivation*, because the generated motivation leads to the selection of the goal or task that the individual will pursue.

2. Actional Stage: Second, the generated motivation needs to be actively *maintained* and *protected* while the particular action lasts. The motivational dimension is referred to as *executive motivation*. It is particularly relevant to sustained activities such as studying a second language and to learning in classroom settings where students are exposed to a great number of distracting influences such as off-task thoughts, irrelevant comments from others, anxiety about the tasks or physical conditions that make it difficult to complete the task.

3. Post-actional Stage: Finally, there is a third phase following the completion of the action, termed *motivational retrospection*, which concerns the learners' *retrospective evaluation* of how things went. The way students process their past experiences in this retrospective phase will determine the kind of activities they will be motivated to pursue in the future. (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 21)

There are strengths and weaknesses to the process-oriented approach. On the one hand, the approach offers an effective method for interpreting and integrating the various motivation factors that affect the students' learning behaviours in classroom settings (Dörnyei, 2000). On the other hand, the "actional process in question is not well-defined and occurs in relative isolation, without any interference from other ongoing activities the learner is engaged in" (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 530).



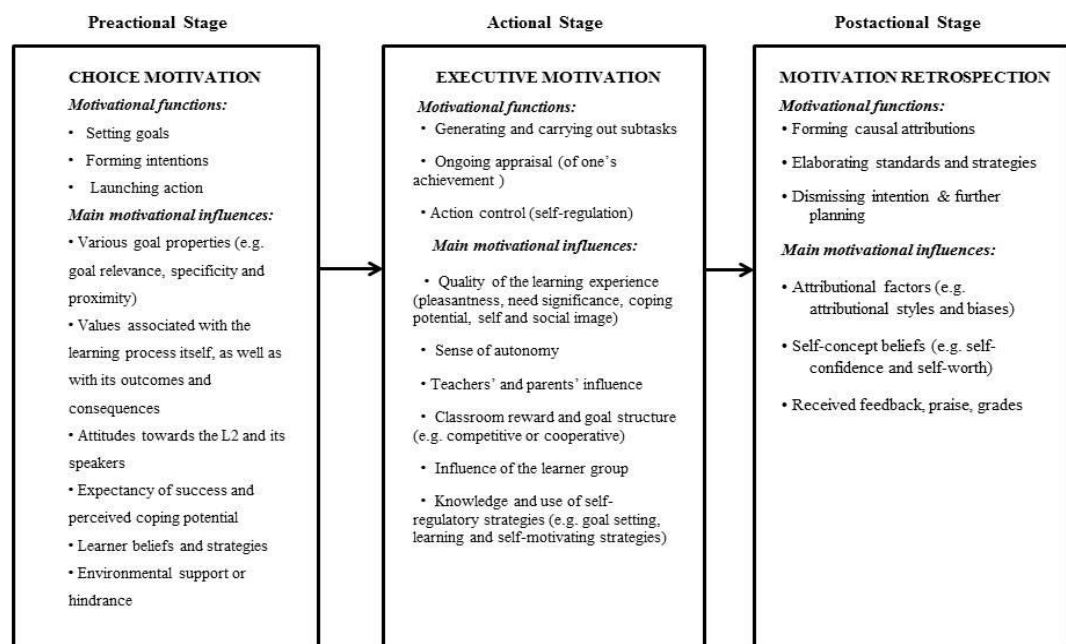


Figure 3 A process model of learning motivation in the L2 classroom  
(Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 22)

### ***Motivational strategies***

According to Dörnyei (2001a), to cultivate motivation in language learning, effective teaching practices are needed. There are various studies suggesting second language motivational practices (Alison, 1993; Dörnyei, 1994a; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). However, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) argue the previous motivational practices from other research lack a theory-based framework. Therefore, Dörnyei (2001a) introduced a practical framework of motivational strategies (see Figure 4) in order to establish a connection between the theoretical research and teaching practices. The motivational strategies are grouped according to the process-oriented model (Dörnyei, 2001a) (see Figure 3). “This model offers an important advantage over other potential organising because this model can offer principles, namely *comprehensiveness*” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 107). There are four key units in the process-oriented organisation which include:

- *Creating the basic motivation condition*, which involves setting the scene for the effective use of motivational strategies
- *Generating student motivation*, corresponding roughly to the *pre-actional* phase

- *Maintaining and protecting motivation*, corresponding to the *actional* phase
- *Encouraging positive self-evaluation*, corresponding to the *post-actional* phase (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 107)

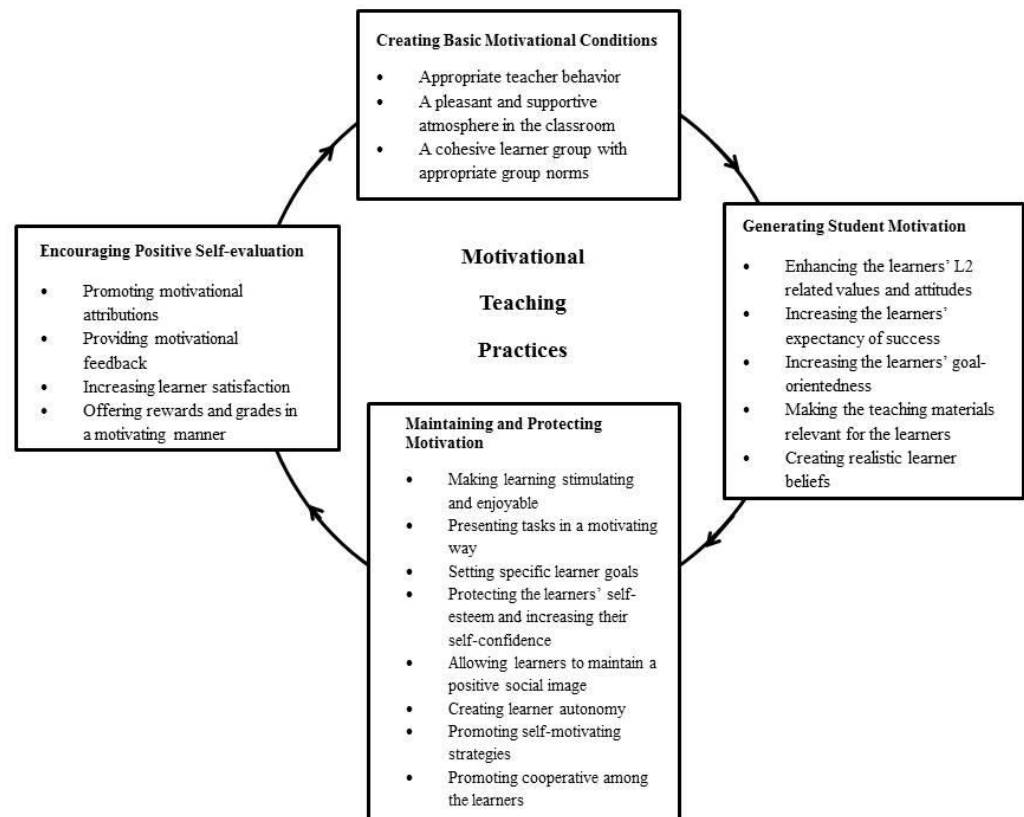


Figure 4 The components of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 29)

Motivational strategies are those which enhance student motivation, strengthen student performance, and reinforce positive attitudes toward learning (Włodkowski, 1978). They play a crucial role in increasing student motivation. According to Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), “motivational strategies refer to (a) instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation; and (b) self-regulating strategies that are used purposefully by individual students to manage the level of their own motivation” (p. 57). However, their strategies are relevant to type (a) rather than type (b).

In order to implement important motivational strategies in the language classroom there are a set of core strategies named the ‘Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners’ or ‘motivational macro-strategies’:

1. Set a personal example with your own behaviour
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom
3. Present the tasks properly
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners
5. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence
6. Make the language classes interesting
7. Promote learner autonomy
8. Personalize the learning process
9. Increase the learners' goal orientedness
10. Familiarise learners with the target language culture (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 215)

### ***Promoting learner autonomy***

It is clear that promoting learner autonomy is an essential strategy for motivating students. As Ushioda (1996) states, “autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners” (p. 2). Dörnyei (2001a) refers to autonomy as “a buzzword in educational psychology - it is also discussed under the label of ‘self-regulation’” (p. 102). Moreover, Dörnyei (2001a) states:

The relevance of autonomy to motivation in psychology has been best highlighted by the influential ‘self-determination theory’, according to which the freedom to choose and to have choices, rather than being forced or coerced to behave according to someone else’s desire, is a prerequisite to motivation. (p. 103)

Therefore, he proposed autonomy-supportive teaching practices based on SDT comprising two main strategies:

1. Increased student involvement in organising the learning process such as allowing students choices, giving students positions of genuine authority, encouraging student contributions and peer teaching.
2. A change in the teacher’s role, with the teacher as facilitator leading students to discover and create their own meanings about the world. (Dörnyei, 2001a, pp. 104-106)

Dörnyei adopted autonomy-supportive teaching practices in SDT in order to foster learner autonomy. However, his process-oriented approach was not sufficiently comprehensive because while it captured the motivational dynamic, it did not explicitly describe *how* to motivate

students. Nevertheless, it shows using autonomy-supportive teaching practices may be an effective way to facilitate learner autonomy, which increases motivation.

As mentioned in section 2.2.1, Dörnyei argued about Gardner's theory that the concept of integrativeness is unclear and cannot apply in all contexts. In 2005, Dörnyei asserted that the L2 motivation is part of the learner's self system which combines with future self-guides. Dörnyei (2005) proposed the new theoretical approach called 'The L2 Motivational Self System' which consists of three components:

(1) *Ideal L2 Self*, which is the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self': if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the '*ideal L2 self*' is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. Traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives would typically belong to this component.

(2) *Ought-to L2 Self*, which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to *avoid* possible negative outcomes. This dimension corresponds to Higgins' ought self and thus to the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalised) types of instrumental motives.

(3) *L2 Learning Experience*, which concerns situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success). This component is conceptualised at a different level from the two self-guides and future research will hopefully elaborate on the self aspects of this bottom-up process. (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29)

Dörnyei (2005) states the L2 motivational self system is similar to three types of orientations of self-determination theory conducted by Noels (2003). Dörnyei (2005) explains that the three interrelated types of orientations are (a) intrinsic reasons inherent in the language learning process is similar to *L2 Learning Experience*, (b) extrinsic reasons for language learning is similar to *Ought-to self*, and (c) integrative reasons is similar to *Ideal L2 Self*. Dörnyei (2009) confirms that this theoretical approach shows benefits, validity and empirical evidence, however, Macintyre, Mackinnon and Clément (2009) give some cautions for the future research that:

SLA [second language acquisition] researchers should be aware of, and as far as possible avoid several potential pitfalls, such as the measurement of possible selves, the proliferation of self-related concepts (the naming problem), cultural variations in the concept of self, conditions that affect the relevance of goals as motives, changes in the selves over time and the junction with identity. (p. 58)

Furthermore, Noels (2009) argues that the self-determination theory (SDT) is effective for understanding language learning motivation. Noels (2009) explains that “it [self-determination theory] underscores the central role of the self in language learning, particularly the importance of internalisation of the learning activity” (p. 307).

### **2.2.3 Investment theory**

In Norton’s research with immigrant women in Canada (Norton Peirce, 1995), she found that the concept of motivation in second language acquisition (SLA) cannot capture the complex relationship between relations of power, identity, and language learning. She states that the concept of motivation in most theories is “a character trait of the individual language learner and that learners who fail to learn the target language are not sufficiently committed to the learning process” (Norton & Gao, 2008, p. 110). Norton Peirce (1995) explains that “the concept of motivation is drawn primarily from the field of social psychology, where attempts have been made to quantify a learner’s commitment to learning the target language” (p. 16). Therefore, she developed the concept of *investment* in order to extend the concept of motivation in SLA. The concept of investment “signals the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language and their sometimes ambivalent desire to learn and practice it” (Norton & Gao, 2008, p. 110). “If learners invest in a second language, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital” (Norton, 1998, p. 444). Cultural capital refers to “the knowledge and modes of thought that characterize different classes and groups in relation to specific sets of social forms”, symbolic resources refer to “language, education and friendship”, and material resources refer to “capital goods, real estate, and money” (Norton, 1998, p. 444). Norton Peirce (1995) argues that it is not equivalent to the instrumental motivation of Gardner (1985) because instrumental motivation is “a unitary, fixed, and ahistorical language learner who desires access to material resources that are the privilege of target language speakers” (p. 17). Consequently, there are distinctions between motivation and investment research questions (Norton & Gao, 2008). The motivation theorists would ask

“What is the learner’s motivation to learn English” while the investment scholars would ask “What is the learner’s investment in the language practices of the classroom or community?” (Norton & Gao, 2008, p. 110). Learners would speak the target language from their investment in the target language (Norton Peirce, 1995). In the classroom, second language teachers support learners’ investment by helping learners to claim their right to speak outside the classroom and helping them to speak with target language speakers (Norton Peirce, 1995). However, according to this theory, there is no explicit teaching practice for teachers to motivate students to learn English, especially in the classroom context.

#### **2.2.4 Self-determination theory**

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a macro theory of human motivation developed by Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan (1985). Ryan and Deci (2002) explain:

The foundations of SDT reside in a dialectical view which concerns the interaction between an active, integrating human nature and social contexts that either nurture or impede the organism’s active nature. Social environments can, according to this perspective, either facilitate and enable the growth and integration propensities with which the human psyche is endowed, or they can disrupt, forestall, and fragment these processes resulting in behaviours and inner experiences that represent the darker side of humanity. (p. 6)

This theory focuses on the ways people interact with their social environments to either enhance or undermine healthy forms of human motivation. One of the key concepts in SDT is the distinction between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers “to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 55). Intrinsic motivation is an important factor in education because it brings forth high-quality learning and creativity (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Moreover, it symbolises the prototype of self-determined behaviours (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). Extrinsic motivation refers “to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 55). In SDT, there are four types of extrinsic motivation: two controlled behaviours (external regulation and introjected regulation) and two self-determined behaviours (identified regulation and integrative regulation) (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Unlike other motivational theories, Deci and Ryan’s theory states that extrinsic motivation can be relatively self-determined and effective (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

A shortcoming of other theories is their failure to state the energisation of behaviour (Deci et al., 1991). However, SDT addresses the energisation issue and direction issue by postulating basic psychological needs (Deci et al., 1991). Ryan and Deci (2002) explain that basic needs are “universal – that is, they represent innate requirements rather than acquired motives” (p. 7). In other words, basic needs are inherent in human life in all cultures and in all developmental periods (Deci et al., 1991; Ryan & Deci, 2002). Basic needs consist of competence, relatedness and autonomy. Competence involves developing awareness of ways to achieve external and internal outcomes and to become proficient at performing the necessary actions. Relatedness involves the creation of secure and fulfilling connections with others during social interactions. Autonomy involves the self-initiation and self-regulation of personal actions (Deci et al., 1991). Innate needs are beneficial because they allow one to indicate the contextual conditions which will enhance motivation, performance, and development, and they provide content to human nature (Deci et al., 1991). Furthermore, when innate needs are satisfied, behaviour is more likely to be internalised, representing relatively self-determined forms of extrinsic motivation, or intrinsic motivation, rather than externally regulated motivation (Deci et al., 1991).

In SDT there are six mini-theories, which are cognitive evaluation theory, causality orientations theory, organismic integration theory, basic needs theory, goal contents theory, and relationships motivation theory. Three mini-theories are relevant to this study, comprising cognitive evaluation theory, organismic integration theory, and basic needs theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2002; Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). These mini-theories are related because they share organismic and dialectical assumptions and involve basic psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Each of the mini-theories explains motivational processes in a social context based on basic psychological needs and was developed to describe a different phenomenon of motivation in empirical research.

### ***Cognitive evaluation theory***

Deci and Ryan (1985) introduce cognitive evaluation theory (CET) in order to specify the factors in a social context that create variability in intrinsic motivation rather than what causes intrinsic motivation. CET focuses mainly on the social conditions that increase or diminish intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). In other words, the factors within a social environment affect intrinsic motivation. In order to enhance intrinsic motivation in a social context, it is necessary to satisfy the needs of competence and autonomy, both crucial to the individual's capacity for self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). The experience of competence is not sufficient for enhancing intrinsic motivation unless there is perceived autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). In other words, intrinsic motivation increases when the need

for autonomy is satisfied by social context. Consequently, most studies have investigated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and autonomy versus a controlled context. In turn, the research (e.g., deCharms, 1968; Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman & Ryan, 1981) showed that an autonomy-supportive interpersonal context supports and facilitates one's intrinsic motivation, while a controlling interpersonal context thwarts it.

In a classroom context, an autonomy-supportive teacher can facilitate students' intrinsic motivation, curiosity and the desire for challenge by providing choices, acknowledgment of feelings, opportunities for self-direction, and positive feedback (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2002). A controlling teacher offers incentives such as prizes and money, uses controlling language such as 'must' and 'should,' threatens punishment, and evaluates in a controlling way (Deci et al., 1991).

In particular, the use of rewards in education has been closely examined. The somewhat counterintuitive finding by Deci (1971) that external rewards could undermine intrinsic motivation attracted considerable attention because it challenged the dominant behaviourist paradigm. Several meta-analyses of research on the effects of external rewards have been undertaken. One of the most critical challenges to the finding has been made by Cameron and Pierce (1994). However, Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (2001) criticised this meta-analysis for its study selection criteria and inclusion of studies that did not include intrinsically motivated behaviour as an outcome. They concluded the reward systems simply do not increase the total amount of motivation and qualitatively undermine students' intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, the use of threats of punishment, deadlines, completion, and evaluation creates a controlling context and also decreases intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

### ***Organismic integration theory***

According to Ryan and Deci (2000a), extrinsic motivation is also important for educators because they cannot focus on intrinsic motivation alone to foster learning. Tasks in school are not always enjoyable so it is worthwhile to know how to promote *relatively* internalised motivation. Therefore, Deci and Ryan (1985) introduce organismic integration theory (OIT) to explain extrinsic motivation and the contextual factors that either promote or hinder the internalisation and integration of these behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 1985). "Internalisation is the process of taking in a value or regulation, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 60). In other words, extrinsic motivation can be relatively internalised to the self.



Organismic integration theory comprises a continuum of motivation: from amotivation, through the four types of extrinsic motivation, to intrinsic motivation. According to the self-determination continuum illustrated in Figure 5, at the far left is amotivation – the state of unwillingness or non-intention to act – and at the far right is intrinsic motivation – the performance of the activity for interest and enjoyment (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). In the middle, extrinsic motivation is further divided into four types: external, introjected, identified and integrated (Deci et al., 1991). External regulation refers to “behaviours for which the locus of initiation is external, for example the offer of reward or the threat of a punishment” (Deci et al., 1991, p. 329). External regulation is clearly opposite to intrinsic motivation. Introjected regulation occurs when external contingencies are relatively internalised such that a person is motivated by pride, shame, or guilt (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Identified regulation occurs when a person values the behaviour as personally relevant (Deci et al., 1991). In other words, “the person has identified with the personal importance of a behaviour and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 62). Finally, integrated regulation is considered as “the regulatory process is fully integrated with the individual’s coherent sense of self; that is, the identifications are reciprocally assimilated with the individual’s other values, needs and identities” (Deci et al., 1991, p. 330). The integrated form is fully self-determined but it is not the same as intrinsic motivation because integrated regulation is caused from the volition and value by the self to the presumed instrumental value to some outcome whereas intrinsic motivation comes from interest and enjoyment (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

In order to facilitate internalisation and integration, the psychological needs of relatedness, competence, and autonomy need to be fulfilled (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). If the person experiences only relatedness and competence, one will facilitate introjected regulation, while gaining autonomy support alone can facilitate integrated regulation (Deci et al., 1991). Therefore, the satisfaction of autonomy is a significant element that facilitates greater internalisation and integration for regulation.

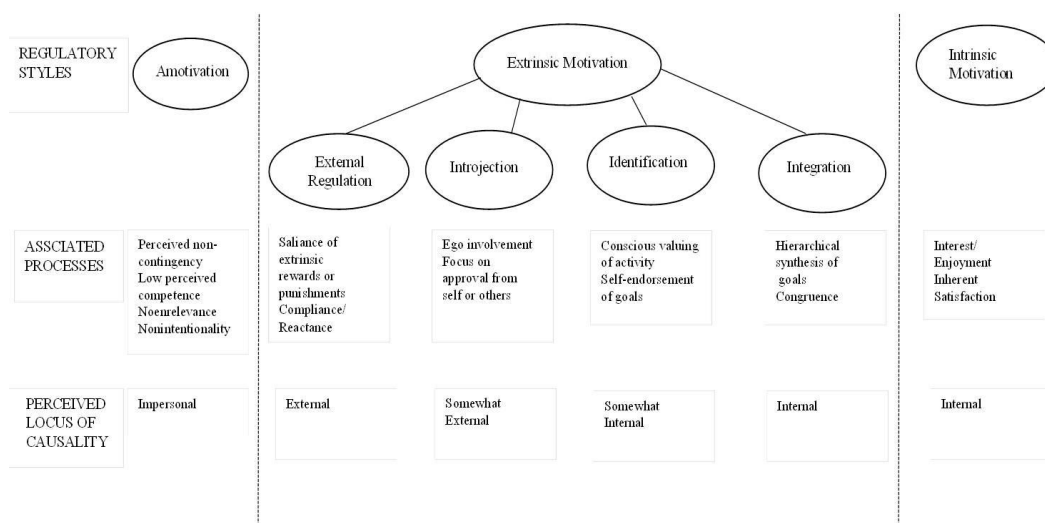


Figure 5 A self-determination continuum

(Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 61)

### ***Basic need theory***

Basic need theory specifies innate psychological needs that have a relationship with psychological and physical health and well-being (Vansteenkiste et al., 2010). In other words, psychological and physical health and well-being are influenced by satisfying innate needs in social conditions. The needs are universal and apply across ages, genders, and cultures (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

The basic needs are competence, relatedness and autonomy. Competence is the feeling of being confident in one's ability to do something in challenging conditions, but it is not an attained skill or capability (Ryan & Deci, 2002). The need for competence encourages people to seek optimal challenge for their capacities and to maintain those capacities through activity (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Relatedness is the feeling of being in relation to people and the feeling of being supported by others (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Relatedness is the need to feel oneself as being connected with others in secure communion or unity (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Autonomy is the feeling of volition and freedom emergent from one's own interest and integrated values (Ryan & Deci, 2002). The concept of autonomy is discussed further in section 2.3.3. The satisfaction of three basic needs is important for well-being and aspiration (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

In summary, SDT is like other theories in that it draws a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In turn, these types of motivation have implications for engagement in learning. However, even more important than the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is the degree to which behavioural regulation is internalised. Therefore, extrinsically motivated behaviour can still be self-determined if its value is understood or if it is integrated

with the sense of self. The process of internalisation and integration is facilitated by the fulfilment of basic psychological needs – competence, relatedness, and autonomy – which have a strong relationship with not only engagement in learning, but also well-being. The concept of autonomy is the key need, and a principle that represents internalisation and motivation. The social context influences the satisfaction of the basic needs and human motivation. The autonomy-supportive context increases intrinsic motivation and facilitates the internalisation and integration of extrinsic motivation while a controlling context decreases intrinsic motivation and self-determination. In the classroom context, teachers need to create an autonomy-supportive condition to satisfy the basic needs and motivation of students.

### ***Self-determination theory in second language learning***

The research by Noels and colleagues (Noels, 2001; Noels et al., 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000) introduced the application of SDT into second/foreign language contexts. Noels et al. (1999) argue that SDT is useful for understanding second language learning motivation because it provides a comprehensive and explanatory framework for second language learning. Furthermore, this approach is helpful for developing teaching strategies to promote second language learning motivation, and the level of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can predict second language learning outcomes (Noels et al., 1999).

In their study, Noels et al. (1999) aimed to investigate the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in language learning and students' perceptions of teachers' communicative style. The participants were a group of Anglophone university students learning French in Canada. The result showed intrinsic motivation was related to students' perceptions of the teacher's communicative style and that it was also related to positive language learning outcomes. Students in an informative classroom made a greater effort to succeed, were less anxious, and intended to continue their studies; whereas students in a controlling context put in less effort, demonstrated higher levels of anxiety, and were not inclined to study further. This finding is relevant to the assertion in SDT that social contexts influence human motivation. Therefore, teachers play an important role in the language classroom in facilitating students' motivation by providing autonomy-supportive or informational contexts such as giving positive feedback.

Similarly, Noels et al. (2000) explored the relationship between the orientation toward second language learning and the subtypes of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. They also examined the relationship between various psychological variables (e.g., freedom to choose, perceived competence) and their motivational constructs. Four orientations were applied based on the work of Clément and Kruidenier (1983): travel, friendship, knowledge and the

instrumental orientations. The motivational constructs involved three subtypes of intrinsic motivations (IM): IM-Knowledge (the motivation for doing an activity for the feelings associated with exploring new ideas and developing knowledge), IM-Accomplishment (the sensations related to attempting to master a task or achieve a goal) and IM-Stimulation (the sensation stimulated by performing the task) and three extrinsic motivations (EM): external regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation, based on Deci and Ryan (1985) and Vallerand and colleagues (e.g., Vallerand, 1997; Vallerand et al., 1992).

The participants in the study were a group of English-speaking college students learning French as a second language. The result showed the greater the perceptions of autonomy and competence, the greater the sense of self-determination. Instrumental orientation is explicitly related to external regulation, and travel, friendship and knowledge orientations correlated with identified regulation and intrinsic motivation. All orientations were found to be associated with the perceptions of freedom of choice and competence as in intrinsic motivation. Therefore, giving choice and providing informative feedback should facilitate students' self-determination and intrinsic motivation and stimulate their orientations in second language learning.

Another study by Noels (2001) explored the relationship between students' perceptions of the communicative style of the language teacher and intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The participants were a group of English speaking university students learning Spanish at a California university. The findings showed students' perceptions of teachers as "controlling" were negatively related to their feeling of autonomy; whereas perceptions of teachers as "informative" were positively related to a feeling of competence. The feeling of autonomy is highly related to intrinsic and identified regulation orientations and the sense of competence is strongly correlated with intrinsic orientation. Thus, both previous and current studies by Noels and colleagues (1999, 2000, and 2001) confirmed that teachers' behaviours are linked to students' perceptions of autonomy and competence.

However, Noels (2001) indicated that her research was limited in that she focused only on students' "perceptions" of their language teacher and not on the teachers' behaviours. Therefore, teachers' behaviours in the language classroom should be further investigated by observations and/or teachers' self-reports in order to develop teaching strategies and to incorporate this area of research in the broader academic understanding of second language learning (Noels, 2001).

### ***Self-determination theory in the cross-cultural context***

Autonomy is a universal need in SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2002). That is, the feeling or experience of choice, freedom and initiation of one's self is a universal and fundamental part of human nature. In turn, the opposite of autonomy is heteronomy (Ryan, 1993). Although

commonly assumed, autonomy conceptualised neither as independence nor dependence, with Ryan and Deci (2000b) claiming:

Within SDT, autonomy refers not to being independent, detached, or selfish but rather to the feeling of volition that can accompany any act, whether dependent or independent, collectivist or individualist. (p. 74)

However, a number of controversies surround the application of SDT in different cultural contexts. Some empirical studies have claimed that the benefits of autonomy and autonomy-support are not universal (Iyengar & Lepper, 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Iyengar and Lepper (1999) conducted a study to prove the provision of choice about learning content increases student motivation. Two groups of children participated in the study, one Anglo-American and the other Asian-American. Both groups were given the option to either choose the learning content for themselves or to allow another person (e.g., mothers or peers) to make a choice for them. The results of the study showed Anglo-American children demonstrate higher intrinsic motivation as a result of making the choice for themselves; whereas Asian-American children were intrinsically motivated when the choice was made for them. Iyengar and Lepper (1999) concluded from their results that the provision of choice is not suitable in a collectivist cultural context where there is interdependence. As such, they posited autonomy was therefore beneficial only in individualistic cultures. However, the finding has not yet been substantially replicated. Vansteenkiste et al. (2010) argue that the Asian-American children in the Iyengar and Lepper (1999) study appeared to feel more autonomous when they allowed others to make the choices about learning content for them. The feeling of autonomy can mean that one either acts independently or relies on others (Vansteenkiste et al., 2010).

Many cross-cultural studies confirm that greater autonomy support results in positive academic outcomes in collectivist cultures such as Israel (Assor, Kaplan, Maymon, & Roth, 2005), South Korea (Jang, Reeve, Ryan, & Kim, 2009; Y. Kim, Butzel, & Ryan, 1998), China (Bao & Lam, 2008; Vansteenkiste et al., 2010), and Japan (Yamauchi & Tanaka, 1998). Therefore, it is clear that autonomy and autonomy-support are appropriate and effective in both individualistic and collectivist cultures (Chirkov, 2009).

## 2.3 Perspectives on autonomy

Historically in language learning, the term ‘autonomy’ has been interpreted in many ways. Two perspectives have already been identified above. In the following sections, three further uses of the term ‘autonomy’ are described: those of Henri Holec, David Little and Phil Benson.

Henri Holec (1981) defines autonomy as the ability to take charge of one’s own learning:

*To take charge of one’s learning* is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all decisions concerning all aspects of this learning, that is:

- determining the objectives
- defining content and progression
- selecting methods and techniques to be used
- monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.)
- evaluating what has been acquired

The autonomous learner is himself capable of making all of the decisions concerning the learning with which he is or wishes to be involved. (p. 3)

Learning taken charge of in this way by the learner is *self-directed* or undertaken *on an autonomous basis*. This acceptance of responsibility for the learning may be done, with or without the help of a teacher, with or without the use of teaching aids. (p. 4)

Holec (1981) clarifies that an ability to take charge of one’s own learning means students have to make decisions on their own learning, but taking charge of their own learning does not have to be independent from the teacher. One of the teacher’s new roles is to help and support students to develop their ability to take charge of all aspects of their learning (Holec, 1981).

David Little (1990) considers autonomy through a psychological lens and declares it is a construct linked to many misconceptions. He therefore defines what autonomy is ‘*not*’:

- Autonomy is *not* a synonym for self-instruction; in other words, autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher.
- In the classroom context, autonomy does not entail an abdication of responsibility on the part of the teacher; it is *not* a matter of letting the learners get on with things as best they can.

- On the other hand, autonomy is not something that teachers do to learners; that is, it is *not* another teaching method.
- Autonomy is *not* a single, easily described behaviour.
- Autonomy is *not* a steady state achieved by learners. (p. 7)

Subsequently, Little (1991) develops his own definition of autonomy:

A *capacity* for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts. (p. 4)

Little (1991) indicates that the psychological dimension of autonomy is also important for learning. Furthermore, Holec's and Little's definitions of autonomy share some aspects regarding student ability and the emphasis on the learning content. Little's also shares overlap with the SDT definition of autonomy.

Lastly, Phil Benson (2011) defines autonomy as "a capacity to take control over one's own learning". In developing this definition he explains that the word 'control' is wider and more open than 'charge' or 'responsibility' (Benson, 2011). Furthermore, he states that "control over learning may take a variety of forms in relation to different dimensions of the learning process" (Benson, 2011, p. 58). As such, he proposes three interdependent dimensions for student control: learning management; cognitive processes; and learning content (Benson, 2011). Benson (2011) explains:

Effective learning management and control over the cognitive process necessarily has consequences for the self-management of learning. Autonomy also implies that self-management and control over cognitive processes should involve decisions concerning the content of learning. (p. 61)

For Benson (2011), control over learning content is the most important dimension because "control over content is fundamental to autonomy in learning" (p. 112). He also explains that:

Autonomy implies not only the *attempt* to take control of one's own learning from time to time, but also the capacity to do this systematically and effectively in terms of self-

determined goals and purposes. Similarly, fostering autonomy does not mean simply leaving learners to their own devices, but implies a more active process of guidance and encouragement to help learners extend and systematise the capacities that they already possess. (p. 91)

Thus, the three definitions developed by the three scholars in the field of second language learning conceptualise autonomy as a decision-making action pertaining to the learning content. Furthermore, teachers are still the main role to support and develop student autonomy. In other words, autonomy is not independent from teachers. There is substantial overlap, notwithstanding some conceptual differences, between the SDT conceptualisation of autonomy and the approaches taken to autonomy in research on motivation in language learning.

### **2.3.1 Definitions of autonomy as ‘independence’**

Holec’s definition of autonomy influenced how other scholars perceived the concept in subsequent years, thus leading to autonomy being interpreted more closely to the concept of independence. For instance, Dickinson (1987) develops the concept of ‘full autonomy’, stating:

This term describes 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)

This contextual description implies that students take full responsibility for their own learning to achieve greater autonomy without the help of a teacher or an institution (Dickinson, 1994). In this view, full autonomy is thus an ultimate goal of education and may be achieved by engaging students in self-instruction and self-directed modes of learning (Dickinson, 1987). Dickinson (1987) described the meaning of each learning mode:

Self-instruction – This is a neutral term referring generally to situations in which learners are working without the direct control of the teacher.

Self-direction – This term describes a particular attitude to the learning task, where the learner accepts responsibility for all the decisions concerned with his learning but does not necessarily undertake the implementation of those decisions. (p. 11)



The methods to support self-instruction and self-directed learning include the provision of self-access materials to learners and self-access centres where different types of materials and facilities are made available, and allowing students to perform self-assessments to judge their learning process and performance, in order to practise for autonomy (Dickinson, 1987). Furthermore, group work and project work are other devices to develop learner independence and learner responsibility (Dickinson, 1987). Dickinson (1996) states that learning projects outside a formal educational environment also encourage “classic learner autonomy” which means “a situation in which an individual is working on his or her own objectives in isolation from the teacher and other learners using only authentic materials” (p. 50). The project work of Dickinson is similar to project-based learning. Project-based learning is “a model that organizes learning around projects” (Thomas, 2000, p. 1). Thomas (2000) defines projects as “complex tasks, based on challenging questions or problems, that involve students in design, problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities; give students the opportunity to work relatively autonomously over extended periods of time; and culminate in realistic products or presentations” (p. 1). The advantage of project-based learning is to increase self-direction and motivation of students while the disadvantage is that some students do not have adequate skills in researching and collating information (Westwood, 2008).

In summary, the concept of autonomy developed by Dickinson focuses on the learner’s independence from teachers and the classroom context. According to this concept, the teacher’s role is to assist students to learn by themselves and to encourage self-access work and out-of-class project work.

### **2.3.2 Social dimension of autonomy as ‘interdependence’**

Recent studies have investigated the social character of autonomy. Specifically, researchers have demonstrated an interest in the development of autonomy and the value of interdependent learning in the classroom. Dam (1990) adopted the “Bergen definition” which implied learner autonomy is “a capacity and willingness to act independently and in co-operation with others, as a socially responsible person” (p. 1). Kohonen (1992) states that autonomy involves “being responsible for one’s own conduct in the social context: being able to cooperate with others and solve conflicts in constructive ways” (p. 19). Little (1996) supports the view that “a capacity to participate fully and critically in social interactions” is central to autonomy (p. 211). These views stress the importance of developing learner autonomy in the classroom through student interactions with the teacher and peers. In order to foster learner autonomy, the social dimensions of autonomy related to classroom and curriculum-based

approaches thus combine with experiential learning, the process of negotiated syllabus, and cooperative and collaborative learning (Benson, 2006). Therefore, social context interactions influence learner autonomy.

### ***Autonomy in a non-Western context***

According to Littlewood (1996a), one of the strongest influences on attitudes to teaching and learning is the sociocultural context, for instance, the attitudes and belief held by many non-Western students toward collectivism, power and authority, and the value of effort and self-discipline can limit their readiness to make independent choices in other areas of their learning. Little (1994) defines “learner autonomy as the product of interdependence rather than independence” (as cited in Littlewood, 1999, pp. 74-75). On the basis of this definition, Littlewood (1996a) concludes that “interpersonal relationships and group support may provide the foundation for environments that provide strong support for the development of autonomy with relatedness” (p. 124). Similarly, Ryan and Powelson (1991) claim that autonomy is one of the most important human needs along with ‘relatedness’, which he described as the need ‘for contact, support and community with others’. Ryan and Powelson (1991) also use the term ‘autonomous interdependence’ (p. 227).

However, Littlewood (1996b) argues that motivation leads to autonomy. He defines an autonomous person “as one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions. This capacity depending on two main components: *ability* and *willingness*” (Littlewood, 1996b, p. 428). A learner’s willingness to learn independently depends on the level of motivation and confidence and a learner’s ability to learn independently depends on knowledge and skills (Littlewood, 1996b). Moreover, to promote autonomous learners is a goal of education (Littlewood, 1996b). One way to foster autonomy is to encourage learner motivation to learn.

Littlewood (1999) proposes two levels of ‘self-regulation’ combined with proactive and reactive autonomy. Proactive autonomy is defined according to Holec’s (1981) concept; that is, students are able to take charge of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques and evaluate what has been acquired. Proactive autonomy is the only kind recognised by many scholars in the West (Littlewood, 1996a). Alternatively, reactive autonomy does not create its own directions, but once a direction has been initiated, it enables students to organise their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal (Littlewood, 1996a). Littlewood (1996a) argues that non-Western students engage in reactive autonomy. Collaborative learning is a group-oriented form of proactive autonomy while cooperative learning is a group-oriented form of reactive autonomy (Littlewood, 1999). In order to develop

autonomy in non-Western students, cooperative learning is an appropriate approach for language learning.

However, according to Littlewood (1996a), non-Western students engage in reactive autonomy. It does not mean that they are passive and dependent. According to a study by Littlewood (2000), the preconception that Asian students primarily like to listen to their teacher and to follow their teacher's instructions was examined. The study sample comprised 2,307 senior secondary and tertiary level students from eight East Asian countries including Thailand. Using questionnaires to collect data, the author found that Asian students would in fact like to be active and independent (Littlewood, 2000). As Littlewood (2000) concludes:

Asian students do not, in fact, wish to be spoonfed with facts from an all-knowing 'fount of knowledge'. They want to explore knowledge themselves and find their own answers. Most of all, they want to do this together with their fellow students in an atmosphere which is friendly and supportive. (p. 34)

Littlewood (2000) mentions that Asian students themselves are inherently active and independent; however, they are likely to be passive because of the educational contexts which are provided for them. Therefore, the supportive classroom context is important for Asian students.

Smith (2003) also conceptualizes pedagogy for learner autonomy in non-Western contexts based on two different methodological tendencies characterized as 'weak' and 'strong' (p. 130).

'Weak' versions of pedagogy for autonomy tend to view autonomy as a capacity which students currently lack (and so need 'training' towards), and/or identify it with a mode of learning (for example, self-access) which students need to be prepared for. (p. 130)

The teaching method and learning arrangement are prepared by the teacher, syllabus and/or institution (Smith, 2003). The second one is 'strong' version of pedagogy for autonomy. This version views autonomy as a capacity where students are assumed to be already autonomous and already capable to exercising this capacity. The teaching method and learning arrangement involve cooperation with the students by focusing on the students' own needs and priorities (Smith, 2003). The teaching methods of 'weak' versions of pedagogy for autonomy (Smith, 2003) are likely similar to the method of Dickinson (1987) which provides self-access materials to learners and self-access centres in order to train students be autonomous. The next part discusses the concept of autonomy in self-determination theory.

### 2.3.3 Autonomy in self-determination theory

As noted in the previous section on self-determination theory more broadly, autonomy is a crucial, basic psychological human need which enhances or thwarts intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This section elaborates further on the SDT notion of autonomy.

Autonomy in SDT results from autonomy-supportive social conditions and is the opposite to control. There are several dimensions of autonomy in SDT. First, autonomy is the need “to have one’s behaviour emanate from the self, for example, to feel volitional and self-determined” (Ryan & Solky, 1996, p. 251). Second, it is “being the perceived origin or source of one’s own behaviour” (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 8). Third, it refers to “the experience of volition and full endorsement of one’s action (Zhou, Ma & Deci, 2009, p. 493). The three definitions above share the idea that autonomy is the feeling of volition, choice and freedom by one’s own self.

The opposite of autonomy is the feeling of pressure or compulsion from a controlled condition (Vansteenkiste et al., 2010). Furthermore, autonomy is not defined as either independence or dependence. As Ryan and Deci (2002) explain:

Autonomy is often confused with, or melded together with, the quite different concept of independence (which means not relying on external sources or influences), but the SDT view considers there to be no necessary antagonism between autonomy and dependence. Indeed, one can quite autonomously enact values and behaviours that others have requested or forwarded, provided that one congruently endorses them. On the other hand, one can of course rely on others for directions or opinions in such a way that autonomy is not experienced, as is the case with mere compliance or conformity. In short, independence versus dependence is a dimension that is seen with SDT as being largely orthogonal to the issue of autonomy versus heteronomy. (p. 8)

In SDT, autonomy cannot be conceptualised as independence because that implies low relatedness (Deci et al., 1991), and relatedness is one of three important human needs to influence human motivation. The definition is a little more closely aligned with Little’s definitions because autonomy is not independence from teachers and is not a teaching method. SDT’s autonomy is similar to Benson’s, that teachers play an important role to guide students’ learning and provide them encouragement. Dickinson’s conceptualisation of autonomy is complete independence from any teacher – this differs enormously from SDT’s conceptualisation of autonomy because autonomy does not require independence, in fact much autonomous learning (and being in a relationship, and being at work, in friendships, when being

provided with health care, etc.) can be very dependent on other people. In educational settings, Reeve (2006) found that students cannot have autonomy without a strong sense of structure – teacher involvement in setting expectations, instructing students, and guiding students’ ongoing activities.

The studies about autonomy in SDT have been tested in cross-culture contexts. A study by Jang et al. (2009) which tested the principles of SDT theory on Korean students confirmed the satisfaction of their psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) was associated with positive school functioning. Zhou et al. (2009) tested the relationship between teachers’ autonomy support and student motivation of rural Chinese children. The results showed that teachers’ autonomy support positively increased the children’s autonomous motivation. This study concluded that autonomy is important for the learning behaviours and experiences in eastern collectivist cultures. Kaur (2011) examined the effects of teachers’ autonomy support on students’ perceived autonomy support in Thailand. The result showed that Thai students significantly perceived autonomy support from the autonomy-supportive teachings. It is clear that autonomy in SDT is effectively compatible with cross-cultural students.

In conclusion, the definition of [learner] autonomy in this current study is the feeling of volition, choice and freedom by students. The opposite of autonomy is thus the feeling of being controlled and pressured. When teachers support learner autonomy, however, they are not supporting independence, self-learning, or the students to be more independent. It is clear that autonomy in this theory is somewhat more demarcated from autonomy as it is described in everyday usage or in other theoretical approaches to second language learning. In these approaches autonomy is regarded as the ability or capacity to take control or charge of one’s learning or independence. However, the definition of autonomy adopted by this study aligns more closely with the self-determination theory conceptualisation of autonomy, which, in language learning, represents the social dimension of autonomy as interdependence because it supports high relatedness. This concept emphasises the interaction between teachers and students rather than being independent from teachers.

## **2.4 Role of teachers**

According to Thai educational policy, the educational approach has been changed from a teacher-centred to student-centred approach as mentioned in Chapter 1. The role of Thai teachers also has been transformed to focus on students. Therefore, student-centred teachers can help learners by creating a learning environment (Blumberg, 2009). The learning environment

can be created by sharing power with students and encouraging them to make more choices and decisions (Benson, 2012; Cullen, Harris & Hill, 2012). Teachers can provide students with choices in their learning process by allowing them to choose content and making sure that they find activities relevant (Cullen et al., 2012). Furthermore, student-centred teachers encourage students to become intrinsically motivated to learn by providing interesting activities (Blumberg, 2009). Teachers should not encourage them to rely on extrinsic motivators, such as points for class participation, required reading assignments, and grades (Blumberg, 2009). These motivators can decrease their intrinsic motivation (Blumberg, 2009; Deci et al., 2001). The next part presents the role of teachers in motivating and fostering autonomy in second language learning and the role of teachers in self-determination theory.

#### **2.4.1 The teachers' role in second language learning**

The teacher plays a significant role in the development of student motivation and autonomy. Motivation research by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) concludes that teacher behaviour is the most important motivational factor. Dörnyei (2001a) states that 'appropriate teacher behaviour' should consist of enthusiasm, commitment to, and expectations for the students' learning, and good relationships with the students and the students' parents. Interestingly, establishing a good relationship with students is reflective of 'relatedness' in SDT.

Moreover, the teacher is also important for learner autonomy by assisting students to take greater involvement in their learning (Benson, 2001). Benson (2011) introduces teacher-based approaches to the development of autonomy which emphasise "the role of the teacher and teacher education in the practice of fostering autonomy among learners" (p. 126). For Benson, there are three roles the teacher may perform to foster autonomous learning: 1) as *facilitator* of learning and a helper whose role is to support learning, 2) as *counsellor* to give one-to-one suggestions, and 3) as *resource* or a source of knowledge (Voller & Benson, 1997). Voller and Benson (1997) characterise these teacher roles as the provider of psycho-social support and technical support. Psycho-social support combines with:

- the personal qualities of the facilitator (being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, empathic, open, non-judgmental)
- a capacity for motivating learners (encouraging commitment, dispersing uncertainty, helping learners to overcome obstacles, avoiding controlling them)
- an ability to raise learners' awareness (to 'decondition' them from preconceptions about learner and teacher roles, to help them perceive the utility of, or necessity for, autonomous learning)

The characteristics of technical support include:

- helping learners to plan and carry out their independent language learning by means of needs analysis (both learning and language needs), objective setting (both short- and long-term), work planning, selecting materials, and organising interactions
- helping learners to self-evaluate (assessing initial proficiency, monitoring progress, and peer- and self-assessment)
- helping learners to acquire the skills and knowledge needed to implement the above (by raising their awareness of language and learning, by providing learner training to help them to identify learning styles and appropriate learning strategies) (p. 102)

In the provision of psycho-social support, an important strategy for teachers to enhance their capacity to motivate the students is to avoid controlling practices. Thus, fostering autonomy can motivate students in a way similar to what is posited in SDT.

Benson (2011) states that teachers who want to foster learner autonomy must recognise and assert their own autonomy. In other words, good teachers must experience autonomy in order to foster autonomy in students. Thus, teacher autonomy is introduced into the teacher-based approach with emphasis on the teacher as a self-directed learner and self-practitioner (Benson, 2011). Therefore, teacher autonomy is evident when she or he: “a) experiences pedagogical strategies for autonomy as a student; b) reflects on these strategies as a teacher; and c) experiments with them in a field experience” (Benson, 2011, p. 196). However, Aoki (2002) argues that teacher autonomy is not related to learner autonomy. Teacher autonomy does not aim to support student autonomy development, according to the definition of teacher autonomy as “the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one’s own teaching” (Aoki, 2002, p. 111). This shows that, in second language learning, there seem to be various concepts of autonomy, for example, learner autonomy and teacher autonomy. In conclusion, the role of teachers and teaching practices in fostering learner autonomy in second language learning does not explicitly describe teaching practices or styles for teachers to facilitate learner autonomy.

#### **2.4.2 Teachers’ role in self-determination theory**

In the educational context, teachers most influence students’ ability to satisfy their basic psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Social contexts are very significant in this regard and a lot depends on the teachers’ manner or behaviour, which may enhance or thwart learner

motivation and internalisation (Ryan & Deci, 2002). An important factor in the creation of a classroom context that supports student motivation is the teachers' motivational style (Reeve, 2006). In order to explain explicitly the relationship between motivational styles and the psychological needs, Reeve (2006) introduced the dialectical framework based on SDT. In Figure 6, the upper arrow indicates that students can actively engage in the classroom activities as a result of inner motivation. The lower arrow indicates that teachers and classroom conditions can either nurture or decrease student motivation. For example, in a classroom where the teacher demonstrates an autonomy-supportive style, students perceive greater autonomy and positive functioning; whereas in a classroom where the teacher demonstrates a controlling style, the students are less active and lose interest.

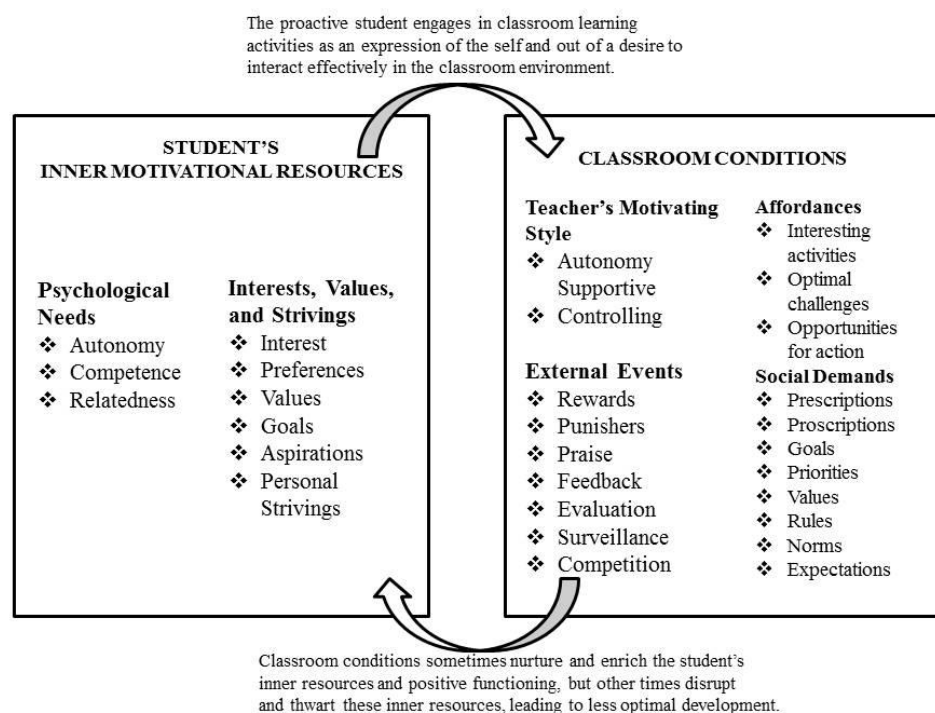


Figure 6 The dialectic framework within self-determination theory  
(Reeve, 2006, p. 227)

### *Autonomy-supportive style and practices*

An autonomy-supportive style from the teacher is very important for student motivation, engagement, and the achievement of learning outcomes. Indeed, an autonomy-supportive motivational style is demonstrated through acts of instruction to identify, nurture, and develop students' inner motivational resources such as their interests, preferences, goals and psychological needs (Reeve, 2006). Autonomy-supportive teaching is unique because it focuses



on acknowledging students' perspectives and stimulating their inner motivational resources (Reeve & Halusic, 2009). An autonomy-supportive style is therefore a student-centred approach (Reeve, 1996).

Although, teachers cannot give the experience of autonomy to students directly, they can support and enhance autonomous experiences. This is accomplished by creating classroom opportunities for students to align their inner resources with the classroom activity and by interacting with the students as learners (Reeve & Jang, 2006). Many SDT researchers have conducted experiments to identify what autonomy-supportive and controlling teachers do in order to achieve autonomy-supportive styles (Assor, Kaplan & Roth, 2002; Flink, Boggiano & Barrett, 1990; Reeve, Bolt & Cai, 1999; Reeve & Jang, 2006). In response to these studies, Reeve and Halusic (2009) identified three broad motivational approaches to support autonomy: a) adopt the learners' perspective, b) welcome students' thoughts, and feeling and behaviours, and c) support students' motivational development and capacity for autonomous self-regulation (p. 162).

Moreover, five instructional behaviours were identified which support learners' autonomous motivation (Jang, Reeve & Deci, 2010; Reeve, 2009; Reeve & Jang, 2006):

1. Nurture inner motivational resources such as introducing a new interest, learning or activity to increase their students' needs for competence, relatedness and autonomy, giving choice, asking students' preferences, giving opportunity for students to talk, offering interest, enjoyment, sense of challenge, creating opportunities for initiative
2. Provide explanatory rationales to students when they face an uninteresting activity such as describing the value of the study
3. Rely on informational, non-controlling language such as offering hints, providing encouragement, providing praise as informational and constructive feedback e.g., 'good job', 'very good', and 'that's great', identifying value, meaning, use, benefit, importance of requests
4. Display patience to allow time for self-paced learning to occur such as listening carefully, providing time for students to do their own work
5. Acknowledge and accept students' expressions of negative affect such as accepting negative comments from students

Many studies in SDT presented evidence that autonomy-supportive styles provide positive and effective results in education, for example, enhancing better engagement (Reeve, Deci & Ryan, 2004), psychological well-being (Black & Deci, 2000), higher intrinsic motivation

(Reeve, Nix & Hamm, 2003), higher creativity (Amabile, 1979), lower dropout rates (Vallerand, Fortier & Guay, 1997), and achievement (deCharms, 1976). It is clear that autonomy-supportive styles are very important for teachers in order to support the academic outcomes of students.

Autonomy-supportive styles aim to encourage students to have freedom to coordinate their inner motivational resources with how they spend their time in the classroom (Reeve, 2006). An autonomy-supportive style is opposite to a controlling style (Reeve, 2006). However, as noted earlier, an autonomy-supportive style does not exclude a significant role for the teacher and the provision of structure (Reeve, 2006). Structure refers to “the amount and clarity of information that teachers provide to students about expectations and ways of effectively achieving desired educational outcomes” (Jang et al., 2010, p. 589). An autonomy-supportive style needs to have a relation to structure. Reeve (2006) mentions that “a lack of structure yields not an autonomy-supportive environment but instead one that is permissive, indulgent, or laissez-faire” (p. 231). Teachers give structure to students by three categories of instructional behaviour: (a) present clear, understandable, explicit, and detailed directions; (b) offer a program of action to guide students’ ongoing activity; and (c) offer constructive feedback on how students can gain control over valued outcomes (Jang et al., 2010, p. 590). Rather than being antagonistic to students’ perceptions of autonomy, these aspects of structure enable students to engage more autonomously and benefit more from the learning process.

### ***Controlling style and practices***

A controlling style is likely to reflect a teacher-centred approach (Reeve, 1996). It will include behaviours or instructions by teachers that pressure students to think or behave in a specific way (Reeve, 2009). Teachers use controlling practices to manipulate students’ perspectives and behaviours. They control students by using rewards, deadlines, imposed goals, surveillance, directives, incentives, threats of punishment and evaluation (Deci et al., 1991; Ryan & Deci, 2002). Moreover, the controlling teacher typically assigns priority to his or her perspective and as a result neglects students’ opinions. Indeed, students are not encouraged to think for themselves or to take the initiative in the classroom. Therefore, the effect of a controlling style is to undermine students’ intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999; Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner & Kauffman, 1982). There are three main instructional practices are that associated with a controlling teaching style (Jang et al., 2010; Reeve, 2009):

- 1.) Relying on external sources of motivation such as offering rewards, incentives, consequences, directives, making assignments, and seeking compliance

2.) Relying on pressure-inducing (controlling) language such as uttering ‘should’, ‘must’ or ‘have to’, pressuring, ego-involving, and neglecting the value, meaning, use, benefit, importance of requests

3.) Countering and trying to change students’ negative affect, such as blocking/countering expressions of negative affect, and that negative affect is not ok, is unacceptable, is something to be changed/fixed

Reeve (2009) describes seven reasons why teachers adopt a controlling motivating style. The first reason is that teachers have an inherently powerful social role, so that their interactions with students take place within a context of a considerable difference in interpersonal power between themselves and their students. This leads teachers to adopt a controlling style because their occupation gives them power and authority over students.

Reeve’s second reason involves teachers’ burdens of considerable responsibility and accountability. Their job conditions mean that they are routinely held responsible for both student behaviour and outcomes. Outside forces (e.g., administrators, state standards, high-stakes testing, parents, and media reports) often place on teachers these twofold burdens of responsibility and accountability. For example, Taylor, Ntoumanis, and Smith (2009) found that the social context of student assessment and time constrains physical education teachers in the use of motivational strategies. Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque, and Legault (2002) also found that the more teachers are pressured by the curriculum, the less they perceive themselves as self-determined towards their teaching.

The third reason is that teachers are aware, in the U.S. and elsewhere, that being in control in the classroom is culturally highly valued, so that teachers who adopt controlling instructional strategies are generally considered to be more competent than teachers who use autonomy supportive strategies. Teachers want to be viewed as competent and also the school context pushes teachers to adopt a controlling style.

Reeve’s fourth reason is that teachers tend to equate control in the classroom with structure in the learning environment. This means that controlling strategies are often seen to be evidence of a structured learning situation whereas autonomy supportive strategies may be viewed as chaotic or laissez-faire. Therefore teachers adopt a controlling style to provide classroom structure, because teachers do not want to lose control over their classroom. In the same way, they may fear that an autonomy-supportive style will create chaos.

The fifth reason concerns teachers’ responses to student passivity. Teachers often adopt a controlling style during their lessons because they perceive that students have low motivation,

passivity and poor engagement. Such episodically unmotivated or unengaged students tend to pull out a controlling style from their teachers.

Reeve's sixth reason is based on teachers' beliefs, especially if they tend to endorse a "maximal-operant principle" of motivation. Thus, teachers who have developed such a belief about student motivation also adopt a controlling style, because they believe that a controlling style is more effective than an autonomy-supportive style.

The seventh and final reason in Reeve's explanation of why teachers adopt controlling styles is based on types of motivational orientations. Teachers may be motivated or disposed towards a controlling style because of their controlled orientation. Such teachers have non-autonomous motivation (high external regulation, high introjected regulation, low identified regulation, and low intrinsic motivation); so they are likely to use a controlling style.

### **2.4.3 Teachers' beliefs**

Teachers' beliefs are an important area of focus in educational research (see Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). According to Borg (2011), *beliefs* are "propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change." (pp. 370-371). Therefore, teachers' beliefs play a crucial role in shaping their teaching practices (Pajares, 1992). Richards (1998) asserted that "a primary source of teachers' classroom practices is their belief system – the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom" (p. 66). Bingimlas and Hanrahan (2010) also mention that "one of the factors that is believed to influence the implementation and establishment of new activities in the classroom is teacher beliefs" (p. 416). Furthermore, the study by Lamb (1995) confirms the importance of teachers' beliefs with the researcher concluding that teachers' beliefs should be explored along with teachers' practices in order to have a better understanding of their relationship.

For more than a decade, studies of language teaching have investigated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and teachers' practices (e.g., Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Richards, 1996, 1998; Woods, 1991). A number of studies found a significant association between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001; Gathbonton, 1999). Furthermore, some studies found inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Contextual factors present a particular constraint on achieving an alignment between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices (Phipps & Borg, 2007). Several

contextual factors such as language teaching policies, community factors, sociocultural factors, level of class, learning factors, teaching resources, testing factors etc. contribute to the complexities and inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and teaching practices (Richards, 1998). Borg (2006) concludes that contextual factors in fact mediate teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices.

#### **2.4.4 Teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy**

Investigations of language teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy have emerged in academic research in the recent years (Al-Busaidi & Al-Maamari, 2014; Balçıkanlı, 2010; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Chan, 2003). However, studies of English teachers' beliefs about the concept of learner autonomy have been given little attention (Al-Busaidi & Al-Maamari, 2014; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). Below are examples of research studies about English teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy from different countries.

Chan (2003) conducted a study of teachers' perspectives of autonomous language learning. The study primarily aimed to explore teachers' perspectives toward their roles and responsibilities, the assessment of their students' decision-making abilities, and autonomous language learning activities. Students and English teachers at Hong Kong Polytechnic University participated in the mixed-methods study with questionnaire surveys and focus group interviews used for data collection. The questionnaire items were based on the concept of learner autonomy as the ability to take charge of one's own learning (Holec, 1981). The findings showed the teachers believed their important roles and responsibilities were to make decisions in methodological aspects and to help students to assess their language learning. They believed that learner autonomy is important for language learning; however, they did not believe that the students were ready to be autonomous. The participants indicated that some contextual factors (e.g., curriculum, assessment systems, and teaching and learning process) may hinder the development of learner autonomy in language teaching and learning. This study recommended teachers allow students to exercise decision-making abilities in relation to the language learning process and that teachers should be flexible in their teaching.

Balçıkanlı (2010) explored student teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy according to Holec's (1981) conceptualisation of autonomy. The purpose of the study was to explore how student teachers view the importance of learner autonomy and the challenges or constraints in facilitating learner autonomy. The study sample comprised 112 undergraduates attending Gazi University in Turkey with questionnaire survey and focus group interviews used for data collection. The findings indicated that student teachers considered learner autonomy to be

important and that they were ready to allow students to practise decision-making processes in the classroom. However, they were also of the view that the main constraint in the development of learner autonomy in Turkey was the educational system and the teacher-centred approach which it endorsed. Balçıkanlı (2010) recommended student teachers be given the opportunity to experience autonomous learning processes by providing them with strategy training, out-of-class task activities, and portfolios from teacher educators.

Al-Busaidi and Al-Maamari (2014) explored English teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy and the source of their beliefs. Interviews were conducted with twenty English teachers at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman. The findings showed teachers conceptualised learner autonomy differently according to their personal experience and their perceptions of the concept. Their conceptualisation of learner autonomy mainly emerged from their language teaching, learning and professional development experiences. The study concluded that teacher conceptions of learner autonomy were based on their background, education and experience. The researcher recommended that future research explore teachers' actual classroom practices in order to investigate the effects of their perspectives.

The three examples of research studies identified above mainly explored teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy according to the conception of language learner autonomy proposed by Holec (1981). Mostly mixed-methods were used in the studies including questionnaire surveys and follow-up interviews. The overall findings revealed most English teachers from different contexts believed that learner autonomy was important for students. Furthermore, the studies indicated that contextual factors were the main constraints to hinder the development of learner autonomy. However, actual teaching practices for learner autonomy in language classrooms have not been explored.

## **2.5 Theoretical framework**

Self-determination theory provides this study with a theoretical base, methodologies, and methods for data analysis and interpretation. SDT has been widely applied in various research contexts (e.g., work, music, health, athletics, and education). In education, Reeve (2002) states that "applying self-determination theory to educational settings has proven to be a productive undertaking" (p. 199). Proponents of SDT contend that one of the most effective ways to foster motivation is to teach in a way that is supportive of student autonomy. Research over a number of decades across many educational settings – as well as in work environments, personal relationships, and in sports – has shown that autonomy-supportive teaching practices result in

more internalised and healthy forms of motivation, greater learning, and deeper valuing of that learning.

Therefore, it is appropriate to apply SDT in research into second language learning and as such there are important features of SDT related to this study. First, motivation is crucial for second language learners. This theory can explain the different types of motivation and distinguish the autonomous and the controlled types by identifying the reason students want to learn a second language. Second, autonomy should be emphasised because it is an important individual need and autonomy is an influential factor in student motivation. The theory posits a strong link between motivation and autonomy, and that the experience of autonomy may enhance or thwart motivation. Moreover, the significance of autonomy is universal and beneficial in both Western and Eastern cultures as confirmed by many empirical cross-cultural studies that apply the construct and the effect of autonomy on second language English education in Thailand. Third, the teacher's behaviour is an important factor for second language students' motivation. This approach explains explicitly the autonomy-supportive motivational styles for use by teachers. These styles positively reflect the need for autonomy in order to increase students' intrinsic motivation and internalisation.

There are a number of relevant studies of SDT in second language motivation in both individualist (D'Ailly, 2004; He, 2009; Noels, 2001; Noels et al., 1999; Noels et al., 2000) and collectivist contexts (Pae, 2008; Rajaletchumi, 2009; Wang, 2008). These studies focus mainly on students' second language learning motivation. However, the studies are limited in many regards and the research focus needs to be broadened to include teaching styles in second language classrooms. Thus, this study aims to explore teachers' beliefs and teaching practices based on SDT, the most comprehensive and appropriate theory for this study.

## **2.6 Summary**

This chapter introduced the importance of student motivation in second language learning by examining the theoretical approaches of Gardner and Lambert, as well as in relation to Dörnyei's theory, the investment theory of Norton and the self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan. This chapter also discussed the different conceptions of autonomy and explained which one was adopted for the present study. While many broad interpretations exist for the concept of autonomy (e.g., as independence, where the teacher has no role, and where students control their learning), studies in education and within language education demonstrate the efficacy of a concept of autonomy drawn from SDT.

Previous relevant research was examined and a gap was revealed between prior research on autonomy and teachers' actual behaviours or practices in the classroom. There has been significant research on the effect of autonomy with respect to students' perceptions of their language instructor. However, little is understood about teachers' use of autonomy-supportive practices in Thailand, particularly in second language learning. SDT was proposed as the theoretical framework through which to examine teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy, motivation and teaching practices. The next chapter discusses the methodology of this research.



### **3. METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter outlined the theories of motivation, the concept of autonomy according to various scholars, and the related teaching practices. This chapter begins by outlining the purpose of this research and the research questions. The three main methodologies implemented in this study are then presented. This chapter also explains the ethical considerations relevant to this research.

#### **3.2 Research purpose and research questions**

The aim of this research was to explore teachers' beliefs about autonomy and the teaching practices which foster learner autonomy and motivation in Thai classrooms and how teaching practices influence learner autonomy and motivation as mentioned in Chapter 1. To do so, it examined the relationship between teachers' beliefs about autonomy and their teaching practices. This research implemented various research methods to answer the following three research questions:

1. What are the broad understandings teachers have about autonomy and how does this relate to the teaching approaches of Thai English teachers?
2. What beliefs do autonomy-supportive teachers report about the nature of autonomy in relation to their teaching practices?
3. What is the relationship between what autonomy-supportive teachers believe and practise in their classrooms and their students' perceptions of their teaching practices?

In relation to the three phases of this research study, the first phase aimed to answer research question one by outlining the broad beliefs about autonomy held by the Thai English teachers in this study and by describing their teaching practices. Furthermore, this phase also functioned to identify and recruit autonomy-supportive teachers to answer research questions two and three. A brief questionnaire was used to collect data in this phase.

The second phase aimed to answer research question two by investigating the autonomy-supportive beliefs about autonomy, and the teachers' teaching practices. Interviews were used to collect data in this phase.

The third phase aimed to answer research question three by extending the results of Phase 2 through an in-depth investigation of the teachers' actual teaching practices in the classroom. The multiple case studies design was based on the collection of interview and classroom observation data. Furthermore, this phase aimed to explore the students' perceptions of their teachers' teaching practices using an open-ended questionnaire to understand students' experiences.

The next section discusses the three main methodologies in more detail.

### **3.3 The methodological approach**

The three main methodologies deployed in this research study were quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research. Quantitative research is used for testing hypotheses and validating constructed theories through the collection of numerical data (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004); it examines the relationships among variables by conducting a statistical analysis (Creswell, 2009). The strengths of quantitative research are that the researcher can generalise the results from different and large populations and test the theories behind the research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). However, a quantitative methodological design may not tap into understandings of populations in local contexts and individuals' perceptions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Quantitative methods typically involve the use of questionnaires or structured interviews (Dawson, 2007). It was therefore deemed appropriate to use a quantitative approach for Phase 1 of the study, as the aim of this phase was to garner only a broad snapshot of teachers' beliefs so the researcher could get a basic sense of the overall trends in teachers' beliefs about autonomy.

In contrast, qualitative research focuses on exploring and describing complex phenomena and the provision of rich textual data (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Qualitative research aims to research attitudes, behaviours and experiences in order to obtain the in-depth opinions of a small group of people (Dawson, 2007). Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) define qualitative research as "an exciting interdisciplinary landscape rich with perspectives on knowledge construction and enabled by a multitude of techniques available for generating knowledge" (p. 5). The strengths of qualitative research are that the researcher can describe complex phenomena, provide an understanding of individual case information, and compare and analyse across case studies (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). However, the findings from qualitative research may not be easily generalised to other people (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The data collection methods deployed in qualitative research are typically open-ended interviews, direct observation, written documents, case study, discourse analysis, and ethnography (Hesse-

Biber & Leavy, 2006; Patton, 2002). Qualitative approaches were adopted as the key focal point of the study, particularly in Phases 2 and 3. These phases aimed to look closely and deeply at the nature of teachers' beliefs and understandings about autonomy, as well as how these related to teachers' actual practices in the classroom. Therefore, rich discussion, interviews, and observations of behaviour were adopted as the qualitative methods for these phases.

Mixed methods research combines quantitative and qualitative research. Creswell and Clark (2007) define mixed methods research as a methodology involving:

...philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. (p. 5)

At present, Creswell and Clark (2011) stress that the core characteristics of mixed methods research combines methods and a philosophy, as well as a research design orientation. The researcher can use mixed methods research to collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data to answer research questions and to mix the two forms of data concurrently or sequentially (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Mixed methods research is beneficial because it applies the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research.

Furthermore, mixed methods research can complete the understanding of a research problem and provide additional insight (Creswell & Clark, 2011). For example, quantitative results can be used to inform the purpose and design of qualitative research and increase the generalisability of the results, while qualitative results can describe phenomena and provide understanding of people's personal viewpoints (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). However, conducting mixed methods research has some challenges in that it may require extensive time, resources, and effort from the researcher (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

Creswell and Clark (2011) advise that before conducting mixed methods research the researcher needs the necessary foundation (philosophical or theoretical) to provide the direction of the research (Creswell & Clark, 2011). A philosophical foundation is "a basic set of beliefs or assumptions that guide inquiries" (p. 39); whereas a theoretical foundation is "a stance or (lens or standpoint) taken by the research that provides direction for many phases of a mixed method project (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 47). Furthermore, the purpose of conducting mixed methods research needs to be considered. Bryman (2012) listed the reasons for mixing quantitative and qualitative research; namely, triangulation, offset, completeness, process, different research questions, explanation, unexpected results, instrument development, sampling, credibility,

context, illustration, utility, confirmation, diversity of views, and enhancement. The theoretical foundation of this study is self-determination theory, with the aim of testing the theory in relation to whether autonomy-supportive teachers use autonomy-supportive teaching styles in Thai classrooms. The reasons for conducting mixed methods research in Phases 1 and 2 were explanation and sampling. The reason for conducting qualitative research in Phase 3 was to provide in-depth information on individual cases.

After the purpose for conducting mixed methods research was established, Creswell and Clark (2011) provided two main key considerations when mixing the methods: priority, and timing. To clarify: priority is “the relative importance or weighting of the quantitative and qualitative methods of answering the study’s questions” (p. 65), for example, the notations are uppercase letters ‘QUAL’ as the qualitative methods are prioritized in the design and lowercase letters ‘quan’ as the quantitative methods are less prioritized. Timing is “the temporal relationship between the quantitative and qualitative strands within a study” (p. 65) and may be concurrent, sequential, or a multiphase combination. This study placed the qualitative method as a priority ‘QUAL’ because it focuses on participants’ beliefs, opinions and phenomena. The quantitative method was less prioritized as ‘quan’. This study conducted a sequential design whereby quantitative data collection and analysis was first carried out and then followed by qualitative data collection and analysis (quan → QUAL).

Creswell and Clark (2011) categorised six major mixed methods designs: convergent parallel, whereby quantitative and qualitative data are collected during a single phase; explanatory sequential, whereby the research starts with quantitative data collection and analysis and is followed by qualitative data collection and analysis; exploratory sequential, whereby the research starts with qualitative data collection and analysis and is followed by quantitative data collection and analysis; embedded, whereby “the researcher collects and analyses both quantitative and qualitative data within a traditional quantitative or qualitative design” (p. 71); transformative, whereby the researcher mixes the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis based on the theoretical framework; and multiphase, whereby the research “combines both sequential and concurrent strands over a period of time that the researcher implements within a program of study addressing an overall program objective” (p. 72). The mixed methods in this study followed the explanatory sequential design. Creswell and Clark (2011) divided the explanatory design into two variants: the follow-up explanation variant which proposes the use of qualitative results to explain the quantitative results; and the participant-selection variant which aims to guide the selection of participants for the qualitative phase based on the results of

the quantitative phase (e.g., the demographic characteristics). In this study, the participant-selection variant was used.

### **3.3.1 Quantitative and qualitative research in SDT**

Quantitative data collection methods support SDT research because the main objectives of SDT are to test assumptions about human needs and the hypotheses in laboratory experiments and field work (Ryan & Niemiec, 2009). Along with experimental approaches, scale survey instruments are important tools to assess different constructs of human motivation in SDT. However, some scholars argue that conducting quantitative research alone is inadequate as qualitative methods are also required to gain an in-depth understanding of the individual's perceptions and experiences (Renwick, 2008; Thaliah, 2009). The number of SDT studies using qualitative and mixed methods designs is increasing gradually. For example, Phan (2011), and Taylor et al. (2009) used only qualitative methods; whereas Renwick (2008) and Thaliah (2009) both used mixed methods. Although SDT prefers quantitative methods, qualitative methods can still be employed in research applying SDT. As Ryan and Niemiec (2009) argued, "SDT is allied with qualitative and critical theories in understanding the situational nature of learning and growth, and the importance of the individual's frame of reference in shaping meanings and the behaviours that follow from them" (p. 268). Therefore, mixed methods research and qualitative research can be and have been adopted successfully in SDT research.

### **3.3.2 Implementation of mixed methods and qualitative design**

As previously established, this research study combined three phases as illustrated in Figure 7. The design in Phases 1 and 2 of this study was mixed methods research. The design in Phase 3 was qualitative research only. The mixed methods design was implemented by mixing the quantitative data collection and analysis of Phase 1 with the qualitative data collection and analysis of Phase 2. The quantitative results in Phase 1 informed the participant characteristics information for selecting the follow-up participants in the qualitative research for Phase 2. Furthermore, the quantitative results provide their beliefs about autonomy and teaching practices. Following this, the qualitative Phase 2 was conducted via interviews with autonomy-supportive teachers in order to gain an understanding of their personal viewpoints, to answer research question two.

The qualitative design was conducted in Phase 3 which adopted a multiple case studies approach. A case study is "an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system" (Merriam, 2009, p. 40). The qualitative interviews and classroom observations were used to explore the

autonomy-supportive teachers' perceptions of autonomy and their actual teaching practices in the classroom. The purpose of this phase was to more deeply understand the autonomy-supportive teachers' beliefs and actual teaching practices. Furthermore, open-ended questions were used to explore students' perceptions of the actual teaching practices in the classroom. The reason for using open-ended questions was to allow the students to write down their feeling and attitudes freely.

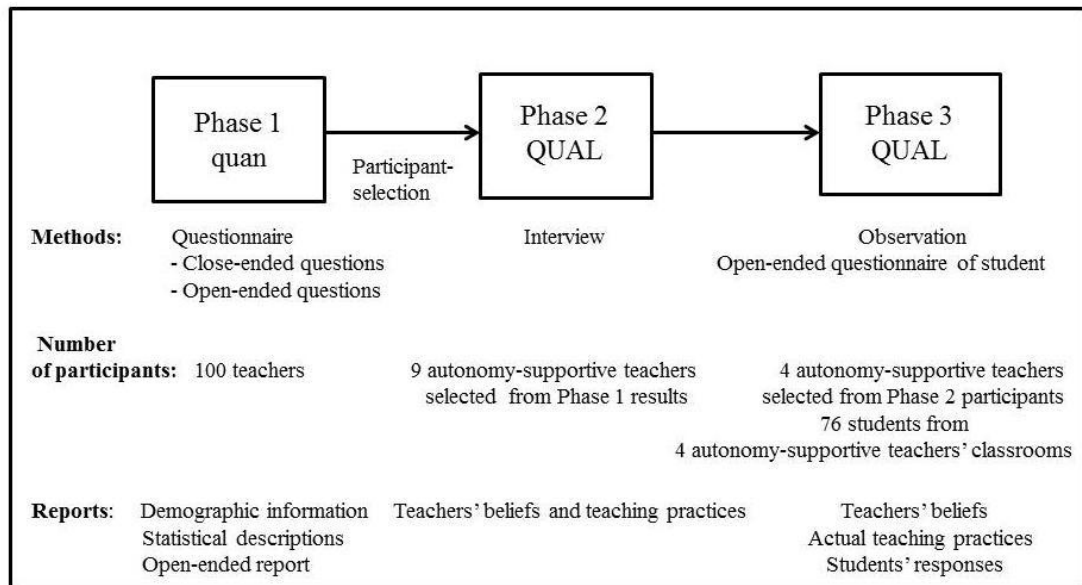


Figure 7 Summary of three phases

### 3.4 Phase 1: Teachers' questionnaire

This quantitative research phase focused on the generation of numerical data via the collection and analysis of questionnaire responses. This phase consists of data collection, design of questionnaire, participant selection, procedure, and data analysis.

#### 3.4.1 Survey design

Phase 1 used questionnaires for data collection, a widely used data collection instrument in social sciences (Hoyle, Harris & Judd, 2002). J. D. Brown (2001) defines questionnaires as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react, either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (p. 6). The function of a questionnaire is to gather information on the backgrounds, behaviours, beliefs, or attitudes of a large number of people (Neuman, 2006). The advantages of questionnaires are the avoidance of interviewer bias, low cost, and reduced pressure for

immediate response (Hoyle et al., 2002). However, low response rates and the incompleteness of responses to questions are the disadvantages of using questionnaires (Hoyle et al., 2002).

A cross-sectional survey is “designed to answer descriptive or correlational research questions concerning events or a situation at a particular point in time” (Hall, 2008, p. 99). Furthermore, a questionnaire may include close-ended questions and/or open-ended questions. Close-ended questions are those where the answers are provided and the participant is required to tick a box. In contrast, open-ended questions are those where a blank space is provided for the participants to write the answers freely (Dawson, 2007). Each type of question has advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of close-ended questions are that they are easy to answer and analyse, thus being more time-effective, but the disadvantage is that the responses may not vary and not be parallel to the participants’ genuine opinions (Dawson, 2007). For open-ended questions, the advantage is that they openly allow the participants to share new ideas. The main disadvantage is that they may take a long time to analyse (Dawson, 2007).

The questionnaire used in this study was a cross-sectional survey combining close-ended and open-ended questions. Use of the questionnaire instrument in this study aimed to obtain participants’ demographic information and to distinguish autonomy-supportive and controlling teachers in order to choose the most qualified participants for further study. Furthermore, it aimed to collect data to facilitate a broad understanding of autonomy and teaching practices. The questionnaire title was Thai EFL university lecturers’ questionnaire (Appendix A). The English version questionnaire was used to collect data because the participants were Thai university lecturers teaching English and, as such, highly proficient in the use of the English language. The questionnaire comprised three parts: items to collect personal demographic information such as gender, age, and length of teaching experience; items to collect information about participant’s perceptions of autonomy-supportive styles; and seven open-ended questions about the participant’s perception of autonomy and teaching practices. The second and third parts of the questionnaire are illustrated below.

#### ***Autonomy-supportive teaching styles***

The second part of the questionnaire used the problems in schools (PIS) questionnaire based on self-determination theory. This questionnaire was first introduced by Deci et al. (1981). The questionnaire was designed for use in schools and to be completed by teachers in order to assess whether they tended to be controlling or autonomy-supportive with their students. The questionnaires contained eight vignettes that described motivation-related problems that children face in schools. Each vignette provided four ways a teacher might solve the problem, and each way represented a point along a continuum that extended from highly

controlling (HC) to highly autonomy-supportive (HA). Reeve et al. (1999) explain the four teacher-solutions continuums as follows. For the HC response, the teacher identifies a solution and uses rewards or tangible extrinsic motivators to encourage appropriate behaviours. For the moderately controlling (MC) response, the teacher identifies a solution and encourages its implementation by invoking guilt or obligation (“do what you should”) or notions of what others think is right (“it is for your own good”). For the moderately autonomy-supportive (MA) response, the teacher encourages the child to consider how his or her peers understand, diagnose, and solve the same problem. For the highly autonomy-supportive (HA) response, the teacher encourages the child to diagnose the problem, generate a solution, and try it out for him or herself. For each problem, the respondents rated the effectiveness of each of the four solutions on a separate 7 point Likert-type scale. A relative autonomy index (RAI) was computed by averaging its eight responses, and the four scores were combined as follows: motivating style =  $2(\text{HA}) + 1(\text{MA}) - 1(\text{MC}) - 2(\text{HC})$  (Deci et al., 1981). The possible RAI range was -18 to 18, with negative scores reflecting a relatively controlling motivating style and positive scores reflecting a relatively autonomy-supportive style.

### ***Beliefs about autonomy***

The third part of the questionnaire instrument used in this study consisted of seven short open-ended questions. It aimed to gain further information from the respondents about attitudes, feelings and their understanding of autonomy, and to provide the opportunity for them to express themselves freely and openly. The open-ended questions were:

1. What do you think the role of a teacher is in the university classroom?
2. How do you motivate your students to learn English?
3. What are some challenges or problems you face in motivating students to learn English?
4. What do you understand ‘autonomy’ to mean?
5. Do you consider ‘autonomy’ important for students? Why? Why not?
6. What do you do to support your students’ autonomy?
7. What are some challenges or problems you face in supporting student autonomy in Thai university classes?

### ***Validity of questionnaire***

Validity is whether an instrument actually measures what it sets out to measure (Field, 2013). The questionnaire in this study was measured by content validity or the degree to which individual items represented the construct being measured and covered the full range of the construct (Field, 2013). Content validity aims to make sure the test covers the appropriate content so the researcher has to review the items in the measurement instrument to determine the degree to which they show the sample of the behaviour domain of interest in the research



(Mertens, 2005). Content validity can be proved by judgements from content experts (Mertens, 2005). The validity of the PIS has been established (Deci et al., 1981). The validity of the questionnaire was proved by two experts in motivation and self-determination theory. Once the experts approved the content of the instrument it was employed for use in this study.

### **3.4.2 Participant selection**

The sampling method used in this study represented a non-probability sampling approach. Non-probability sampling is used to select the sample purposefully (Merriam, 2009). This study employed the non-probability method because the participants should be relevant to the research topic and questions. The participants in this study were Thai teachers of English at universities. The criteria for participation were: 1) a native Thai born in Thailand; and 2) is currently teaching an English course at a university in Thailand. Snowball sampling was used to select participants. This sampling method is “a multistage sampling procedure by which a small initial sample “snowballs” into a sample large enough to meet the requirements of research design and data analysis” (Hoyle et al., 2002, p. 188). In other words, the researcher contacts the initial sample and asks the participants to refer others who meet the criteria for inclusion (Merriam, 2009).

### **3.4.3 Procedure**

The questionnaire was pre-tested by two English Thai lecturers from different universities. The objective of pre-testing prior to conducting the research was to ensure the questionnaire was understandable, clear, and effective. After receiving comments or suggestions from the pre-test participants the questionnaire was reviewed and edited. The questionnaire was then uploaded into the Keysurvey Web Survey Account at the University of New South Wales.

Following this, the researcher listed the email addresses and contact numbers of the English teachers the researcher knew. The researcher searched the names of English Department heads at various universities in different regions of Thailand (including the capital city of Thailand, Bangkok, as well as the Northern, North eastern, and Southern regions) to achieve diversity in the websites. The researcher then listed the email addresses and contact numbers. The researcher first sent an email to each of the English lecturers the researcher knew. The email contained the participant information statement (Appendix L). The information statement provided details to the participants about the researcher, the purpose of the study, the participation criteria, the ethical considerations, and the URL link to the online survey.

Subsequent to this, the researcher sent emails to the remaining group of English Department heads from the list. The researcher wrote an invitation letter to the Head of English Department (Appendix M) and attached the participant information statement with the email. The potential participants were asked to provide email addresses of English teachers to the researcher, or to forward a link to the online survey on the researcher's behalf. When the questionnaire was completed a notification email was sent to the researcher. Fifty-six respondents completed the online survey.

The number of respondents was low due to the use of the online survey and the possibility that some participants had limited access to a computer and/or the internet. As Hall (2008) mentioned, response rate is the main problem associated with the use of online or mail questionnaires. In light of Fowler's (2009) suggestion that self-administered surveys can deliver higher response rates, I also contacted the English Department administrative staff at the universities located in my hometown, Chiang Mai, and handed the questionnaires to them personally. The administrative staff then delivered and collected the questionnaires from the English lecturers and I then collected the questionnaires from them. I also mailed the surveys to English Department heads at other universities in Central Thailand. Upon completion the questionnaires were then mailed them back to me. I received forty-four responses. Hence, a total of 100 Thai English lecturers across Thailand completed the questionnaire.

#### **3.4.4 Data analysis**

Analysis of the questionnaire data was divided into two stages. The first stage was to analyse the reliability of the PIS survey; and the second stage was to conduct a content analysis of the seven open-ended responses.

##### ***Reliability of questionnaire***

Cronbach's coefficient alpha approach was used to measure the reliability of PIS questionnaire. This approach is appropriate when the instrument has been designed to measure a particular attribute that is expected to manifest a high degree of internal consistency (Mertens, 2005). Cronbach's alpha coefficient is the most common measure of scale reliability (Field, 2013). According to Mertens (2005), correlation coefficients range from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating perfect reliability. Most reliability coefficients range from 0.75 to 0.95 (Mertens, 2005). However, in Social Science research, .60 is acceptable (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). For this study, anything less than 0.60 would indicate the presence of error. In previous studies using the PIS questionnaire, the Cronbach coefficient alpha values for the four subscales

were from .63 to .76 (Deci et al., 1981) from .69 to .79 (Reeve et al., 1999), and from .65 to .73 (D'Ailly, 2003).

### ***Content analysis***

The responses to the qualitative, open-ended questions in the survey were subjected to content analysis. Content analysis was undertaken to quantify the respondents' answers within the categorised themes. It aimed to show the broad understanding of teachers' beliefs about autonomy and teaching practices. Content analysis is "an approach to the analysis of documents and texts that seeks to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable manner" (Bryman, 2012, p. 290). In other words, content analysis aims to analyse content of written, text or speech.

In this study, the responses were read several times in order to code and categorise them according to emergent themes. The thematic data were then analysed for convergences and contrasts. Conclusions were drawn related to the main themes to emerge from the coded data. The participants were then assigned a number and each participant's responses were then categorised within the designated themes. Each theme contained the assigned number of participants and the total number of participants. In order to check the validity of the results for each theme, two fellow doctoral candidates recoded each response and categorised them in the same theme. The two students' results were then compared to and reviewed against the researcher's results. The results of this phase are demonstrated in the following chapter.

## **3.5 Phase 2: Interview**

The second phase of the process was a qualitative interview to deeply understand the perspectives of the participants as they articulated their beliefs about autonomy and enacted them in the classroom. This phase consisted of data collection, participant selection, and procedure.

### **3.5.1 Data collection**

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) define the qualitative research interview as "a conversation that has a structure and a purpose. It goes beyond the spontaneous exchange of views in everyday conversations, and becomes a careful questioning and listening approach with the purpose of obtaining thoroughly tested knowledge" (p. 3). It is used "to understand the world from the subjects' points of view, to unfold the meaning of their experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 1). There are three types of interviews: open-ended; semi-structured; and structured. First, an open-ended interview

format is used to encourage the subject to talk in the area of interest and then probe the responses more deeply (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). Second, the semi-structured interview format – favoured by education researchers – is used to gain depth of information as it provides the interviewer with the opportunity to probe into and elaborate on the participant's responses (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Furthermore, the advantage of a semi-structured interview format is the option to pursue topics of interest which may not have been foreseen (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Lastly, a semi-structured interview format has great flexibility and is used by researchers to extract targeted and detailed information from participants. The semi-structured interview also has the advantage of helping to reduce interviewer bias and leads to easier analysis of data (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995).

This research study used semi-structured interviews because they offered the greatest potential to gain in-depth information and for the researcher to control the questions. The semi-structured interview method also provided the respondents with a degree of power and control, and provided the interviewer with more flexibility (Nunan, 1992). Furthermore, T.-Y. Kim (2006) asserted that the semi-structured format is the most appropriate for qualitative inquiry on second language motivation.

The interviews were conducted in Thai because it is the native language of the participants and therefore made it easier for them to understand the questions and talk about their views. The interview protocol consisted of twenty-four items in the Thai language (Appendix B). The English interview questions were translated into the Thai language. The translated questions were checked and reviewed by a Thai-English translator. The questions were then amended according to the feedback. The English version of the interview protocol is shown below.

1. What do you think the role of a teacher is in the university classroom?
2. How do you motivate your students to learn English?
3. What are some challenges or problems you face in motivating students to learn English?
4. What do you understand 'autonomy' to mean?
5. What do you do to support your students' autonomy?
6. What are some challenges or problems you face in supporting student autonomy in Thai university classes?
7. What do you think about the student-centred approach to teaching?
8. Can you describe what teaching methods you employ in a student-centred approach?
9. What is the main problem or obstacle in your English teaching when applying a learner-centred approach?

10. In what way(s) do you suggest to students that they need to make improvements?
11. How do you enhance students' interest in studying English?
12. How do you help students to study English autonomously?
13. What do you do to encourage students to have a positive attitude towards the study of English?
14. How do you encourage students to learn English?
15. How do you make students realise the importance of learning English?
16. How do you encourage students to be involved in their learning?
17. Can you describe one of your recent lessons that you thought went very well?
18. What were the strategies and activities that you chose? Why? How?
19. What kinds of activities do you think students enjoy when learning English?
20. What is your main goal when teaching English?
21. What are your expectations of your students?
22. How do you deal with a student who is non-active or unmotivated in the classroom?
23. How do you deal with a student who is active or very motivated in the classroom?
24. How do you deal with a student who is at an "average" level?

The interview protocol consisted of five parts. Items 1 to 6 were the same questions as appeared in the open-ended questionnaires. The purpose of these questions was to gain more detailed explanations of the questionnaire responses in order to achieve a deeper level of understanding. Items 7 to 9 were about the student-centred approach in teaching and were designed to explore the teachers' attitude towards this approach and its relation to autonomy. Items 10 to 19 pertained to teaching practices related to motivating and facilitating student autonomy. The items aimed to investigate what and how the autonomy-supportive teachers motivated students to learn. Items 20 and 21 were related to teaching goals and aimed to explore teacher motivation. Items 22 to 24 focused on the way teachers motivated students who presented with different levels of activity and motivation in the classroom. The questions attempted to explore what teaching practices they use with different groups of students.

### **3.5.2 Participant selection**

Participants for the semi-structured interviews were recruited on the basis of their response to the final question in the questionnaire instrument deployed in Phase 1. Thirty respondents were willing to participate in this phase. The participants were recruited on the basis of predetermined criteria (Patton, 2002). According to the results of Phase 1, the criteria

for selecting participants were a high RAI (relative autonomy index) score and they were studying or had completed a Master's degree or Doctoral degree (see section 5.2). On the basis of these criteria, participants were regarded as autonomy-supportive. In this phase, nine teachers were recruited based on the criteria. The pseudonyms assigned to the nine teachers were Vanida, Saithip, Yuwadee, Lanna, Kanda, Somkid, Kittiphong, Malinee, and Nittaya.

### **3.5.3 Procedure**

The participants were first contacted to determine whether they were prepared to volunteer to participate in this research, using the mobile phone numbers or emails addresses provided. The willing participants then provided the time and place to be interviewed. All were interviewed at the university at which they worked. Two participants worked at universities located in Central Thailand, while seven participants worked in the North. Upon meeting each of the participants, a rapport was built by introducing myself to the participants and by asking general questions. The purpose of the research was re-stated and the interview period was outlined. Participants were asked to consent to having the interview recorded in order to transcribe and analyse the data. Participants were then asked to read the participant information statement and consent form (Appendix N). The ethical considerations were outlined and participants were assured that all information would remain confidential and also that their identities would remain anonymous. It was explained that all participants were free to withdraw their consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice. After the consent form was signed, the audio recorder was activated and the interview commenced.

### **3.5.4 Data analysis**

The first stage of the data analysis process was to transcribe the participants' interview responses. Transcription is an important first step in data analysis (Duff, 2008). Transcribing is the method undertaken to transform an oral conversation between the participant and interviewer into written form (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The interviews were transcribed using Nvivo. Nvivo is a computer-assisted tool that helps the researcher to analyse data (Yin, 2009). The program helped to make the transcription process easier for this researcher because it was possible to pause and adjust the playing speed in order to type the dialogue along with the audio recording. When the transcribing process was completed the contents were rechecked by listening to the audio recordings for a second time. In this study, the purpose of transcription was to focus on the subjects' accounts rather than on the detailed linguistic or conversational analysis (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

The Thai transcriptions underwent a thematic analysis. Bryman (2012) defines a theme as; “a category identified by the analyst through his/her data that relates to his/her research focus (and quite possibly the research questions)” (p. 580). The transcriptions were read several times and the themes to emerge from the data were written down. Similar themes were combined into groups and then categorised under main themes. The participant pseudonyms and segments were labelled with the source data from the page number of the transcription. The Thai transcriptions (Appendix C) were translated into English which were then checked and reviewed by Thai-English professional translators (Appendix D). The results of the thematic analysis are reported in Chapter 5.

### **3.6 Phase 3: Case study**

The third phase was qualitative research which provided thick and rich description of textual data. This phase included case study research to gain in-depth understanding of a particular autonomy-supportive teacher’s beliefs and actual teaching practices in the classroom. Merriam (2009) defines qualitative case study:

...in term of the process of actually carrying out the investigation, the unit of analysis (the bounded system, the case), or the end product. As the product of an investigation, a case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit. (p. 46)

In the same way, Yin (2009) defines a case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 18). Stake (2000) also mentions that the purpose of a case study is not to represent the world, but represent the case in order to suggest the complexity of that world and to help establish the limits of generalisation. The advantages of a case study design are that it represents a multiplicity of viewpoints and offers support to alternative interpretations, and it also provides a database of materials that may be reinterpreted by future research (Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

The purpose of this phase aimed to expand the results of Phase 2 and to better understand the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and actual teaching practices. Furthermore, it also aimed to provide clear evidence of the boundaries between actual teaching practices and the classroom context. In SDT, the teaching style creates the classroom context which is the main

influence on student motivation (Reeve, 2002). Therefore, this phase investigated the actual teaching practices that may affect student motivation.

### **3.6.1 Data collection**

Researcher observation was used to explore the teachers' actual teaching practices and the open-ended items on the student questionnaire were used to investigate the students' perceptions in the classroom.

#### ***Observation***

Observation is the act of viewing people's behaviours as they naturally occur in terms that appear to be meaningful to the people involved (Mertens, 2005). "Observation is a direct firsthand eyewitness account of everyday social action, having always been regarded as essential to answering the classic fieldwork question "What's going on here?" (Schwandt, 2007, p. 211). This method is distinctive because the researcher approaches participants in their own environment rather than having the participants come to the researcher (Mack, Woodson, Macqueen, Guest & Namey, 2005). Thus, observation can be used to gain close understanding of a participant's actions.

Video and audio recording are important observational techniques that record the actions or behaviours of the participants in the nominated environment. Video is used a great deal in observational work and is a crucial technique for collecting research data (McDonough & McDonough, 1997). Video and audio recordings were employed in this phase because the actions and behaviours of the participants were integral to answering the research questions. As such, this technique assisted the researcher to analyse the data collected because it enabled her to recheck the data by rewinding the video and audio recording. In addition, notes were made pertaining to the participants' actions and statements in the classroom as well as to the students' reactions. This was beneficial as it facilitated a deeper understanding of the teachers' behaviours while instructing learners in order to determine whether they implemented autonomy-supportive teaching practices, as well as to observe the current classroom contexts.

The aim of this phase was to investigate teachers' actual teaching practices in the classroom. Thus, the researcher's main role was as a non-participant observer. As a non-participant observer the researcher is present in the classroom, but does not interact with the participants (Hall, 2008). When conducting the observation, the researcher sat at the back of the classroom so as to minimise her presence in the classroom. The teachers' actions could be observed directly and information about the way they motivated learners could be obtained. Furthermore, a field note form (Appendix E) was used as a tool to collect data. Indeed, field



notes comprise the main source of observation data as they contain descriptions of what has been observed as well as the observer's feeling and reactions to the experience (Hall, 2008; Patton, 2002). In this study, filed notes were used to provide information about the setting, interactions between teachers and students, learning activities, what the participants said, and the researcher's reflections during the observation. Each teacher was observed on two occasions, with the video recording of each session approximately one hour and thirty minutes duration. One video camera was positioned on a tripod at the front of the classroom and one on a tripod at the back of the classroom.

### ***Open-ended questionnaires***

Open-ended questionnaires are used to allow participants to share new ideas openly and freely (Dawson, 2007). In this study, the open-ended questionnaire (Appendix I) was employed on the students in the classrooms. The questionnaire consisted of six items which required the students to describe their feeling about learning English (e.g., How do you feel about learning English in this class? and, What is your favourite activity in this class? Why?). The questionnaire intensively explored learners' opinions of English learning and their teachers' practices in order to triangulate the data and also to examine how the teaching practices affected to the students' levels of motivation.

This questionnaire was translated from English to Thai because Thai was easier for the students to understand. The translation of the questionnaire into Thai was accomplished by the researcher and then sent to three professionals in English and Thai for feedback. After revising the questionnaire, the back translation procedure was used to verify the translation. Back translation is a procedure whereby the translated instrument is translated back into the original language (Chapman & Carter, 1979; Geisinger, 1994). The back translation process helps to ensure similarity of cross-cultural meaning (Geisinger, 1994). The Thai questions were sent to a Thai-English professional translator to translate back into English. Following this process, the back translation questionnaire (Appendix J) was sent back to the researcher to be reviewed and checked for meaning.

### **3.6.2 Participant selection**

The participants to be observed for data collection were recruited from the group of nine autonomy-supportive teachers participating in Phase 2. Four autonomy-supportive teachers volunteered to be case studies for observation: Vanida, Saithip, Yuwadee, and Lanna. The remaining five teachers from Phase 2 declined to participate further in the research or were unavailable for the researcher to observe their classes. The aim of undertaking multiple case

studies was to enable comparisons and contrasts to be drawn between different teaching practices and to ensure a wide-ranging discussion to fulfil the main purpose of the research. Students of the four autonomy-supportive teachers were recruited from the four observed classrooms on the basis of their responses to the open-ended questionnaire. Seventy-six students (52 females and 24 males) from four different campuses indicated that they were willing to participate in this research by signing the consent form. No students declined participating in Phase 3.

### **3.6.3 Procedure**

Four teachers were willing to be interviewed and to have their classroom practices observed. Each participant was contacted to arrange a time for interview and observation, with Vanida and Saithip available for interview before the observation phase and Yuwadee and Lanna available for interview after the first class observation. The interview mainly focused on the teachers' beliefs about autonomy and their teaching practices in general.

In terms of ethical considerations, permission was sought from the head of the English Department at each university before conducting the lesson observations. In addition, during the first lesson observation for each participant, English and Thai copies of the participant information statement and consent form (Appendix O and Appendix P) were provided to the teacher and students, respectively. The teacher and student participants signed the respective consent forms which were then collected and filed.

At the commencement of the lesson the video recorders positioned at the front and back of the room were activated along with one audio recorder positioned on the teacher's desk at the front of the classroom and one audio recorder positioned on a table at the back of the class. Two audio recorders were used to ensure the integrity of the data during the subsequent transcribing process. Field notes were also generated by the researcher who was positioned at the back of the classroom.

Upon completion of the second observation of each teacher the students were asked to answer the open-ended questionnaire items while remaining in the classroom. Prior to commencing the students were reminded by the researcher of the purpose of the survey and of the relevant ethical considerations; namely, that all responses would be remain confidential, all identities would remain anonymous, and their participation would not affect their grades. The students were given 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire before they were collected and filed.

#### **3.6.4 Data analysis**

The video and audio recorded data were transcribed with the aim of focusing on the contents of the participants' words or phrases rather than to undertake a detailed linguistic or conversational analysis (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The open-ended questionnaire responses from the students in each classroom were typed and grouped according to each separate item. The responses were written in Thai and were therefore translated into English by the researcher before being reviewed and rechecked by the Thai-English translator.

The open-ended questionnaire responses from Phase 1 of the data collection and the interview transcriptions of each case study teacher from Phase 2 contained details of each teacher's beliefs about student autonomy. Therefore, this data, along with the observation data consisting of researcher-generated field notes (Appendix F and Appendix G) and audio transcriptions (Appendix H), and open-ended questionnaire responses from the students were subjected in this phase to thematic analysis. Each of the data sources was read to identify similar themes across the four groups, with each emergent theme subsequently coded for future reference.

The results for each individual case study were reported in the textual description and combined with the open-ended questionnaire responses, interview data, observation data, and the students' open-ended questionnaire responses, as illustrated in Figure 8. The observation excerpts were labelled with the source data from the class number (e.g., data from the first class = Class 1). In terms of the open-ended responses, the students were assigned a number and each response was labelled with the source data from the open-ended question number (e.g., the response of student number 1 from the question number one = Student 1, Q 1). Direct quotations from the open-ended questionnaire and interview data were labelled with the source data (e.g., Survey or Interview) and the page number of the survey or interview transcription page number (e.g., p. 1) respectively.

After the individual cases were analysed, a cross-case analysis was conducted to compare and generalise the results to gain an in-depth understanding and to facilitate explanation (Duff, 2008; Miles & Huberman, 1994). During the cross-case analysis, the analysed data of individual case studies was read to identify similarities and differences across the four case study results. The descriptions across the case studies were then integrated under the emergent themes. The single analysed results of the four case studies and the cross-case analysis results are reported in Chapter 6.

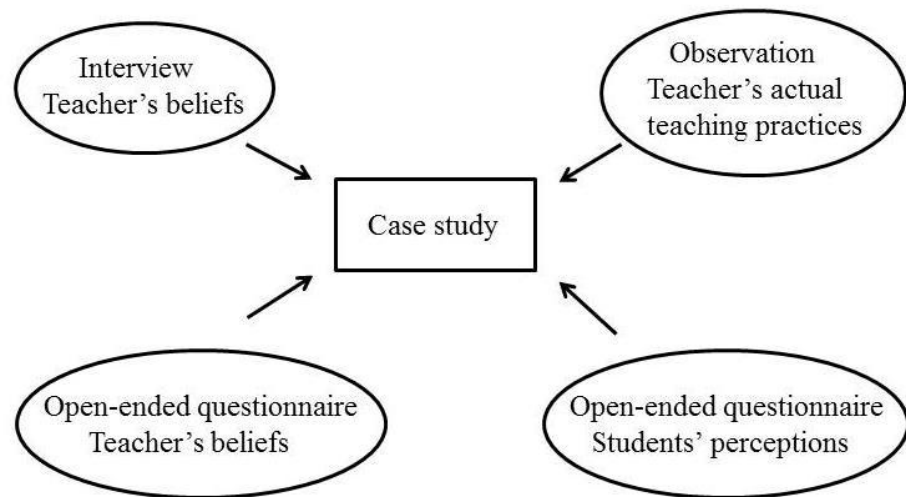


Figure 8 Case study data

### 3.7 Triangulation

Triangulation was used in this study to enhance the validity of the data. Triangulation is used “for checking the information that has been collected from different methods presenting consistency of evidence across sources of data” (Mertens, 2005, p. 255). Thus, qualitative data in this study were collected using multiple techniques including interview, observation, and the open-ended questionnaire responses from the students. This research aimed to explore teachers’ beliefs about autonomy and the teaching practices and how teaching practices influence learner autonomy and motivation. Therefore, the interview was deployed as one method to collect data to service this aim. In turn, classroom observation was utilised as a second data source and the open-ended questionnaire was used as a third data source to triangulate and strengthen the validity of the reported results.

### 3.8 Ethical issues

This research received ethical approval from the Human Research Ethics Advisory (HREA) panel at the University of New South Wales (Appendix K). The ethical considerations were outlined to participants and a signed consent form was obtained at the beginning of all data collection processes in this research. Furthermore, the participants received the research information and an invitation from the researcher. All participation in this research was voluntary. Only the participants who gave their informed consent were recorded. Participant anonymity was ensured for all collected data through the use of pseudonyms. Data were handled and stored in a confidential manner and only accessed by the researcher and supervisor.

### **3.9 Summary**

This chapter explains the methodology applied in this study. In summary, a mixed methods design consisting of quantitative and qualitative approaches was implemented in three stages. The first phase involved the collection and analysis of quantitative data related to the teacher questionnaire. This phase also aimed to inform the selection of autonomy-supportive teacher participants for Phase 2. As such, Phase 2 involved the collection and analysis of qualitative data related to teacher interviews. This phase proposed to explore the autonomy-supportive teachers' beliefs about autonomy as well as their teaching practices. The third phase comprised a multiple case study research approach which aimed to support an in-depth understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual teaching practices, and to obtain insights into students' perceptions of the actual teaching practices implemented within the classroom context. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the triangulation procedure deployed to enhance the validity of the study findings as well as the ethical issues relevant to this study. The next chapter presents the results of the Phase 1 data analysis to show the profiles of teachers in this study.

## 4. PHASE 1 RESULTS: PROFILE OF TEACHERS

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of Phase 1: Teachers' questionnaire survey. There are two main parts in this chapter. The first part provides the demographic profiles of participants. The second part shows the quantitative results of the problems in schools (PIS) questionnaire to show the descriptive statistics and internal consistency. The results of this survey aimed to select the high autonomy-supportive teachers for Phase 2. Furthermore, this part shows the open-ended findings from the last section of the survey, to explore the general university teachers' beliefs regarding autonomy and teaching practices.

### 4.2 Participants: Demographic characteristics

The participants were 100 Thai English teachers in public universities, aged between 21 and over 60. 34 of the participants were aged between 31 and 35, 20 were aged between 26 and 30 and 12 were aged between 51 and 55 respectively. 72 teachers were female and 28 were male. They were from different parts of Thailand: 47 teachers were from the North, 14 were from the North Eastern, 23 were from the Central, 1 was from the Western, 8 were from the Eastern and 7 were from the Southern part. Teachers had Master's degrees for 77 teachers, Doctoral degrees for 19 teachers and Bachelor's degrees for 4 teachers. 28 of them had more than 5-10 years teaching experience and 24 teachers had 1-3 years teaching experience. They mostly taught low intermediate Bachelor students with more than 30 students in one class.

Table 1 Demographic characteristics

Demographic	Category	Number
Nationality	Thai	100
Gender	Male	28
	Female	72
Age	21-25	2
	26-30	20
	31-35	34
	36-40	11
	41-45	11
	46-50	6
	51-55	12
	56-60	3
	Over 60	1

Education	Bachelor's degree	4
	Master's degree	77
	Doctoral degree	19
Place of Teaching	Northern	47
	North Eastern	14
	Central	23
	Eastern	8
	Western	1
	Southern	7
Years of Teaching Experience	Less than 1 year	2
	1-3 years	24
	More than 3-5 years	10
	More than 5-10 years	28
	More than 10-15 years	12
	More than 15-20 years	4
	More than 20-25 years	6
	More than 25-30 years	11
	More than 30-35 years	2
	More than 35-40 years	1
Academic degree of Teaching	Bachelor's degree	97
	Master's degree	24
	Doctoral degree	5
English proficiency of students	Elementary	45
	Low intermediate	80
	Intermediate	51
	High	15
	Advanced	5
Number of students in one class	Less than 20	16
	21-30	39
	31-40	62
	More than 40	49

#### 4.3 Results of questionnaire survey

This section presents the results of the questionnaire survey, consisting of the reliability of the problems in schools (PIS) questionnaire, the comparison of the mean scores of motivating styles and open-ended findings.

#### 4.3.1 Problems in schools (PIS) questionnaire survey

The descriptive statistics showed the mean, standard deviation, minimum score and maximum score of each subscale and showed the score of each participant and the mean overall score as shown in Table 2. The intercorrelation aims to examine the relationship among four subscales as shown in Table 3.

Table 2 PIS descriptive statistics (N = 100)

Subscale	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum
1 Highly Controlling (HC)	3.40	1.03	1.38	5.75
2 Moderately Controlling (MC)	3.83	0.95	1.88	5.88
3 Moderately Autonomous (MA)	5.08	0.77	3.13	6.63
4 Highly autonomous (HA)	5.74	0.76	3.25	7.00
Relative Autonomy Index (RAI)*	36.5	20.84	-1	81

Note: A higher score means more autonomously oriented. For each subscale the minimum is +1 and the maximum is +7. A higher score on any subscale means the score is more like the label for that particular subscale. The two controlling subscale scores are given negative weightings when the subscales are combined to yield the total scale scores. \*RAI = 2(HA) + 1(MA) - 1(MC) - 2(HC)

All of the scores in this study were between 0.13 and 12.25 (M = 5.95, SD = 2.87). The scores in the present study were similar to the previous studies of Deci et al. (1981), as all scores were between 2.13 and 12.13 (M = 6.98, SD = 3.11) with one extreme score of -10.13 (SD = 3.11), tested with 68 teachers, and all scores were between 1.04 and 10.33 (M = 6.04, SD = 2.48), tested with 50 teachers in the study by d'Ailly (2003).

Table 3 The internal consistency and the correlations of the four subscales

Subscale	1	2	3	4
1 Highly Controlling (HC)	<b>.77</b>			
2 Moderately Controlling (MC)	.79**	<b>.73</b>		
3 Moderately Autonomous (MA)	.49**	.68**	<b>.62</b>	
4 Highly Autonomous (HA)	.11	.19	.56**	<b>.72</b>

Note: Cronbach's Alpha scores shown in bold.

\*\* $p < .01$ , two-tailed

The values of Cronbach's Alpha for the four scales were .77, .73, .62 and .72 respectively which were similar to the previous studies from .63 to .76 (Deci et al., 1981) from .69 to .79 (Reeve et al., 1999); and from .65 to .73 (D'Ailly, 2003). Although, MA alpha was quite low



( $\alpha = .62$ ), MA alpha of Deci et al., (1981) was also .63. Additionally, the minimum adequate value for Cronbach's Alpha is .60 (Hair et al., 2009). The overall internal consistency in the present study was acceptable. The correlations between control scales showed a simplex structure between the motivational categories, providing evidence for a continuum of motivation from controlling to autonomous (Ryan & Connell, 1989). HC had a large positive correlation with MC, ( $r = .79, p < .01$ ). In autonomy scales, MA had a positive correlation with HA,  $r = .56, p < .01$ ). However, MA also had a large positive correlation with both MC and HC,  $r = .68$  and  $r = .49, p < .01$ ). Deci et al., (1981) indicated that MA could be "slightly controlling" instead of "moderately autonomous" (p. 646), however, for the present study, the 'moderately autonomous' description is more appropriate for the items used in the adapted survey instrument.

#### 4.3.2 Open-ended results

This part provides results from seven open-ended questions to the 84 teachers who completed this part of the survey. The participants responded to the questions in the English language. For each question, a table is presented of the major categorized themes and the numbers of teachers, followed by examples of responses according to the themes.

Q1. What do you think the role of a teacher is in the university classroom?

Themes	Teachers
1. facilitator	40
2. lecturer and facilitator	14
3. lecturer	9

The role of a teacher as a *facilitator* in higher education appeared to be the type most endorsed by respondents. Some also elaborated on what that meant:

Teachers definitely need to provide activities and challenge students to participate in the activities as much as possible. (Teacher 13)

The role of a teacher in the university classroom is not only teaching but also listening [sic] our students. The most important is understanding them. (Teacher 24)

To encourage learning at this level, the teacher shouldn't be authoritative. He/she should be a facilitator of learning, devising engaging activities that encourage learning rather than simply imparting knowledge. (Teacher 33)

The role of teacher as a facilitator from their views is a person who provides activities to encourage students to learn and understand them. Some thought that the teacher should be a combination of both facilitator and traditional teaching roles at the same time. One stated that according to the Thai context, one role of the teacher is knowledge transmitter and another role is facilitator who assists students when they need help. Another one reported the role of the teacher should combine two roles, due to Thai culture:

In my opinion, the teacher has two roles in Thai university class. First, they are the knowledge giver as the students expect them to give the knowledge in the point that they want. Another role is as the facilitator. Students usually turn to teacher to help whenever they have the need to improve their English or project. Thus, the teacher should be able to help them. (Teacher 22)

In Thailand, culture is still one factor in an English classroom. I think that teacher may apply both traditional classroom and learner centred approach together. (Teacher 50)

Thai culture seems to be a factor which influences teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. Meanwhile, some of them thought that the role of a university teacher was a lecturer. Two participants referred specifically to the feeling that being a facilitator was important but in practice, it was difficult:

The teacher should only be a facilitator, but still, it's a teacher's centred [sic]. (Teacher 10)

Theoretically, the role should be a facilitator but practically it is not. (Teacher 14)

When asked about the role of a teacher, therefore, these teachers most immediately wanted to endorse 'facilitator' as the most appropriate description, which seemed to involve a teacher who was aware of the student's learning needs, was involved in their learning, was available to assist students, and, especially, was not authoritarian. But there was some evidence that

although teachers wanted to endorse this view of teaching, they had difficulties implementing it in practice.

Q2. How do you motivate your students to learn English?

Themes	Teachers
<b>Autonomy-supportive practices</b>	
1. provide interesting, fun and practical activities	33
2. explain the importance of English	22
<b>Controlling practices</b>	
3. provide grades / scores	3

Many participants exemplified their motivational style by reporting that they offered interesting activities such as games, group work, storytelling, movies, and singing. This style is one of the autonomy supportive styles of SDT that nurtures inner motivational resources (Reeve, 2009). Offering activities with interest and challenge can nurture students' intrinsic motivation (Reeve, 2006). Two participants elaborated how to provide activities in their English class:

Provide activities that are relevant to students' interest and up-to-date. There need to also be a variety in activities provided throughout the course and importantly the activities need to be challenging. (Teacher 13)

I usually try to include interesting reading materials and some audio-visuals in the hope that they will motivate students to enjoy studying English and related subjects. (Teacher 81)

Some reported that explaining the importance of English was one way to motivate their students. This style seems likely to provide a rationale, which is an effective strategy when activities are less interesting (Reeve, 2006). In the same way, in an English class when students seem not interested and bored, an autonomy-supportive teacher tries to explain the value and importance of English in order to help them see the usefulness of English. The following participant persuaded students by mentioning the use of English in the upcoming ASEAN Economic Community that students must be ready for. The second one gave the examples of people:

Encourage them to see how English is important particularly in 2018 [sic] Thailand will become a member of AEC (the ASEAN Economic Community) and English is a means of communication. (Teacher 45)

I always motivate my students to see the importance of English. I might give them some examples of people who are not native speaker of English. Those who are entering the international stage with the use of their English which is not their mother tongue. (Teacher 22)

However, three participants reported that scores and grades could motivate students to learn English. In SDT, providing grades or rewards is a controlling style and it is ineffective for increasing the intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999). The first participant gave the extra marks as a reward, the second example emphasized the importance of grades and scores and the last one thought the grade was an effective motivator.

Try to give them extra marks if they are interested enough to the lecture. (Teacher 44)

Keep talking about grades/marks. (Teacher 68)

The grade “A” is the motivation of student to learn English. (Teacher 86)

Overall, teachers appeared to readily endorse teaching strategies that would be considered autonomy-supportive. Unlike their responses to the previous question, where some reported that the role of a facilitator is effective but difficult to implement, none reported difficulty in their use of practices that are regarded as autonomy-supportive.

Q3. What are some challenges or problems you face in motivating students to learn English?

Themes	Teachers
1. unmotivated / no interest / laziness	28
2. low proficiency	17
3. no participation / silence	10

Many participants stated that laziness of students and no interest in study were the most important problems that they were facing in motivating students to learn English. The example seems to show understanding of why many students lack motivation, because English is a compulsory subject which forces them to learn.

Unmotivated. It seems that many students take English course because it is compulsory.  
(Teacher 82)

Some participants showed that the low English proficiency students made them have difficulty in motivating them. The first participants stated that this was because the low English proficiency students aimed to learn English only to pass the course. The second participant explained that some were not interested to learn because of their poor proficiency.

Some students come to class with very poor background in English. Some students are in my class because, to get a degree in their majors, they need to complete the course. I have passed students who have not done well enough in exams to qualify for a passing grade- I passed them because they came to class regularly and did all their assignments- but, I thought, because they did not have the necessary background, it was not possible for them to master what was required for the course. (Teacher 32)

Some are low motivated learners due to the face [sic] that they have poor proficiency and are not interested in languages. It's difficult to motivate the low ability learners. (Teacher 35)

Another group of participants thought that it was difficult for them to motivate students to learn because the students were silent and quiet in the classrooms.

Students haven't responded [sic] in the class. (Teacher 16)

They are [sic] always keep silent. (Teacher 48)

Q4. What do you understand "autonomy" to mean?

Themes	Teachers
1. Ability to learn by oneself / self-learning / independence	48
2. A feeling of freedom and volition by giving students freedom to choose and focusing on students' need and interest.	14

The majority of participants believed that autonomy is an ability to learn independently by oneself, e.g.

Self-learning. (Teacher 8)

Being able to continue using English on their own after school. (Teacher 19)

The ability to undertake our own learning. (Teacher 21)

Self or independence. (Teacher 25)

However, some participants used words or reported some aspects of autonomy in line with the SDT definition of autonomy, e.g.

To give students control over their own learning. (Teacher 12)

It's like "student center" [sic]. A teacher should teach about students' interesting topic. (Teacher 53)

Q5. Do you consider 'autonomy' important for students? Why? Why not?

Themes	Teachers
1. Yes, because students will have many benefits.	35
2. Yes, because they need to learn by themselves, self-learning	32

Many respondents agreed that autonomy was important for students because it was useful for them such as supporting self-confidence, problem solving, motivation, critical thinking and lifelong learning. The first example stated that autonomy was important for students because it helped them succeed in learning and the second example appeared to be in line with SDT theory, that when students' autonomy was perceived, their motivation would increase and help their learning improve:

Yes, because it is based on students' interests and their own strategies to learn - that make [sic] them achieve in learning. (Teacher 28)

Yes, they will be motivated and can learn better. (Teacher 52)

Many participants also agreed but they reported the reason that autonomy can help students learn independently. They seem to believe that autonomy is an ability to learn on their own and needs be independent from teachers. Two participants elaborated that students were required to be able to learn on their own.

Sure...life is about learning. So they need to be able to learn at their own pace. (Teacher 15)

Yes, students must be responsible for themselves. They must able to work on their own. (Teacher 65)

Q6. What do you do to support your students' autonomy?

Themes	Teachers
<b>1. Autonomy-supportive practices</b> e.g., provide the interesting activities, listen to them, allow them to talk, give choices	42
<b>2. Independent learning practices</b> e.g., provide self-study assignments, reports, group work projects, guide them for out-of-class learning in class	26
<b>3. Controlling practices</b> e.g., give extra marks, scores	3

Many participants showed that they used many autonomy supportive practices in SDT to support students' autonomy. The first example elaborated how the teacher supported autonomy by providing time for students to learn by themselves and listening to them. The second example gave students choices of activities at the beginning of the class. The third example listened and gave an opportunity for them to ask and talk and accepted the different ideas of students:

Give them time to learn by themselves, assign some situations for them to manage, listen to them more than direct them to do something, and give them some advice or guides. (Teacher 11)

Let them choose the activity before start the lesson. (Teacher 16)

I listen to them and give them a chance to ask questions also accept their ideas if they think in the different way. (Teacher 24)

Others supported students' autonomy by helping them to learn independently. The first two examples provided students with the chance to study by themselves outside the classroom by giving projects or report assignments. The last two examples helped students by guiding out-of-class learning and resources in order to help them know how to learn independently outside classrooms:

Have them do a project which they have to do some research and find information outside the classrooms. (Teacher 4)

Let them have self-study and send me report. (Teacher 37)

Demonstrate how to use online resources for their own learning. (Teacher 49)

To guide them how they can learn and find knowledge outside classroom. (Teacher 75)

Three participants adopt controlling styles by offering external rewards such as incentives, extra marks, and attendance scores, e.g.

Incentives after completing the tasks. (Teacher 15)

With attendance score. (Teacher 25)

To give them extra marks etc. (Teacher 44)

Q7. What are some challenges or problems you face in supporting student autonomy in Thai university classes?

Themes	Teachers
1. passive / dependence on teacher	19
2. no motivation / no interest / not important	11
3. lack of confidence	9

The main problem that many teachers faced was passive students who always rely on teachers or friends. One teacher explained the reason that caused this problem was from their families. Some stated that because of the familiarity of traditional teaching styles, so they were hesitant in learning on their own. The teacher is very important for them to train and guide them to learn independently.



The nature of Thai students are not self-disciplined and spoiled by parents. Sometimes they don't want to think or make any decision and they always need assistance and they don't want to do on their own. (Teacher 9)

Students are familiar with spoon-feeding teaching and they expect teachers to teach them all and they feel reluctant to do self-study. (Teacher 49)

They have been taught in the way that do [sic] not encourage them to have independent learning style which directly related to their level of autonomy. Especially, university students who are not familiar with the concept of learning by themselves, it will be very difficult for them to start learning by themselves. Teacher then have an important role to provide guidelines and resources for students to encourage them to have their own learner autonomy. (Teacher 29)

Regarding to present situation, I'm not quite certain that students are trained well enough to be an autonomous learners. I personally think teacher-centeredness has deeply rooted in the Thai educational system. Teachers might be also needed to be trained to support their learners. (Teacher 13)

Some participants thought the lack of motivation of students is the problem in supporting their autonomy in the classrooms, as shown below:

Students lack of motivation to learn. (Teacher 8)

There are some problems in supporting student autonomy in Thai university classes they are "bored, lazy" no active of students in class. (Teacher 43)

Some participants believed that students were lacking in confidence; therefore, teachers had difficulty in fostering their autonomy, e.g.

Thai students lack self-confidence. They have very little trust in themselves. (Teacher 32)

Some challenges or problems I face are students [sic] lack of self-confidence and give up studying easily. Moreover, they look down on themselves. (Teacher 46)

#### **4.4 Summary**

This chapter presented the results of Phase 1: Teacher's questionnaire survey. The chapter showed the results of the Problems in School (PIS) survey and open-ended responses and the examples of teachers' answers. The scales of the four teaching styles in the questionnaire survey show significant reliability. The results of open-ended responses show that many teachers freely use the terms 'autonomy' 'facilitator' 'student-centred' and so on— and they understand them to be things that they should be doing more often, however they have some challenges and problems from the students that they are facing. Most teachers stated that they motivated students to learn English by providing interesting activities and explaining the importance of the English language. These two practices are considered to be autonomy-supportive styles in SDT. Only a few mentioned that they motivated students by using a controlling style. However, they faced difficulty in motivating students to learn English because their students were unmotivated and had low English proficiency. They believed students should be able to learn by themselves and be independent from teachers. Therefore, many of them supported student autonomy by using autonomy-supportive practices and other teachers focused on independent learning outside of the classroom, for example, assigning homework, project work, or reports. Only a few stated that they adopted a controlling style by offering external rewards. They also realized the importance of autonomy, which is beneficial for students in many ways, while another group of teachers believed that autonomy would support students to be able to learn independently, because students are supposed to be independent. Yet, they found it hard since students still depended on them and could not learn independently by themselves.

These findings raise questions as to how autonomy-supportive teachers perceive autonomy and how they support student autonomy. The next chapter presents the findings of interviews from nine autonomy-supportive teachers. The participants were selected based on their RAI scores and education using the Phase 1 results.

## **5. PHASE 2 RESULTS: TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter demonstrated the results of Phase 1. The results of Phase 1 showed that there is such a broad range of interpretations of autonomy among teachers that their beliefs about autonomy and teaching practices need to be deeply explored. Therefore, Phase 2 aimed to gain an in-depth understanding of the autonomy-supportive teachers' beliefs, attitudes about autonomy, experiences of autonomy and teaching practices.

This chapter presents the findings of Phase 2 from the analysis of the qualitative data collected via interviews. The interview findings pertain to nine teachers selected on the basis of their questionnaire results from Phase 1 which indicated that they are autonomy-supportive teachers. Thematic analysis was performed on the interview data. This chapter starts with the interview participant profiles and follows with the interview results and then discusses their beliefs in relation to autonomy in a number of different ways.

### **5.2 Participants**

The interview participants' demographic information is shown in Table 4. The criteria for selecting the nine interview participants were: (a) having moderately high Relative Autonomy Index (RAI) scores on the Problems in School (PIS) questionnaires; (b) having a post-graduate degree (e.g., Master's degree or Doctorate); and (c) currently teaching at the university. The RAI score of the 100 participants ranged from -1 to 81.

Because the participants had qualifications at a high level (all held master's or doctoral degrees), one possibility may be that they would be more understanding of the researcher's intentions, and make efforts to accommodate the researcher. In other words, they may want to provide interview data which made them look favourable in terms of their autonomy-supportive teaching practices. However, this limitation of the interview approach in the broader context of the study is actually useful because teachers were also observed in their classrooms. Indeed, the phenomena of teachers feeling that they should be seen to be autonomy-supportive, as well as the difference between beliefs about autonomy and actual autonomy-supportive practices, are features of the research. These issues are further elaborated in Chapter 7.

Table 4 Selected participants' demographic information in Phase 2

Participant	Age	Sex	Years of teaching experience	Education level	RAI score
1. Vanida	41-45	F	9	Master's degree	63
2. Saithip	26-30	F	7	Master's degree	54
3. Yuwadee	21-25	F	0	Master's degree	48
4. Lanna	51-55	F	30	Doctorate	55
5. Kanda	31-35	F	8	Master's degree	62
6. Somkid	41-45	M	6	Master's degree	70 ^
7. Kittiphong	31-35	M	7	Master's degree	55
8. Malinee	26-30	F	4	Master's degree	58
9. Nittaya	31-35	F	9	Master's degree	49

^ Highest RAI score in the interview participants

### 5.3 Interview results

The interview findings are divided into four main parts. There are teachers' beliefs about autonomy, teachers' beliefs about teaching practices, teachers' beliefs about the student-centred approach, teachers' experiences that led to becoming an autonomy-supportive teacher.

#### 5.3.1 Teachers' beliefs about autonomy

This section describes the autonomy-supportive teachers' beliefs about autonomy and their teaching goals. The underlying assumption is that the teachers' beliefs reflect what they do in the classrooms. Even though they were considered to be autonomy-supportive teachers according to their RAI scores, the RAI score by itself is insufficient to conclude that the teacher is autonomy-supportive because they may have different beliefs about autonomy. What the teachers believe about the nature of autonomy is likely to impact their use of teaching practices. The two main beliefs considered in this section are: a) autonomy as the ability of students to learn independently from teachers; and b) autonomy as a feeling by students that they are able to learn what they want to learn.

##### *Autonomy as the ability of students to learn independently from teachers*

Five out of nine participants referred to autonomy as being independent from teachers. One participant cited the examples of students being able to search for information on the

Internet by themselves and of students learning independently without the teacher's help.

Somkid responded:

In my opinion, autonomy means that the students are able to learn and expand such knowledge by themselves. It is also a fundamental step in searching the information about other subjects. This is considered important because the teacher cannot be with the students all the time. Therefore, to advise them to do their own research over time is very beneficial. (Somkid, p. 2)

Yuwadee elaborated on this notion of autonomy through the suggestion it was the sense of self which related directly to the student's own self rather than the teacher's responsibility. She stated:

Learning by yourself is about gaining a sense of the success of learning. We learn to benefit ourselves. Apart from taking exams, we obtain knowledge. One does not have to wait for the lecturer to say what to do in the class. (Yuwadee, p. 2)

Saithip indicated her belief that the student's ability to learn independently is important and leads to lifelong learning. She commented:

Autonomy should be about lifelong learning. When students want to learn something the teacher should just inspire them from the beginning. Students like to learn not only from teachers, but also to learn by themselves. When they want to learn they will search for knowledge by themselves. They must be motivated to learn by themselves. Autonomy will support lifelong learning when it developed in the students. (Saithip, p. 2)

The interview participants' beliefs seemed to reflect the responses of the majority of participants who answered the questionnaire in Phase 1. That is, they typically emphasised the student's ability to learn by themselves as an important and beneficial feature of learning for the students, and one that was characteristic of an autonomy-supportive approach to learning. Indeed, the participants believed that learning was ultimately the students' responsibility, not the teachers'. As such, they saw their goal was to help students learn independently of the teacher. This indicated that for these teachers, the teacher's role was to guide the students on how to learn independently and to enable them to learn independently outside of the classroom.

### *Autonomy as a feeling by students that they are able to learn what they want to learn*

Two participants commented during their interview that they believed autonomy was a feeling held by students that they were able to learn what they wanted to learn. This conception aligns with the SDT definition that autonomy is the feeling of volition and choice. Both participants placed importance on acknowledging the students' interests and supported their autonomy by giving them the freedom to choose their own project topic. As two participants explained:

In my understanding, it [autonomy] is when the students feel that they can learn whatever they want. They are able to choose what they want to study. To apply it with teaching English, it should be the content they can choose for example, I assigned them to make a project. They should be able to select the topic that they are interested. I did not force them to work about social sciences or sciences. They can choose any field. (Vanida, p. 2)

In my opinion, the learners have their right to choose what they are interested in according to their pace. For example, the teacher started by writing an essay in order to find out their ability. Students would be allowed to search for the information which interests them and the teacher guided them how to write the essay. After that they would present their project. (Nittaya, p. 1)

The participants' beliefs were that the feeling of volition in the student emerges from the fact that they can choose what they want to learn on the basis of their personal interests. They allowed the students to choose their own project topic. Furthermore, one informant emphasised that she did not control the students' topic choices and that they were allowed to search for information about their own interests outside of the classroom.

### **5.3.2 Teachers' beliefs about teaching practices**

This section shows how teachers motivate students and foster learner autonomy in their classrooms, in order to explore the teachers' practices more deeply. The teachers' teaching practices were categorised into two main practices: autonomy-supportive practices and controlling practices.

### *Autonomy-supportive practices*

Most teachers stated that they motivate and foster learner autonomy by using autonomy-supportive practices in the classrooms. The autonomy-supportive practices which they mentioned were giving choices to students, making learning enjoyable, describing the value of the study, providing informational and non-controlling language, and acknowledging and accepting students' expressions of negative affect.

#### *Give choices to students*

Most teachers mentioned that they provided choices to their students. Two participants allowed students to choose their own assignment topic, as shown in the following statements:

For example, I encourage the students to choose the topic, but if they say it is difficult I will let them choose something similar so that they can translate it into English. The difficult part of the learning process is the English, the content is not difficult. If the teacher chooses something the students are not familiar with, both subject or topic will be difficult. This allows them to choose what they like. (Vanida, p. 2)

They are allowed to choose a topic about what they are interested by themselves. The topic is chosen by themselves, then they will be excited and they will enjoy with the activity. (Nittaya, p. 1)

Kittiphong allowed students to choose the lesson and activities, and also provided the students with the opportunity to assess each other. He explained:

I sometimes allow the students to propose the lessons and activities. I allow them to do by themselves and assess on their own. They are allowed to give score to one another. They are encouraged to express their opinions. Most of the activities, such as singing, are designed by the students. They also make decision on their own. (Kittiphong, p. 2)

Three participants stated that, during the first session of their class, they normally provided the students with a choice to participate by asking them about classroom rules, learning content and assessment scores. For example, Saithip allowed her students to make choices of agreement with the classroom rules, for example, using a mobile phone in the classroom, by asking their agreement before she implemented the rule. She stated:

I make an agreement in the first session that I would take their mobile phone, if anyone uses it in the class. It is their agreement that I allow them to set their rules. (Saithip, p. 4)

Lanna allowed her students to nominate their own interesting topics to add to the course outline. She explained:

Before the class begins every time I usually show them the outline. I let them participate in thinking about general courses. I bring the outline up first. I have planned the topic already. However, if they want a certain topic, I may have to make adjustment according to the scope. This way, they feel they have participation in planning. (Lanna, p. 1)

Kanda provided her students with a choice by asking them about the scores for course assessment, so that they are able to adjust or influence the assessment methods before she started the course.

In the first session, I would ask the students first about the scores for the assessment. They can be changed accordingly. (Kanda, p. 3)

Most participants mentioned that they provided the students with choices. They allowed the students to choose what they want to learn, share their opinions and participate in the course plan. The teachers seemed to support learner autonomy.

#### *Make learning enjoyable*

The interview participants were asked to talk about recent teaching methods of theirs that were favoured by the students. Most teachers emphasised that the teacher-student relationship was crucial to the creation of a relaxed and fun atmosphere. They considered classroom environment as a very important factor influencing student learning. The five teachers reported that they were concerned about the students' feelings in the classroom. They would like students to feel relaxed and happy. Therefore, they tried to be friends with the students rather than just their teacher and to be kind rather than strict. As each of the participants explained:

Friendship with the learners is also important. I try to be friend with the students. I may sometimes cross the line. If we sometimes do as they want kind of spoil them a little bit it will win their hearts and they will be willing to attend class without being afraid of me. The atmosphere is not stressful. I sometimes tell them jokes or tell them my personal



stories. They love this kind of situation. I sometimes add my story with the lessons. The most success is a result of making a good relationship in class. It helps a lot. The students are comfortable with me. They can talk to me about their problems. If you do not scare them off, they will dare to approach us. (Yuwadee, pp. 6-7)

As for my recent lesson that went very well, I try to be friend with the students to make a better atmosphere. I will never consider myself a teacher and the rest are students who must listen to me only. I will not correct a mistake immediately if they speak incorrectly. I will not create stress in class. The students feel free to ask questions and I always give them good answers. (Kanda, p. 2)

In the class, I am friendly with the students. I am not too strict about the language. It does not mean that I do not care about correctness but I try to make the class atmosphere relaxed. I sometimes show them interesting things and talk about other things apart from the lesson. (Somkid, p. 1)

To create classroom atmosphere, I encourage them to ask questions. I do not want them to have a feeling that I am a fierce teacher. I let them feel relaxed just like we are friends. (Malinee, p. 2)

I believe in good relationship between the teacher and the students. I am not a fierce teacher. If I create good atmosphere in the class, they will dare to ask me about anything. In studying, no matter what course it is, the rapport between the teachers and the students should start from the beginning till the end. It helps a lot. If the relationship between teacher and students is good, the students will open their minds to whatever I say. (Nittaya, pp. 3-4)

Most of the teachers indicated their awareness of the importance of establishing good relationships with students in order to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere. They also reported the realisation that being a strict teacher was not effective and as such they tried to be kind and friendly to students by allowing students to ask questions. Some participants also mentioned that they talked to the students about their personal stories or topics of interest to them. While two teachers believed that if teachers have sense of humour, it helps to make the classroom atmosphere enjoyable and interesting. Two teachers believed that telling jokes and

demonstrating a sense of humour make the students feel relaxed. This is reflected in statements from two of the teachers below:

I try to make the learning atmosphere relaxed and not too formal. I sometimes make jokes with the students to create friendliness and to make them feel more comfortable. I just try to make the class fun, so that the students want to attend. They dare to be friendly with me. I encourage friendliness and I tease them too while I do not let it go too far. I must keep the class atmosphere good in order to make the students want to study. (Vanida, p. 4)

I would like to recall my latest teaching when I used jokes and found that it went very well. If the students don't enjoy their studies or the teacher is stressful, they will not want to study. Actually, the teacher is very important to student learning. Teachers who have a sense of humour and who are friendly with the students are successful in their career. Also, the students' learning attitude and the classroom atmosphere will be desirable. If the teacher is strict, the children will be afraid of making mistakes. They are afraid of being blamed. This situation will not produce good teaching and learning. Successful teaching depends on the teacher's emotion. Sometimes, when I work under stress, I cannot teach well. Humour is important. I used to study under a teacher who had a sense of humour, so I like English and I want to teach in this style. (Saithip, p. 4)

#### *Describe the value of study*

Two participants believed it was important for their students to learn English and provided practical examples to support their claims, as reflected in the two statements below:

To motivate the students, I tell them just to speak English. I do not care about grammar. When they speak, they learn. Then they will improve sooner or later. I also tell the students how important English is. I give them examples. I know a person that studied arts and he did not like English at all. One day he thought English was not important. He did not pay attention to English. But after his graduation he had to work in a shop on Tha Pae Road in Chiang Mai and he had to speak English. Oh no! He had to spend a lot of time practising English. We cannot forecast our future whether we need English or not. Being able to communicate in English makes us more special than the others. Therefore, if we are able to use English as a tool of communication, we will be better than the others

who cannot speak English. This made him realise the importance of English. (Vanida, p. 1)

I usually talk about to realise the importance of English. For example, I mention about Mr. Psy Gangnam Style, the well-known Korean artist who can communicate at international level. He can go everywhere on international stage. Aung San Suu Kyi is not a native speaker. She realises the importance of English so she studies it intensively. International aspect is very important. Firstly, we have to realise that English language is not difficult. The language rules are flexible and I tell them that their English is already good and usable. There is no need to speak like native speakers. They should use English to communicate with others first. I think their attitudes towards English should be changed. (Nittaya, p. 1)

Two teachers encouraged the students to be motivated to learn English by describing the value of the English language and its benefits and also explaining the importance of using English at the present time. Both Vanida and Nittaya referred to students' existing understandings of the ways that well-known cultural icons had benefited from their abilities to use the English language, helping students to identify the potential value of the language to their own lives.

*Provide informational, constructive and non-controlling language*

Vanida indicated she liked to motivate the students to speak English in class by providing informational feedback and support. In this way the students would not be blamed when they make mistakes. Vanida explained:

I always tell the students that they have to speak. They should not care about making mistakes. If you can communicate, you are successful at a certain level. When they speak incorrectly, I will not blame or correct it at once or immediately but I will repeat what they say. Then, I say it correctly allowing them to learn that they make mistakes. I will never embarrass them. (Vanida, p. 1)

In addition, participant Saithip responded:

When the students make a mistake in their homework, do not blame them. I discuss them on the blackboard without mentioning who did it. Then I review it in the class. They will be careful next time. You should correct it but do not tell who did it. (Saithip, p. 3)

I like to praise students in front of their friends. They feel proud. Then, they will try to keep working hard. It works well. I always say “very good” to them. (Saithip, p.5)

Furthermore, Kittiphong responded that when the students answer a question incorrectly he provided positive feedback to them. He explained:

Actually, I tell them that every answer is correct. The wrong answer is no answer. If they answer, I will applaud and praise them. If it is a wrong answer, I will say “O.K. that is almost correct” or I sometimes make joke about the wrong answers. (Kittiphong, p. 1)

Three of the interviewees stated that they try to avoid causing the students to feel embarrassed about their mistakes. Hence, it appears the teachers do not want to make the students lose face and self-confidence.

*Acknowledge and accept students’ expressions of negative affect*

Kanda indicated that she received a negative comment from a student on her Facebook page because she ignored the student. She responded:

I used to pay attention to only high achieving students until the other students commented in my Facebook that I ignored them. Now I pay attention to all of them equally. (Kanda, p. 3)

As such, Kanda appears to understand the students’ feelings and has changed her teaching style to accommodate them. Vanida found that her students held negative attitudes toward English. However, she accepted these attitudes and replied:

Normally, if they feel that English is difficult, I will not say it is not. They will resist me if I say that. They will argue that as an English teacher you can say it is not difficult. I will tell them that it is actually difficult. If I teach art students and I have to paint. I think

it is hard. However, I can paint if I practise constantly. I think I can do it. You can do it too. If you keep practising, you will be able to speak English. I try to relate English with Thai language such as explaining about the structure. It starts with who, what, followed by verb. (Vanida, p. 2)

Both of them recognised students' feelings and expressions so they adjusted their teaching practices to support their autonomy and motivation.

### ***Controlling practices***

The participants were asked about the methods they use to motivate unmotivated students in the classroom as well as to maintain the motivation levels of those who are motivated. Two approaches were applied; namely, external rewards and teacher-centred teaching.

#### *Using external rewards (scores)*

Two participants said they use scores to motivate students. For instance, Kanda stated that she tried to motivate unmotivated students by warning them that they will receive a low test score if they are lazy in their approach to learning:

For unmotivated students, I warn them that they might get low scores. In some cases, I suggest them to drop the course. (Kanda, p. 3)

On the other hand, Saithip claimed that she encouraged her motivated students by providing scores and rewards:

High achieving students deserve reinforcement. I motivate them with certificates and scores. This practice is very effective. The students need favourable scores. Then, they will always try to keep working hard. (Saithip, p. 4)

Both of these participants believed that providing scores and rewards was an effective practice to encourage both unmotivated and motivated students to learn.

#### *Applying a teacher-centred approach*

Two teachers mentioned that they preferred to use traditional teaching styles for unmotivated students:

For unmotivated students group, I will not use games. Teacher-centred approach must be applied. It spends more time on this group. (Somkid, p. 2)

Unmotivated students are not active. I try to get close with everyone. If I have to push someone specifically, I have to apply teacher-centred approach. (Yuwadee, p. 7)

This approach demonstrates that some teachers believe applying a teacher-centred approach will help to control unmotivated students as the teacher has the main role in the classroom and the students are rarely allowed to think for themselves or express their opinions. Teachers preferred to use a controlling style, especially with unmotivated students, in order to motivate them to learn English.

### **5.3.3 Perceptions of the student-centred approach**

The teacher's role in student-centred teaching is to facilitate student autonomy. This section discusses the informants' responses when they were asked for their opinion of student-centred teaching. The aim of this question was to investigate the participants' understanding of this teaching approach, including potential problems in its application and particular practices associated with this method.

#### *Student-centred approach problems*

The informants mentioned that it was difficult to apply a student-centred approach in the classroom at the university level for two main reasons: obstacles from students (e.g., the students' dependence on teachers); and the students' goals to achieve high grades or graduation.

#### *Students' dependence on teachers*

Four of nine interviewees emphasised the main problem for teachers was that students were too used to the traditional teaching style from teachers. In turn, as the following comment from Vanida shows, there is the belief among the participants that this teaching causes the students to be passive:

The students were not taught with student-centred style when they were young. To be honest, Thai students cannot think on their own. They wait for the teacher to feed them. They could not even turn on the light. The teacher had to turn it on. They sat in the dark room. If the teacher did not turn the light on, they will keep sitting like that. Thai students cannot think and do something independently. (Vanida, p. 3)

The worrying implication of Vanida's statement that Thai students always rely on the teacher (even for something as basic as waiting for the teacher to turn on the light for them) is that they cannot think for themselves.

Nittaya also mentioned that because the teacher-centred approach has been applied for a very long time in education service delivery to students, it is difficult to encourage them to be active at the university level:

Teacher-centred approach has been applied since kindergarten level. The readymade schedules and contents have been provided to us [teachers] and we have to strictly follow them. Our teaching is not student-centred style. The students have been taught by using the teacher-centred approach since they were young. It is hard to change when they are in university level. I think it is a result of the traditional teaching style. This teaching does not encourage students to show their ideas or opinions and they are afraid of being blamed by the teacher. (Nittaya, p. 2)

In addition, Yuwadee spoke about relationships between the generations (i.e., older people and younger people) in Thai culture. According to the interviewee, the cultural definitions of these relationships have been very influential in Thai education for a long time, particularly towards shaping perceptions of teachers as authority figures who are controlling. A student-centred approach should be applied when students are young. Yuwadee commented:

The students are familiar with authority figure. The teachers just give orders. Some students are always like this. They are not used to child-centred environment. They cannot make decisions. Student-centred approach is good but their deep feeling seems like they are controlled by some kind of power. This approach should be applied from childhood. They must not be afraid of the teacher. When I was in primary school, I was so afraid of teachers. I was afraid to make mistakes. I was afraid of being blamed and criticised by the teachers. To apply child-centred approach, it seems that the students must make decision within the scope of the teacher. This approach is acceptable but

readiness is a problem though this approach has been discussed long time ago. (Yuwadee, p. 5)

Saithip stated that implementing a student-centred approach in Thailand's education institutions has been unsuccessful because of the students' passiveness and the unsupportive content (i.e., content that does not match the students' knowledge or proficiency level). She suggested policy makers (The Ministry of Education) should distance themselves from the old traditional teaching style and allow students to think:

It is hard for the students without critical thinking to learn successfully and it will not work with untrained teachers. Before applying student-centred approach, teachers should train the students to think. Unfortunately, the attempt has not been successful. One has to modify all the traditional teaching, not just only English. The teacher should be just facilitator, not instructor. However, we are still practising teacher-centred approach because the students still wait for the teachers' order and the content is also not supportive. (Saithip, p. 3)

Overall, the main problem associated with the implementation of student-centred teaching practices is that students are passive learners as a result of their long-standing familiarity with the teacher-centred approach from the influence of the role of seniority in Thai culture. The students rely heavily on the teacher and it is therefore difficult for teachers to encourage students to learn independently. In other words, teachers believe students should be independent from them and be able to learn by themselves. If students are active and autonomous it is easier for teachers to implement student-centred teaching methods.

Similarly, according to the open-ended questionnaire results, most Thai university teachers believe student passivity is the main obstacle to them supporting student autonomy. Therefore, some participants suggested the traditional teaching style should be substituted with the student-centred approach. This confirms that the teacher-centred approach is still currently used even though the change was made to educational policy many decades ago. Furthermore, the participants suggested teachers should be trained in how to implement the student-centred approach and that such an approach needs to be applied from childhood. This indicates clearly that students are passive due to the teacher-centred approach endorsed in pre-university education institutions.



### *Students learn for grades*

Three participants reported that it was hard to apply a student-centred approach in their actual classroom because the students mainly focus on grades. As Somkid explained, implementing such an approach was not only difficult due to the students' goals but also because of many other factors such as increased workload, time constraints, and assessment practices:

As for student-centred approach, I think it means that the students play more important role than the teacher and the teacher has to work harder. The teacher has to prepare the content and activities and persuade the students to participate in the activities. As for my teaching style, I try to use student-centred approach partially because it is not an easy task for there are many obstacles. For example, the students aim at getting good grades. In the context of English, I think it is inappropriate because the students are bashful and they lack confidence. There are also limitations concerning time and evaluation. Under these conditions, this system is inappropriate for studying in classrooms in general schools. It should be appropriate for the school like AUA [American University Alumni Language Centre] or British Council [English language centre]. (Somkid, p. 3)

According to Somkid's statement, there are two student problems which make implementing the student-centred approach difficult: a lack of confidence from them to direct their own learning; and the emphasis they place on achieving grades. The student confidence problem results in the implementation of learning activities being a more time-consuming process for teachers. This problem is similar to the problem that students are too passive, as discussed previously. The problem that students are too concerned about grades pressures the teacher into thinking that he or she has to limit the learning activities to covering the content of the examinations. Somkid believed these two problems meant student-centred teaching was not suitable for university classrooms, but was suitable for language centres located in the broader community.

Saithip agreed with Somkid that the student-centred approach is suitable only for confident students, as her following statement indicates:

As for student-centred approach, it will be very good if the students can practise. I have applied it in my class for five to six years; I found that it worked well for creative

students who are confident to communicate. However, some students did not totally participate in the program. (Saithip, p. 3)

However, Vanida mentioned that it was hard to implement a student-centred approach because teachers have time limitations and have a large amount of content to cover according to the curriculum. The problem was not from the students. Her comment below demonstrates her contradiction of Somkid's view:

I think because there are a lot of obstacles we [teachers] cannot do much with this approach. If I just lecture and teach, it will not take much time and willingness. If I allow them to think, it takes time and they have to take exam. So, it is hard. It also depends on the course. Some courses contain a lot of content and textbooks. You [teacher] cannot make it. The way to allow the students to think is giving them assignments but they do not like it. (Vanida, p. 3)

Vanida indicates that she cannot apply a student-centred approach in the classroom because she has to provide a lecture-style delivery and to follow the textbook closely in order to cover the content of the examinations. Therefore, she chooses to apply a student-centred approach outside of the classroom by giving assignments that require the students to think for themselves, even though they may not like this approach.

Vanida also explained how the Thai educational system encourages students to learn in order to achieve good grades rather than to acquire knowledge. She therefore feels she has to adopt a lecture-style approach to help the students pass the examinations, as shown in the following statement:

If I cannot complete the lecture and the students cannot do the exam, it is my fault. It seems that in Thai educational system, we do not emphasise obtaining more knowledge but we focus on grade. It is a goal of studies. The students will do whatever to complete the exam. (Vanida, p. 3)

Overall, the comments from the interviewees demonstrate that student-centred teaching is difficult to implement in Thai university classrooms because teachers regard it as suitable only for active and confident students, and because students are focused primarily on their grades. However, the main cause that makes students learn for grades is because of the Thai educational system. This system makes teachers perceive their main role is to provide lecture-style lessons

that closely follow the contents of the textbook, primarily to cover the content of the examinations. This highlights that teachers focus on the examinations rather than the development of communicative and critical thinking skills. As a result, Thai university classrooms are content-based and rely on a teacher-centred approach. It is notable however that one participant also believed that she applied a student-centred approach by assigning projects or tasks outside of the classroom.

### ***Interpretations of ‘student-centred learning’***

Three participants were of the view that the student-centred approach would be good for Thai learners if teachers had a clear understanding of the core concept associated with the approach. As Lanna explained in the following comment, a teacher’s understanding of key pedagogical concepts is an important driver of what they do in the classroom:

Student-centred approach is a very good application. But in my opinion, I suggest that the teacher must understand the concept thoroughly. The teacher, who does not do anything or only gives order, will make the students under pressure. This may be about a case concerning the teacher’s attitude. If the teacher has no role in front of the class, he may feel that he does not perform appropriately. But if he understands the concept, he can adjust his teaching. (Lanna, p. 3)

Vanida stated that some teachers do not have a clear understanding of the core elements associated with the student-centred approach:

The idea is very good but it is not effective because some teachers do not understand it clearly. You cannot just throw textbooks to the students to read. It is not that easy. (Vanida, p. 3)

Similarly, Nittaya expressed the view that teachers do not truly understand the concept of student-centred teaching:

Teachers do not understand the concept and they have different perceptions. (Nittaya, p. 2)

The main finding to emerge from the analysis of the participants' responses is that teachers have different conceptualisations of student-centred teaching. This demonstrates that teachers do not truly understand the student-centred approach and how to properly apply it in the classroom. This is the critical issue surrounding teachers in Thai education. Moreover, it shows that teachers lack the necessary knowledge and skills to effectively implement the student-centred approach.

***Student-centred learning as preparation for independent learning***

Nittaya considered the student-centred approach to be a new technical term for teaching. In practice, she continued to use the traditional teaching style, but combined this approach with the provision of assignments or projects that allowed the students to engage in learning outside the classroom. Nittaya explained:

Firstly, I must ask how you define student-centred approach. It has various meanings. Although, we call it student-centred approach, it is still more or less teacher-centred approach. We just take out teacher-centred approach by assigning tasks and allowing the students to be autonomous. Student-centred approach can motivate learning well but it is not really student-centred approach at present. (Nittaya, p. 2)

Nittaya stated that some teachers may think assigning certain types of tasks can help students to learn by themselves and facilitate their autonomy. She explained that she applies a student-centred approach by assigning students project work, and by encouraging the students to engage in self-access learning in order to support student autonomy. However, she has to take her students to a self-access learning room, with her, to encourage them to do their self-access learning. Nittaya commented:

I let them search and present on their own project work. In attending the lab room, they can choose the program similarly to self-access learning. However, when I tell them to attend the lab, very few students are interested. So, I have to go to the lab with them. I think maybe they are not used to learning by themselves. (Nittaya, p. 2)

Somkid also assigned students self-access style learning tasks, but controlled the students by allocating scores:

As for student-centred approach, the teaching methods I employ include two programs. For example, the first program is self-access learning consisting of speaking, listening, vocabulary and grammar. The second program is online lesson. I persuade them to attend the class and get 10% of total scores from online task. (Somkid, p. 2)

It may be concluded from the participants' comments above that they believed that they applied a student-centred approach to foster learner autonomy by enabling students to learn independently. In so doing, they have to motivate the students using scores or controlling classroom management techniques. Thus, it appears the students may not be truly willing to study independently outside the classroom, but that they do so because of their concerns about their grades and to fulfil the teacher's directive.

#### **5.3.4 Experiences that led to becoming an autonomy-supportive teacher**

This section discusses how two participants, Kittiphong and Nittaya, became autonomy-supportive in their teaching style when they adopted the student-centred approach. They each describe their past experiences of traditional teaching methods.

##### ***Prior experience of controlling teaching***

Kittiphong commented on his learning experience in the past while discussing student-centred teaching. He was very enthusiastic in talking about this topic and described his childhood when he studied in a temple school for poor students:

I like student-centred approach but I am not sure if I really understand it thoroughly. I had mental complex in my childhood. I studied in temple school. My family was poor. Can you imagine a big, black, old teacher with curly hair talking in deep voice and holding a stick? I have been through this kind of teacher until secondary school. I was a slow learner and my grades were poor. I was a victim of discrimination between rich and poor children. I did not like the system and the teaching environment at all. The children had no rights to do what they wanted. They must keep quiet in the class and just listen. I hated it when the teacher pointed at the blackboard and told me to memorise. I did not like that kind of activities at all. As a result, I become a thoughtful person and I will never teach my students the way I was taught. I always provide activities for them. (Kittiphong, p. 2)

As a result of his own education experiences Kittiphong appears to understand how learners feel. He wants the learners to be happy in his classroom, therefore he tries not to be too strict and controlling. Instead, he aims to provide activities that make learning fun and which encourage the students to think rather than simply lecturing to them.

Nittaya commented that she used to be a controlling teacher until she realised that it was not good for herself and her students. Her comment below reveals how she realised that being a controlling teacher does not motivate students to learn and makes both the teacher and students unhappy:

In the past, I was rather a fierce and strict teacher but it was not good for the students to feel bad with the teacher. This personality caused bad feeling among the students towards the teacher and the teacher felt the same. This did not do any good at all. (Nittaya, p. 4)

The main finding to emerge from Kittiphong's and Nittaya's comments is that the teacher's past experiences shape their views about teaching and their teaching practices more generally. At present, both participants realised that a teacher-centred approach is not beneficial to students and does not motivate them to learn.

## **5.4 Summary**

This chapter outlines the main findings of Phase 2 from the interview comments of the nine autonomy-supportive teachers. In particular, it highlights the autonomy-supportive teachers' beliefs concerning autonomy, teaching styles, and the student-centred approach to teaching. The interview results show that autonomy-supportive teachers have different views about autonomy, teaching practices, and the learner-centred approach. The discussions with teachers about autonomy show that most teachers believe autonomy to be the ability to learn independently. Thus, they primarily view the learner as an individual person who is independent from the teacher. The practices they engage in to assist the students to learn independently are to assign tasks, project work, and self-access work that are to be completed outside of the classroom. Independent learning is clearly one of the main features of teachers' understandings of the concept of autonomy. Further, most of them said that they motivate and support autonomy in their classroom by applying autonomy-supporting practices. Providing choices is an autonomy-supportive practice that most autonomy-supportive teachers stated that they use in their classroom. However, some of them preferred to use some controlling practices with unmotivated or inactive students. Some of them felt the learner-centred approach was difficult

to implement in classrooms because of student passivity and grades as their learning goal. They indicated the reason for the passivity is the traditional English teaching style in schools where teachers adopt the dominant role in the classroom. As such, the participants believe the student-centred approach is appropriate only for active and confident students. Given their students are passive and dependent, the participants indicate they still have to apply a teacher-centred approach or controlling practices in the classroom.

A tension appears to exist between students and the teacher-centred approach, caused by a belief that on the one hand, a student-centred, autonomy-supportive classroom is important, yet on the other hand, education occurs within an exam-oriented education system where teachers have to focus on the examinations and lesson transmission, which according to the teachers leaves little time for attending to students' interests and needs. Therefore, the teacher's main role is reportedly to adopt a lecture-style approach in the classroom in order to help the students pass their examinations and to achieve good grades. Due to the difficulties of applying the student-centred approach in the classroom, they choose to apply a student-centred approach for homework outside the classroom by assigning tasks or projects for students. The teachers believe they support student autonomy through this practice and help them to develop their skills to learn independently, which aligns with their own understanding of the concept of autonomy, but less so with formal conceptions of autonomy (see Chapter 2). It is clear that for these teachers, a student-centred approach in university classrooms may be attained by a combination of teacher-centred approach in the classroom and independent learning tasks or projects outside the classroom. The teachers realised the teacher-centred approach is not effective for all students. Some of them reported negative experiences with the teacher-centred approach. Thus, they changed their teaching methods to be more student-centred, and some participants suggested that teachers in pre-university schools should implement student-centred teaching methods in order to prepare the students for this approach at the university level.

The next chapter provides a further perspective on these issues through case studies of four teachers who were observed in their classrooms. The aim of the case studies presentation is to demonstrate the connection between the autonomy-supportive teachers' beliefs, outlined in the present chapter, and their observed practices in the classrooms.

## 6. PHASE 3 RESULTS: CASE STUDIES

### 6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter demonstrated the main findings to emerge from the interviews with nine autonomy-supportive teachers. This chapter presents the results of the case studies of four teachers: Vanida, Saithip, Yuwadee and Lanna (all pseudonyms). The selection of the Thai teacher in each of the four case studies was based on the following criteria: they consented to have their classroom teaching practices observed; they achieved a higher than the mean (of 36) RAI score indicating they are autonomy-supportive; and they have a post-graduate degree (e.g., Master's degree or Doctorate) as shown in table 4 in the previous chapter. Table 5 also provides an overview of the observation process for each case study teacher.

The discussion in each case study includes analyses of the teachers' interview responses, teachers' survey responses, observation data, and students' feedback responses. This chapter aims to answer the research question: What is the relationship between what autonomy-supportive teachers believe and practise in their classrooms and students' perceptions of their teaching practices?

Table 5 Overview of the observation process for the four case studies

Case study Name	Subject	Students		
		Number	Year	Major
1. Vanida	Presentation Skills for English	16	2	English
2. Saithip	English for Career	26	2	Information Technology
3. Yuwadee	Literature	30	2	English
4. Lanna	English Communication for Information Technology	24	3	English



## 6.2 Case 1: Vanida

Vanida is a female teacher who is aged in her early 40s. She has two Master's degrees: Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) from a Thai University; and Educational Leadership and Management from an Australian University. She has nine years of English teaching experience and typically teaches undergraduate students. Vanida was willing to be observed while teaching the course, "Presentation skills for English". This course focused on how to conduct a good presentation in English and on presentation techniques more generally. Each teaching session was approximately of one and a half hours duration. The class included 16 English major students; 10 females and 6 males.

The classroom was large with ceiling fans and plenty of space at the sides and back as illustrated in Figure 9. The air was flowing in the classroom. The doors were located at both sides of the front of the room. One door was opened for entrance. The computer was on the table and the projector screen was in front of the whiteboard. All students were dressed in their university uniform: girls wore a short-sleeved white shirt and mid-length black skirt, and boys wore a short-sleeved white shirt and long black trousers. Most of the students also wore a thin sweater due to the cold temperature in the morning. The class started at 9.30 a.m. The students sat on chairs facing the teacher and whiteboard, positioned close to each other in three parallel rows. The girls were seated towards the front of the room on the left hand side, middle row, left hand side, and last row on the right hand side. The boys on the other hand occupied the back row. They sat as a group and mostly occupied the same area in both classes. I sat at the back of the room.

Before starting the lesson Vanida greeted the students with smile. She stood at the front of the classroom and held the textbook in one hand. She was dressed in casual clothing, wearing a long-sleeved shirt and long skirt. At the beginning of the lesson Vanida asked the students some general questions about the components of an 'introduction' to a presentation in English. The students actively answered her in English. Most girls were active and regularly answered questions. The boys on the other hand were quiet and non-active. Following the responses from the students, Vanida explained the notion of an introduction to them in English.

During the class Vanida asked the students to complete the textbook exercises. She allowed the students around 10 minutes to complete each exercise and waited until they had finished all of the tasks. While she was waiting she stood at the front of the class. She observed the students while they were completing the exercises and appeared to pay attention to the students. The students looked down at the textbook and completed the exercises individually. They were quiet and concentrating. After ten minutes Vanida asked the students whether they

had finished the tasks. The students nodded their heads. She then asked them the textbook questions, reading each question from the textbook to the whole class. The students looked up and answered the questions, and Vanida asked them to explain the reasons for their answers. When the answers were correct, Vanida would nod her head and repeat the correct answer. She also explained why the answers were correct. I noticed that the main activities in the class were completing the textbook tasks, answering the textbook questions, and sharing opinions about the answers.

The classroom atmosphere appeared to be active in that Vanida interacted with the students by continually asking them questions. The students also asked Vanida questions and she responded with relevant answers. Thus, the teacher and students interacted with each other.

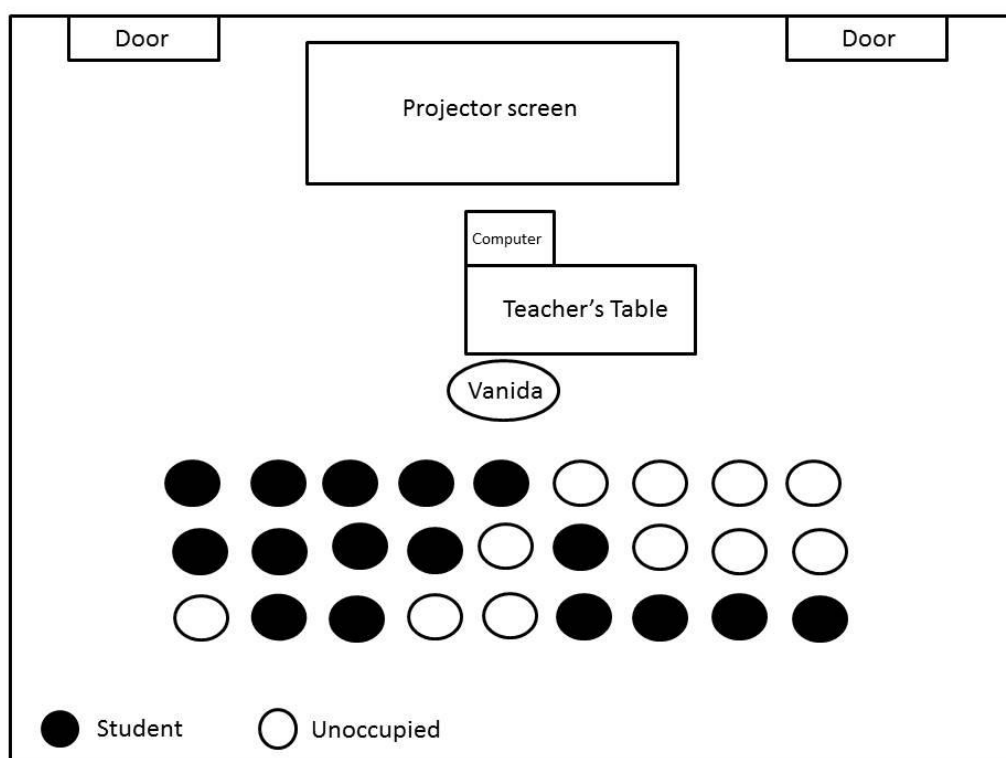


Figure 9 Vanida's classroom

### **6.2.1 Motivate students to learn for knowledge**

A significant theme in Vanida's teaching was motivating students to learn in order to acquire knowledge. This theme emerged in her responses to the open-ended questionnaire items, during the interview and during classroom observations. As such, it was concluded that Vanida valued the importance of knowledge and that she strongly believed teachers should motivate students to learn for knowledge. She explained this belief during the interview, in response to a question about whether she motivates students intrinsically or through grades, as shown in the dialogue:

Researcher: In this classroom, do you talk about score and grade? Do you talk much about it?

Vanida: Do you mean do I motivate students by using scores?

Researcher: Yes.

Vanida: No, I rarely do it. Unless it's necessary, if I teach students who are very lazy, I will say this part can affect your score. I believe that I do not want the students to study to pass the exam but I want them to progress in their studies.

Researcher: I have interviewed many teachers. Most of them motivate students by using scores and grades.

Vanida: I think that to motivate them by offering grades is not a permanent practice. I feel that we cooperate with the students to obtain grades instead of knowledge. I refuse to do this practice.

Researcher: Is it because students from different universities are not the same? Therefore, the teachers use different teaching practices. What do you think?

Vanida: You mean low performing or unengaged students and high performing or engaged students. I believe that in studying English the students should learn and understand it thoroughly. I have been teaching very low performing students but I did not use any score or grade to motivate them. I just said this is an important part, please read carefully. (Vanida, Interview, p. 5)

According to Vanida's teaching philosophy, students should learn to acquire knowledge rather than grades. She realised that if students were motivated to learn for grades they would not become lifelong learners. Thus, teachers should not motivate students to learn for external outcomes, but strictly for knowledge. According to her perception, students should learn from intrinsic motivation for knowledge and not external regulation (extrinsic motivation).

I observed that Vanida's teaching was characterised by a warm, bidirectional relationship where the teacher and student made equal contributions to the discussions. When she asked a question she would direct it to the whole class. The teacher-student interaction was thus two-way communication, in that she initiated the question and then encouraged the students to talk and the students then responded. The students asked Vanida questions which she answered. Vanida appeared to pay attention to the students' level of understanding of the lesson topic by asking questions, providing time for the students to think and answer and by allowing them to ask questions. Her teaching style appeared to include autonomy-supportive practices because they nurtured the inner motivational resources of students (Jang et al., 2010). For example, at the beginning of the lesson, Vanida asked the students a general question in English about the components of an 'introduction' to a presentation, without focusing on the textbook. She appeared to encourage the students to draw on their general knowledge and to think and talk. Most students answered her questions in English, but a few listened to her quietly. She nodded her head and repeated a correct answer for confirmation.

Vanida then turned to the textbook to explain in detail the elements of an introduction to a presentation in English. She read from the textbook and occasionally looked up to explain the content to the students in English. The students sat upright and looked up to the teacher. While Vanida talked or explained, the students paid attention to what she was saying. They also wrote down what she said. While she was lecturing, Vanida also encouraged the students to participate by asking them to express their opinions. For example, she talked about three techniques to introduce a presentation. She then gave an example of one technique and asked the students to identify which technique she was referring to. One student answered very quietly and softly in English, but the answer seemed to be wrong. Most students seemed to be confused and the classroom was silent. Vanida then pointed the students to where the answer could be found in the textbook and waited for the students to read the content. She demonstrated patience while waiting for the students to think about and provide an answer. She appeared to facilitate student autonomy by providing them with time to think and talk. One student answered correctly. She then repeated the correct answer to help the students to understand it more clearly. This is illustrated in the example below:

Vanida: It is also a good idea to prop up with a short story, some facts or unusual visual aids, so these are the techniques that draw the attentions from the audiences. Now I will give you some examples and you have to tell me which technique is used. Suppose that, your topic is about traffic jams in Bangkok. You tell the audience that I have one of my friends who lives in Bangkok. He told me that he was staying nearly for four hours a day in a car because of the traffic jams. Which technique is used?

[Students seemed to be confused and unsure about the answer.]

Vanida: I'm talking about the last paragraph on this page.

Student: A short story.

Vanida: Ah...a short story

(Vanida, Observation, Class 1)

The students also asked Vanida questions without hesitation. They raised one hand before asking a question when they did not understand clearly. In turn, when the students asked a question, Vanida listened to the question carefully before she responded. She explained the answers to them clearly. One girl who was seated in the middle row raised her hand before calling out “teacher” to ask a question. She asked Vanida the question and Vanida looked at her and listened to her before she responded. Below are some examples:

Student: อาจารย์หา unusual visual aids แปลว่าอะไรคะ [Teacher, what is the meaning of unusual visual aids?]

Vanida: Something that surprises the audiences, not just general or ordinary pictures.

(Vanida, Observation, Class 1)

The classroom climate seemed to be relaxed which made the students feel free to ask the teacher questions. They did not appear to be afraid or scared of Vanida and initiated discussions with her. This suggests the students were willing to ask questions freely. It is normally the case in Thai classrooms that students will tend to remain silent and be reluctant to ask the teacher questions. Most students, however, indicated they had a positive feeling towards Vanida because she gave them the opportunity to participate in the classroom by allowing them to ask

questions and because she listened to their ideas. She also responded to the questions effectively and explained the content clearly. These feelings are expressed in the following excerpts of students' comments:

I feel good. The teacher teaches well and explains the content clearly. (Student 3, Q 5)

I feel good because the teacher often allows us to ask questions when we do not understand and she also keeps us feeling active when the content is overloaded and boring. (Student 4, Q 5)

The teacher has very good teaching practices. Although, sometimes the content is quite boring, she motivates us by answering questions and she allows us to have discussions all the time. (Student 5, Q 5)

Furthermore, Vanida mentioned she believed that when studying English the students should learn and understand the lesson content thoroughly. I observed that Vanida appeared to focus on the students' attitudes and understandings. When she asked the students to complete the textbook exercises, she would read the instructions and purpose of each exercise. She seemed to provide structure to the students in order to provide them with a clear and understandable direction. When the students finished the exercises, Vanida would not only ask them textbook questions, she would also ask them to clarify their answers. She persuaded them to demonstrate critical thinking by encouraging reflection and evaluation of their answers.

Vanida also allowed the students the opportunity to express their opinions and she appeared to check their understanding. These practices created opportunities for initiative and challenged the students, which are autonomy-supportive practices (Jang et al., 2010). For example, Vanida asked the students to answer the textbook task questions about what the presenter should or should not do during a presentation. The answers could be "yes", "no" or "maybe". When the students provided their answers Vanida would then ask them open-ended questions such as "why?", "why not?", and "what is your reason?" The students then volunteered their reasons. The students all paid attention to Vanida's questions and responses, sat upright in their chairs, and, appeared to be very enthusiastic to discuss their responses. One girl provided her explanation in English and Thai, but her answer was incorrect. She then asked another girl who answered correctly and explained her reason. The girl replied to her in Thai and Vanida then provided constructive feedback before repeating the correct answer:

Vanida: Number 3, should the speaker apologise if the topic is complex?

[Long pause as the teacher gives the students time to think.]

Students: Maybe. No.

Vanida: So the person who answers “maybe”. Why? In which situation do you have to apologise?

Student: When the topic is complicated เพราะให้เขาเตรียมตัวตั้งใจฟังหน่อย [Because I want the audiences to pay attention.]

Vanida: So the person who answered “no”. What is your reason?

Student: เราต้องอธิบายให้คนฟังเข้าใจ [We have to explain to the audiences for them to understand.]

[The teacher smiles and responds with enthusiasm.]

Vanida: Exactly. Very good, because it is your job to clarify it. So you will not say that it is too complex. (Vanida, Observation, Class 1)

During the lesson, Vanida not only asked the students to express their opinions, she also provided constructive feedback pertaining to the correct answers. Indeed, Vanida indicated during her interview that she liked to motivate the students to speak English in class by providing constructive feedback and support. In this way the students would not be blamed when they made mistakes, as shown in the excerpts below:

Researcher: How do you motivate the students? Please give some examples or explain how to do it?

Vanida: I always tell the students that they have to speak. They should not care about making mistakes. If you can communicate, you are successful at a certain level. When they speak incorrectly, I will not blame or correct it at once or immediately but I will repeat what they say. Then, I say it correctly allowing them to learn that they make

mistakes. I will never embarrass them. (Vanida, Interview, p. 1)

She also mentioned that she motivated students who were shy to speak English by suggesting that they speak out without thinking about making mistakes. Hence, it seemed to be the case that making mistakes was accepted in her class because she would not blame the students for their mistakes or immediately correct the mistakes. Rather, she would simply address the mistake by repeating the word in its correct form. The students would then realise their mistake and learn through the process. Similarly, the dialogue above demonstrates that when the students answered incorrectly, Vanida did not immediately say “no”. Instead, she gave the students an opportunity to provide an explanation for their response. Even when one girl answered incorrectly, Vanida listened to her reason attentively and even appeared nonplussed about her mistake. She waited until the student finished her answer and then provided constructive feedback, drawing on the response from another girl who answered the question correctly. In turn, the girl who answered incorrectly appeared to be fine with the teacher’s response and remained actively engaged throughout the lesson. It appeared that welcoming the students’ opinions, allowing the students to make mistakes in the classroom, and not emphasising their mistakes encouraged the students to actively participate in their learning.

Furthermore, Vanida was observed to respond with constructive feedback such as “very good”, “yes” or “exactly” when the students answered correctly. Similarly, when providing an open-ended response, she appeared to motivate the students to learn by praising them when they did a good job. Providing praise as informational feedback is an autonomy-supportive practice (Reeve, 2009, Reeve & Jang, 2006). When the students answered correctly and they received constructive feedback, some of them smiled and a few clapped their hands to themselves. One girl in the middle row applauded her friends who answered correctly, and said “เก่งจังเลย” [Well done!] (Vanida, Observation, Class 1). She appeared to be cheering and praising her friends and they presented as happy and active. It also appeared to me that Vanida’s feedback helped to build student confidence and supported their autonomy.

Most of the students were interested and involved when Vanida gave them the opportunity to discuss the topics during the lesson. They felt active and enthusiastic in learning. They liked class discussions and answering questions because they had the opportunity to freely participate in a classroom where everyone was sharing ideas. This highlights that some students are not passive and are in fact willing to think for themselves and express their opinions. This is evident in the following examples:



I like to participate in discussions in the classroom because I have a chance to express my own idea and it is not from memorisation from the textbook. (Student 1, Q 4)

Her teaching is interesting because it allows everybody a chance to participate and the students have freedom to express their opinions freely. (Student 2, Q 1)

I like to express my opinions to friends because it dares me to think. I am not afraid to think. I think if the students have the chance to express their opinions often in the class and practise this a lot, it will help them to have a better development. (Student 8, Q 3 and Q 6)

Her teaching is interesting because the students have opportunities to express their views and the classroom atmosphere is relaxed. (Student 9, Q 1)

I like answering the questions. It might be right or wrong. I like it because it makes me active and it also allows me to get involved with the subject. (Student 11, Q 3)

I like to exchange the answers with the teacher and the classmates in order to receive some new ideas. (Student 13, Q 4)

### **6.2.2 Give choices to students**

A significant theme in Vanida's teaching was providing choices to students during learning. A common theme that emerged in her responses to the open-ended questionnaire items, one-on-one interview, and classroom observation data was that she supported learner autonomy by encouraging students to choose what they want to learn. Vanida mentioned during the interview that she supported student autonomy by allowing the students to choose their topics of interest. She also suggested how to choose a good topic:

For example, I encourage the students to choose the topic, but if they say it is difficult I will let them choose something similar so that they can translate it into English. The difficult part of the learning process is the English, the content is not difficult. If the teacher chooses something the students are not familiar with, both subject or topic will be difficult. This allows them to choose what they like. (Vanida, Interview, p. 2)

Vanida realises that supporting autonomy is accomplished by allowing the students to have freedom to choose what they want to learn. Vanida was observed to support learner autonomy by allowing the students to choose their own topics of interest for their presentations. At the end of the second observed lesson, when the students finished the textbook exercise, Vanida discussed the group task to be presented in front of the class. She stood at the front of the classroom and switched her choice of language from English to Thai when she provided the details of the assignment. This was in order to assist the students to understand clearly what the task involved. The students were allowed to choose their own group members and topic. Vanida explained that each group could choose the main topic and the subtopic relevant to the main topic. Each person in the group was required to present on the main topic. She provided some topic and subtopic examples. The following excerpt demonstrates how Vanida provided the opportunity for the students to choose their topics:

Vanida: Topic ก็คือ our favourite...อะไรก็ได้ที่เราสนใจ เช่น band, singer หรือ movie

[The topic should be what you are interested in such as your favourite band, singer or movie.]

(Vanida, Observation, Class 2)

Most students were enthusiastic about the task. They looked at her attentively and listened carefully as she provided a topic example about a well-known boy band in Korea. The students seemed surprised that she knew this band so they smiled and laughed with each other. Some students asked her questions about the presentation times and criteria. Vanida responded to the students clearly and they seemed to understand the requirements of the task. Vanida then further explained the activity for the next class in Thai, mentioning the schedule for each group presentation, the rehearsal date, the presentation date, the university break and the holiday break. She spoke in Thai when providing the students with important information. Similarly, Vanida's survey response demonstrated that she perceived student autonomy to be "the freedom for learning what they want (+ how)" (Vanida, Survey, p. 8) during her interview she stated that autonomy:

... is when the students feel that they can learn whatever they want. They are able to choose what they want to study. (Vanida, Interview, p. 2)

Vanida's belief about autonomy appeared to be connected to her actual teaching practices. She believed autonomy was the feeling that students have the freedom to choose what they want to learn. As such, Vanida's concept of autonomy aligned with the SDT dimension of choice. It demonstrated that her belief aligns with the definition of autonomy in SDT: that is, the feeling of volition and choice by students. Therefore, Vanida's actual teaching practice was to encourage students to choose their own topic for their presentation. Furthermore, she indicated that autonomy was:

Very important. If they can learn what they want, in the way they want, they will be motivated and can learn better. (Vanida, Survey, p. 9)

On the basis of her comments, it can be argued Vanida realised that allowing students to choose what they wanted to learn was essential in encouraging their motivation to learn. She appeared to understand the connection between autonomy and motivation in terms of the way autonomy significantly enhances intrinsic motivation and internalisation (Deci et al, 1991). Although she realised that it was important for the students to achieve autonomy, she appeared to rarely have an opportunity to allow students to choose what they wanted to learn. Vanida indicated this view in her survey responses, stating:

If possible, I provide them the chances to work on what they're interested in. Also, I adjust my teaching style according to the need of each group of students. (Vanida, Survey, p. 9)

Vanida remarked that she provided students with the opportunity to learn what they wanted and also that she adapted her practices to the students' needs "if possible". This demonstrated that the autonomy-supportive practice was conditional on the circumstances in the classroom and dependent on the curriculum. Indeed, Vanida indicated in her survey responses that she experienced problems supporting learner autonomy because:

Most of the time, we [teachers] have to follow the syllabus approved by the university and we need to teach exactly the same way in every section. (Vanida, Survey, p. 9)

Her constrained teaching practices appeared when I observed that Vanida mainly followed the textbook step by step. The students mainly completed textbook exercises and I observed that the textbook was written in black and white. In addition, I noticed that the students were

required to engage with audio and video material in one exercise. She used visual aids to allow the students to watch and listen to the video from two male presenters to answer the questions. The students listened carefully and watched the video clips. They wrote down the answers in the textbook and looked up again to watch the videos. When the students finished the tasks, Vanida asked them questions, one by one, from the textbook. However, it was apparent that the audio and video clips were quite old because the colour had faded. It appeared to me that the learning activities and materials were boring to the students.

Vanida seemed to realise that the lesson was boring and she indicated that she would like to choose her own textbook and learning activities for the students. However, she appeared to accept the strict curriculum implemented in her workplace. Vanida explained that other universities provided greater freedom to lecturers to choose the textbook independently and to apply their preferred teaching style. Her university, however, did not afford teachers the freedom to choose the textbooks and learning activities. The teachers had to follow every step of the prescribed curriculum, as revealed in the following dialogue:

Researcher: You mentioned that the challenge in supporting autonomy is to follow the syllabus or curriculum. Do you have any other challenges with students?

Vanida: No, not really. If the students are able to choose what to study, they will like it. They have freedom. They have rights in the class. Especially at my university, the rights and freedom of the instructors are limited. Beside the strict regulations, the set teaching schedules must be followed effectively. Every section must be taught at the same time and in the same manner. The examination must be the same too. (Vanida, Interview, p. 2)

Most of Vanida's students agreed with her, indicating that they would like to engage in learning textbook activities that were more fun and interesting and have new materials to support their learning. The majority of students indicated that they did not like learning from the textbook and visual aids only. They reported that the textbook content was not interesting and the audio-visual video clips were out of date, as shown by the following comments:

I need to have a colourful textbook and I suggest that the technology and visual aids should be modern, for example; the video clips should be more up to date and interesting. (Student 4, Q 7)

The textbook should contain more interesting contents and the visual aids should be interesting and they should cover a variety of knowledge. (Student 8, Q 7)

Teacher should provide more recent and more interesting materials for example interesting audio-visual clip videos. (Student 12, Q 6)

The course could provide more fun activities that do not make us get bored while we are studying. (Student 13, Q 6).

I do not like doing textbook activities because it is boring. (Student 14, Q 4)

I do not like doing textbook tasks because they are not interesting. (Student 16, Q 4)

Hence, it may be concluded that Vanida's teaching practices were controlled by the scope of the curriculum and university regulations. As a result, she could not support student autonomy as fully as she wanted to. This problem appeared to undermine her autonomy and motivation to support learner autonomy and motivation. This demonstrates that even though a teacher has a SDT conceptualisation of autonomy, there are some significant constraints that undermine the teachers' efforts to support autonomy and the students' motivation to learn.

### **6.2.3 Humour**

A significant theme in Vanida's teaching was humour. This theme emerged in the interview and classroom observation data, in that she would at times tell a joke in the classroom in the belief that it would make the students happy and the classroom atmosphere relaxed and enjoyable. She stated in the interview that this technique went very well in her recent lesson, as shown below:

Researcher: Can you describe one of your recent lessons that you thought went very well?

Vanida: I try to make the learning atmosphere relaxed and not too formal. I sometimes make jokes with the students to create a friendly atmosphere and to make them feel more comfortable. I just try to make the teaching and learning fun so that the students want to attend. They dare to be friendly with me. I encourage friendliness and I tease them too but I do not let it go too far. I must keep the class atmosphere good in order to make the students want to study. (Vanida, Interview, p. 4)

I observed Vanida would smile and laugh with her students while lecturing. She seemed to be a kind, friendly and humorous teacher. She made jokes while she explained the content or while providing examples. The students smiled and laughed when she made jokes. They actively discussed topics with her and sometimes responded with jokes of their own. For example, when Vanida explained to the students when and why a presenter should smile, she asked the students a question. One girl replied with a funny answer and Vanida also made a joke, as shown in the excerpts below:

Vanida: Can you smile all of your talk? [Should you smile all the way through your presentation?]

Students: No.

Vanida: Why not? Because what?

Student: คืดเหมื่อย [I feel stiff.]

[The teacher laughs loudly and smiles.]

Vanida: A very good reason!

[All laugh and smile.]

Vanida: No. Actually as I said before, it depends on the topic. If your topic is so serious, you will not smile all the time. You will not smile when you are talking about the death of people, right?

[Some students laugh. Some students smile.]

(Vanida, Observation, Class 1)

Two incidents are worth mentioning. The first incident was when a boy arrived forty minutes late to class. He opened the door and when Vanida heard this she looked to the door and then looked at her watch and said “แข่งกันทำสถิติหรือ” [Are you trying to set a record?] (Vanida, Observation, Class 2). The boy smiled and walked to the back row to sit with his friends. All students laughed and smiled. A student arriving late to class is a common scenario in Thai classrooms, but arriving forty minutes late is unusual. Surprisingly, Vanida did not get angry

and even made a joke with a relaxed voice and smile. This is an unusual response, because in my experience of Thai university classrooms, a teacher normally gets very angry, complains and does not smile. Vanida appeared to be a patient and happy teacher.

The second incident was when two girls were singing in class. While Vanida was explaining the lesson content to the students she used the phrase “never ever”. Two girls seated in the back row of the classroom sang the phrase aloud as the words were also from the lyrics of a current Western pop song. Vanida smiled at the girls and made a joke, saying, “อารมณ์ดีนะจ๊ะ” [you look happy] (Vanida, Observation, Class 1). Both of the girls laughed and smiled. The students were notably very relaxed and happy. They seemed to enjoy learning and participating in the activities. This type of scenario is rarely seen in Thai classrooms as they are typically quiet and serious settings. Thai students normally speak out only when a teacher prompts them to talk.

Vanida seemed to make jokes in order to keep her students happy and relaxed and to motivate them to learn. Offering enjoyment is an autonomy-supportive practice that enhances students’ engagement and motivation (Jang et al., 2010). Vanida indicated her belief that if the students were happy while learning they would enjoy studying and completing the activities. Also, she believed that if the students realised the importance of what they learn, they would encourage themselves to learn. As Vanida mentioned during the interview:

Student motivation is initiated by two factors; namely, the realisation of the importance of what they have to study and the happiness they gain from their study. If they are happy, they will participate in the activities. They want to study and do homework, and if they realise the importance of learning, although they are not always happy, they will often force themselves to study. (Vanida, Interview, p. 5)

According to Vanida, the two factors that motivate students to learn are the realisation that what they are learning is important and happiness. In turn, student happiness is derived from a good teacher-student relationship. A teacher who is friendly and humorous can make the classroom atmosphere relaxed. The realisation by the students of the importance of what they are learning can also motivate them to learn, as Vanida mentioned that she motivated students to learn for knowledge. If the students understand the value of the knowledge they learn to their life and future, they are more motivated to learn. In SDT, the two factors mentioned by Vanida are identification motivation (extrinsic motivation) and intrinsic motivation, respectively.

Some students confirmed that the classroom climate was enjoyable due to Vanida's jokes and her friendliness:

I feel good. The classroom atmosphere is relaxed. My friends are happy and cheerful.  
(Student 8, Q 1)

I think that she performs well. She is friendly with the students. Her performance does not cause us any stress and the classroom environment is relaxed. (Student 9, Q 5)

I do not feel pressured while studying. I have fun and feel joy. (Student 13, Q 1)

She teaches well. She is friendly with the students and she loves to make jokes. She has a sense of humour while teaching that makes the class interesting and attractive. (Student 14, Q 5)

#### **6.2.4 Summary**

The three main themes to emerge in the Vanida case study, related to her beliefs and teaching practices, are that it is important to motivate students to learn for knowledge, to provide choices to students, and to use humour as a teaching tool. Vanida believes that she encourages the students to learn in order to acquire knowledge rather than grades. She believes that learning for knowledge is the true goal of learning; whereas learning for grades is not a permanent goal. She interacts with the students and focuses on their understanding of the lesson content. She asks the students for their opinions, provides them with adequate time to think and to do the tasks independently, accepts error-making by the students, and provides constructive feedback. Most students enjoy her classes because she allows them to participate in the lesson by providing them with the opportunity to discuss the topics and to ask questions. The students appreciate being given the opportunity to express their own opinions. Furthermore, they like the fact that Vanida listens to them.

Vanida believes that supporting autonomy is when the students feel they have the choice to learn what they want to learn. Her belief about autonomy aligns with the SDT concept of autonomy. Therefore, she allows her students to choose their own topics of interest. It does appear, however, that she cannot support learner autonomy as fully as she would like to because her teaching practices are significantly dictated by the syllabus, examinations, and the university policy. Most students do not enjoy "textbook" learning as they believe the textbook tasks and



exercises to be boring and cause them to feel sleepy. Additionally, some students have concerns about the content of the textbook, suggesting that it is uninteresting and out-dated. This highlights that the students would like to do more interesting activities instead of learning from the textbook only. It may also suggest the teacher should provide more interesting learning activities to make the students more active in the learning process and find the learning experience more enjoyable. Vanida also makes jokes and tries to maintain a relaxed classroom atmosphere because she realises that how the students feel will affect their learning process.

### **6.3 Case 2: Saithip**

Saithip is a female teacher who is aged in her late 30s. She is completing a Master's degree in English Teaching at a Thai University. She has seven years of English teaching experience and typically teaches undergraduate students. While being observed, Saithip was teaching the course, "English for Career", a subject about fundamental English knowledge and skills for career development and, as such, it focused on basic vocabularies and grammar. Each session of the course was three hours duration. The class included 26 Information Technology major students, 14 females and 12 males.

The classroom was a long rectangular shape as illustrated in Figure 10 and included an air conditioner. The teacher's table and whiteboard were at the front of the room. The students sat on lecture chairs in pairs in two rows along each side of the wall. I sat at the back of the classroom and noted that the classroom appeared to be small because the students sat close to the wall and quite close to each other. The students sat facing the teacher and whiteboard in mixed-gender friendship groups. They wore the university sports uniform comprising a short-sleeved shirt and long pants. A few wore a thin sweater because the air conditioner was on and the temperature in the classroom was quite cold even though the outside temperature was quite hot because the class started at 12 p.m. Some students arrived shortly after the class had started and they sat in the back row.

Saithip was standing at the front of the classroom wearing a casual short-sleeved shirt and long colourful skirt. She started the lesson by greeting the students with "good afternoon" and the students replied in kind. Saithip then asked the students in Thai whether they knew about the examination date and the examination content outline. She informed the students of the upcoming examination date and contents by drawing attention to the textbook page and pointing to the relevant content. Following this, Saithip asked the students to complete the textbook exercise with her. She asked the questions in Thai and the students answered in Thai.

Saithip commenced each textbook task by asking the students a general question; for example: What can you see in the picture? Most students seated at the front and middle of the classroom actively answered the question in Thai. Saithip would also give the students a hint or clue in Thai to help them to answer the question. The students answered correctly in Thai and Saithip translated the answer into English. The students jotted down the answer in English. Saithip spoke Thai when she asked the students questions or when explaining the task. Indeed, she taught the entire lesson using Thai except when adding a short and easy English sentence or phrase to illustrate a point. When Saithip spoke an English sentence, however, she would subsequently translate the words into Thai. It appeared to me that she liked her students to learn English and to practise their listening skills by adding short and easy English sentences. To help the students to understand the meaning of the English usage, however, she would subsequently translate the English sentence into Thai.

Saithip allowed the students a few minutes to complete the textbook exercises. While she waited she often walked around the classroom to observe the students as they worked. The students looked down at the textbook and completed the exercises with their friends. They seemed to like to complete the task together rather than to work individually. Saithip then asked particular students or groups to read out their answers to the whole class, using English. Almost every group or each student read the English sentence answers very softly. Saithip repeated the answer word by word in English in an apparent attempt to help the students to read out aloud. Following this, she translated the meaning of the whole sentence into Thai. The classroom atmosphere seemed to be active, in that Saithip interacted with the students and regularly asked them questions in Thai. However, she invariably initiated and asked questions, as the students would speak in response to a specific question.

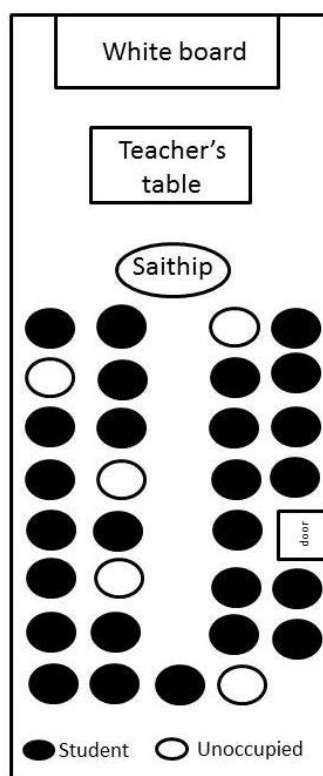


Figure 10 Saithip's classroom

### 6.3.1 Motivate students to learn for grades

A significant theme to emerge in the interview and classroom observation data was that Saithip encouraged the students to learn for grades because she valued the importance of scores. Saithip strongly believed that providing scores was a very effective method to motivate students to learn. She also demonstrated her belief that providing scores or rewards was effective for student learning because their goal was to get scores to achieve good grades. Saithip mentioned during the interview that she used certificates and scores to motivate the high achieving students to learn, as illustrated below:

Researcher: How do you motivate high achieving students?

Saithip: High achieving students deserve reinforcement. I motivate them with certificates and scores. It is very effective. The students need to get favourable scores. (Saithip, Interview, p. 4)

I observed at the beginning of the first class that Saithip wrote down the lesson topic sequence on the whiteboard; for example, 1. Vocabularies, 2. That must be, 3. Have to/don't have to, and 4. Be used to/ got used to. She asked the students to look at the whiteboard and indicated in Thai that these were the topics to be learned during the lesson. All of the students looked up at the whiteboard and listened to her. She informed the students that the lesson would be short today because there were only four topics. This demonstrated that Saithip offered a program of action to guide the students' ongoing activities and that she provided structure to the students. This helped them to be aware of what they would learn and to have clear plans and goals. The students remained quiet, however, and looked tired. It seemed to be the case that the students thought the lessons were too difficult for them.

Each time Saithip finished the lesson activity on the whiteboard she would write a check mark behind the topic and ask the students to indicate whether it was clear and understandable to them before continuing to the next topic. If the students indicated they understood the topic, Saithip would ask them to give themselves a round of applause and draw pictures of stars on the board. The stars functioned as a reward she gave out to her students for their attention and effort and they appeared to motivate the students to be active and alert. For example, when the students finished the first lesson activity, Saithip asked if they were happy that they had finished one topic and then asked them to give themselves a round of applause. Saithip then wrote a check mark and three stars after the first topic on the whiteboard. This is illustrated in the example below:

Saithip: ตอนนี้เราจบไปแล้วหนึ่งหัวข้อ ดีใจไหมคะ [Now we have finished one topic. Are you happy?]

Students: ดีใจ [I am happy.]

Saithip: ปรบมือให้ตัวเองหน่อยคะ [Please applaud yourself.]

[Students applaud.]

Saithip: ให้ไปสามดาวนะคะ [I give you three stars.]

(Saithip, Observation, Class 1)

Furthermore, I observed that before Saithip asked the students to complete the textbook exercises she would talk about the examination by stating that the examination would look like this exercise. For example, she asked the students to complete the task on the modal verbs "have

to” and “can” and then she stated that ข้อสอบประมาณนี้เลย นี่อาจจะหลายข้อหน่อยนะ [The examination will be similar to this exercise. These questions may be like many of the exam questions.] (Saithip, Observation, Class 1). The students looked down and concentrated on answering the questions in the textbook. Saithip seemed to motivate the students to pay attention to the task and motivated them to learn for answering the examination questions. This appeared to lead the students to learn for scores and then grades. When she asked the students questions and they answered incorrectly, she would remind the students that if the question was in the test, they should look carefully. For example, the students answered incorrectly because they forgot to change the verb form to the past tense. She explained how to look at the context and change the tense form and gave them the correct answer. After that she said to them that “ระวังเวลาทำข้อสอบ ดูดีๆ ด้วย” [Please be careful while doing the test, please look carefully.] (Saithip, Observation, Class 2). It appeared to me that she would like to make sure that the students could do the test and get good scores.

I observed that after the students finished answering the textbook exercises, Saithip would remind them about the examination and give examples of examination questions. For example, after the students completed the exercise about career vocabularies and adjectives she emphasised to the whole class that the vocabularies just learned would be in the examination. She provided an example of an examination question and explained the correct answer. She also encouraged the students to learn and remember the vocabularies for the test and stated how many of the marks in the test would be awarded for vocabulary usage. The students were surprised by the number of marks she mentioned and she therefore explained how important the marks in the test were to their grades. The dialogue below provides a sample conversation:

Saithip: อันนี้เป็นคำศัพท์ที่เกี่ยวข้องนะคะ เวลาถ้ามันอยู่ในข้อสอบอยู่ในข้อสอบ เขาอาจจะให้อาชีพหรือว่าคำอื่นมาให้เขาอาจจะ blank ให้นักศึกษาใช้ใหม่ สมมติเขาบอกว่า งานหมอบเป็นงานที่ดีดีดีดีดีมาก เพราะว่าต้องคิดอะไรหลายๆอย่างเกี่ยวกับโรคของคนไข้ และเขาก็มีคำว่า stressful, creative หมอบ creative ใหม่ [These are the vocabularies that might appear in the exam. Career vocabularies or other words are provided for you to fill in the blank, right? Below is an example: The doctor’s job is a very ... job because the doctor has to diagnose the patient. The words stressful and creative are provided for you. Is the doctor’s job creative?]

Students: ไม่ [No.]

Saithip: ก็คงไม่ ไม่ละอะไร stressful เครียด ถ้านักศึกษารู้จักคำศัพท์ทำข้อสอบได้ไหม [Rather no, no then you choose stressful. If you know vocabularies, can you do the exam?]

Students: ได้ [Yes.]

Saithip: confirm สองข้อออกแน่นอน [I confirm that there will be two questions like this one in the exam.]

Students: สองข้อ [Two questions!]

Saithip: สองข้อ ก็คะแนน [How many points for two questions?]

Students: สองคะแนน [Two points.]

Saithip: สองคะแนน สมมติได้ บีบวก สองข้อสำคัญไหม [If you get B+, are two points important?]

Students: สำคัญ [They are important.]

Saithip: อ่า สำคัญมาก [Ah...they are very important.] (Saithip, Observation, Class 1)

Saithip emphasised to the students the importance of achieving good grades. It appeared to me that Saithip encouraged the students to learn in order to achieve grades rather than to gain knowledge. According to Saithip's belief, grades are very important to students and students should aim to learn for grades. She believed that providing scores and rewards was an effective way to motivate the students to learn. The results of her teaching practices in the classroom appeared to align with her belief as she provided stars on the blackboard, warnings about the examination, and emphasised the importance of exam scores and grades. In SDT, a controlling teaching style such as relying on rewards, scores and grades may undermine student autonomy and their initial motivation to learn (Jang et al., 2010). Furthermore, in SDT, offering external outcomes encourages students to learn from extrinsic motivation rather than intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1991).

### 6.3.2 Humour

A significant theme related to Saithip's teaching style was her use of humour. This theme emerged in the interview and classroom observation data in that Saithip liked to make jokes in the classroom because she believed that humour would make the students enjoy learning English. When interviewed about a recent lesson that she thought went very well, she commented that humour was an important element when assisting students to learn English, as shown in the following dialogue:

Researcher: Can you describe one of your recent lessons that you thought went very well?

Saithip: I would like to recall my latest teaching when I used jokes and found that it went very well. If the students don't enjoy their studies or the teacher is stressful, they will not want to study. Actually, the teacher is very important to student learning. Teachers who have a sense of humour and who are friendly with the students are successful in their career. Also, the students' learning attitude and the classroom atmosphere will be desirable. If the teacher is strict, the children will be afraid of making mistakes. They are afraid of being blamed. This situation will not produce good teaching and learning. Successful teaching depends on the teacher's emotion. Sometimes, when I work under stress, I cannot teach well. Humour is important. I used to study under a teacher who had a sense of humour, so I like English and I want to teach in this style. (Saithip, Interview, p. 4)

Saithip was impressed by her own English teacher who made learning English fun. She realised the teacher's emotion could affect the students' attitudes and classroom atmosphere. Therefore, she aimed to develop in her students a positive feeling towards English. Offering enjoyment is an autonomy-supportive practice (Jang et al., 2010).

I observed that Saithip regularly made jokes during the lesson and she smiled and laughed with the students. The students laughed and smiled when she made jokes and also responded to her with jokes. They seemed to enjoy the class. For example, Saithip started her first topic on vocabularies of working life by asking the students to look at the picture in the textbook and guess the name of the career. This is illustrated in the example below:

Saithip: Look at the first picture. What does he do? ลองดูรูปที่หนึ่งสิ เขาน่าจะทำงานเกี่ยวกับอะไรอ๋อ  
[Let's look at the first picture. What does he do?]

Student: ขายบ้าน [Sell a house.]

Saithip: เห็นคำว่าอะไร [What is the word that you see?]

Students: Sold

Saithip: เห็นคำว่า sold รู้เลยว่าเขาต้องขายอะไรสักอย่างแน่ เขาขายอะไรคะ [You see the word 'sold' so you know that he must sell something. What does he sell?]

Students: ขายบ้าน [He sells a house.]

Saithip: เพราะ [Because?]

Students: เพราะเขายืนอยู่หน้าบ้าน [Because he is standing in front of the house.]

[All laugh and smile.]

Saithip: ขอบคุณมาก [Thank you very much.]

[All laugh and smile.]

Saithip: อ่า ที่นี้ เขาเป็นนายหน้าขายบ้านใช่ไหม รู้ไหม ภาษาอังกฤษ how do you call that นายหน้า [Ah...now you know that he sells the house, right? Do you know this career in English? How do you say the name of this career?]

Students: [Silence]

Saithip: ยังไม่รู้ นายหน้า [You don't know this word yet.]

Student: Mr. Face (Please note: the literal translation of นาย is Mr. and หน้า is face.)

Saithip: Mr. อะไรนะ Mr. Face [Mr. what? Mr. Face.]



[All laugh and smile]

(Saithip, Observation, Class 1)

Saithip added some jokes while providing clues or hints to help the students to answer correctly. This made the students feel relaxed and confident to participate. When they could not provide the meaning of words, Saithip would provide the meaning to the students in Thai and encourage them to guess the meaning of the words. Saithip provided the students with time to think about or guess the answers as shown in the following interview comment:

When I teach them about vocabularies in the classroom, I will not tell them the meanings instantly. (Saithip, Interview, p. 2)

Saithip explained or gave examples of the word meaning until the students answered correctly. For example, after one group finished reading the whole sentence she asked the meaning of the key word from this sentence in Thai. The key word was ‘temporary’ and Saithip would ask the students to guess the meaning of ‘temporary’ in Thai. She tried to explain the meaning by providing a funny clue and waited until the students realised the correct answer. The dialogue below provides a sample conversation:

Saithip: Temporary รู้จักปากกา permanent ไหม เหมือน permanent เขียนแล้วเป็นไง ลบออกไหม [Temporary. Do you know a permanent ink marker? How do you use the permanent ink marker? Can we erase it?]

Students: ไม่ออก [No, it cannot be erased.]

Saithip: Permanent แปลว่าอะไร [What is the meaning of permanent?]

Students: ถาวร [Permanent.]

Saithip: Temporary เป็นคำที่ตรงข้ามกับคำว่า permanent ถาวร กับ [Temporary is opposite of permanent. Permanent and ...]

Students: ไม่ถาวร [Not permanent.]

Saithip: ไม่ถาวร ภาษาไทยแปลว่าอะไร ถาวรกับ ชั่วอะไร ชั่วอะไร [Not permanent. What is the meaning in Thai? Permanent and... Tem ... what? Tem ... what?]

Students: ชั่วคราว [Temporary.]

[All laugh and smile]

(Saithip, Observation, Class 1)

The students laughed, and some repeated her jokes ชั่วอะไร ชั่วอะไร [Tem ... what? Tem ... what?] and smiled as they jotted down the meanings of the words in the textbook. When Saithip finished translating the key words of the sentence she asked the students the correct answer again and asked its meaning in Thai. When the students answered correctly she responded with “very good”. As she stated during her interview, she thought that this technique would motivate students to learn:

I like to praise students in front of their friends. They feel proud. Then, they will try to keep working hard. It works well. I always say “very good” to them. (Saithip, Interview, p. 5)

It appeared to me that Saithip liked to encourage the students to have self-confidence and dare to express their ideas and opinions in English. In addition, she seemed to encourage the students to be active and alert. Providing hints and informational feedback supports student autonomy (Reeve, 2009, Jang et al., 2010). As a result, most students mentioned that their favourite activity in Saithip’s class was answering questions. They explained that they liked this activity because they could improve their speaking skills and because the activity encouraged their learning. These reflections are evident in the following statements:

I like to answer questions with the teacher because I can practise my English speaking skill. (Student 9, Q 3)

I like to answer questions because it allows me to have more knowledge and apply the knowledge that I have learned. (Student 12, Q 3)

I like to answer questions because I can practise answering questions and problem-solving technique so that I can find the right answer. It is good for practice. (Student 22, Q 3)

In response to Saithip's sense of humour, some students tried to add to the fun atmosphere in the classroom. One added a joke and they all laughed and smiled. For example, Saithip asked the students to provide examples of careers that were relevant to the answer in the textbook exercise. The answer was 'well-paid':

Saithip: อาชีพอะไรที่ได้เงินดี [What are the well-paid jobs?]

Student: โคโยตี้ [Stripper]

[All laugh and smile.]

Saithip: เป็นอะไรอีก [What else?]

Students: เภสัชกร หมอ [Pharmacist and doctor]

Saithip: ทำไมหมอกับเภสัชกรได้เงินดีล่ะ [Why are doctors and pharmacists well-paid?]

Student: ขายยาครับ [They sell drugs.]

[All laugh and smile.]

Saithip: โปรแกรมเมอร์ก็น่าจะได้ดีใช่ไหมคะ ถ้าเขียนโปรแกรมเก่งๆอะไรเงี้ย อีกหน่อยเราอาจจะสร้างเครื่องของเราไม่ใช่ Apple อาจจะเป็น Banana Papaya เป็นยี่ห้อของไทย [Programmer is also well-paid, right? If you can create an excellent program in the future, we may make our own program. Not Apple but it may be Banana or Papaya which is a Thai brand.]

[All laugh and smile.]

(Saithip, Observation, Class 1)

During the class, the students answered Saithip with hilarious responses and everybody laughed. Saithip also responded with a joke and all students smiled and laughed. She appeared to be a person with a good sense of humour and she wanted to make the students enjoy learning. Most students enjoyed studying in her class because of her sense of humour as shown in the following survey responses:

Her teaching is interesting because she teaches enjoyably and she is great at telling jokes. (Student 8, Q 2)

I feel comfortable and I have a lot of fun. I used to dislike this subject. Now I start to feel better with it. (Student 9, Q 1)

Her teaching is interesting because she has a sense of humour. (Student 12, Q 2)

I like her personality. She smiles, laughs and talks jokes while teaching. (Student 16, Q 5)

This course is interesting because the teacher makes me laugh all the time. I learn comfortably without tension. (Students 23, Q 1)

She is kind, enjoyable, friendly, and has a sense of humour. Her personality makes me more interested and helps me to understand the lesson faster. (Student 25, Q 5)

Notwithstanding that many students seemed to enjoy learning in Saithip's class because of her sense of humour, a number of students also reported that they would like to do more interesting activities such as play language games and outdoor recreation. They responded:

The teacher should provide games in the classroom every two or three weeks in order to practise speaking and memory skills. (Student 2, Q 6)

There should be some activities, recreation and field trips. The students should be given a chance to talk with foreigners in different places. (Student 20, Q 6)

A few students also indicated that they would like to study with a native English speaking teacher.

The university should arrange for native speaking teacher to talk with us occasionally.  
(Student 5, Q 6)

A native speaking teacher should be arranged to teach alongside the Thai teacher. It may be interesting. (Student 18, Q 6)

Hence, the students indicated the need for more interesting activities or native English teachers to motivate them to learn. It appeared to me that the students would like to be more active and more interested in learning English and thus it would be beneficial if the teachers and university provided the types of activities that would interest the students and motivate them to want to learn.

### **6.3.3 Suggest out-of-class learning**

A significant theme in relation to Saithip's teaching style was the emphasis she placed on out-of-class learning. This theme emerged in the open-ended responses, interview and classroom observation data, in that she promoted out-of-class learning to students to support them to learn independently. During her interview Saithip remarked that she believed autonomy is necessary for lifelong learning and that autonomy is developed when students learn independently. This sentiment is revealed in the following interview comment in which Saithip states she believes the teacher's role is only as advisor to the students, who are the primary drivers of learning, as shown in the following excerpts:

Researcher: Could you please explain the term autonomy in your opinion?

Saithip: Autonomy should be about lifelong learning. When students want to learn something the teacher should just inspire them from the beginning. Students like to learn not only from teachers, but also to learn by themselves. When they want to learn they will search for knowledge by themselves. They must be motivated to learn by themselves. Autonomy will support lifelong learning when it is developed in the students. (Saithip, Interview, p. 2)

Saithip also emphasised in her survey response that learning independently out of the classroom is the most effective way to learn English:

I think lifelong learning and self-access learning are the best way [sic] of learning and it's not so easy to forget how and what you have learned. (Saithip, Survey, p. 8)

I observed that Saithip suggested methods to the students for learning English words independently outside the classroom. She suggested speaking English with friends, speaking English with her, and memorising three words a day while they are in the toilet. Saithip revealed her personal method in the following statement:

**Saithip:** อาจารย์เคยทำนะ อาจารย์เขียนภาษาอังกฤษติดฝาห้องน้ำ วันละสามตัวทุกวัน นั่งใช้เวลาก็ดูคำศัพท์ [I used to write 3 English vocabularies on the toilet wall every day. While doing business sitting in the toilet I can learn these words.] (Saithip, Observation, Class 2)

Saithip appeared to emphasise the importance of learning by oneself, asserting that learning in the classroom is not enough and that the students must also do things for themselves. To support her assertion, she revealed her own English out-of-class learning method to the students. Saithip seemed to encourage her students to learn independently, in order to support learner autonomy, according to her belief. In SDT, autonomy does not mean independence from others, but the feeling of volition and choice by one's self which needs support from others (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

However, Saithip mentioned during her interview that the main problem she faces in supporting learner autonomy is that the students lack confidence and are passive. She remarked that the students depend too much on the teacher and it is therefore hard to encourage them to work independently, as shown in the excerpts below:

**Researcher:** What are some challenges you face in supporting student autonomy in your classes?

**Saithip:** Most Thai students are afraid of making mistakes. They usually ask: "Is it correct, teacher? Is this verb correct?" The main purpose of teaching is to find ideas. They are afraid to do things by themselves. They always rely on the teacher. They usually ask, "Teacher, how do you write this sentence?" They are not confident because they are afraid of making mistakes. (Saithip, Interview, p. 2)

I observed that when Saithip asked the students to complete the exercise, she assigned them to work in groups rather than individually. She explained in the interview that the students

preferred working in groups because they could help each other. They appeared to lack the confidence to work individually. I also noticed that Saithip read the English sentences with the students word by word as the students read the sentences as a group to answer the textbook questions. The students however typically read very softly. Saithip encouraged the students to read out the sentences loudly so that everybody could hear. However, they still spoke very softly, so Saithip read the sentences with them to help them to read more loudly and to correct their pronunciation. The students seemed unsure about how to pronounce some words and whether or not their answers were correct. They seemed to lack confidence and to be afraid of making mistakes.

Furthermore, the students' responses matched her comments. According to the student survey responses, some students did not like to answer questions due to their poor English skills and because they were afraid of making a mistake, as shown in the following statements:

I don't like to answer questions because I feel that my speaking skill is not good enough and I don't know what I should say. (Student 3, Q 4)

I don't like to read out the long sentence alone in front of my friends because I cannot read some words. (Student 9, Q 4)

I don't like answering questions because I am afraid that my answers will be wrong. (Student 13, Q 4)

Saithip also indicated in both her survey and interview responses that she experienced problems in trying to motivate the students to learn English. She stated in her survey response that the issue was the students' low English language proficiency levels:

Some students don't know even how to write their name or how to read the easiest words but I have to teach them with the difficult lesson as [sic] their level (by curriculum). (Saithip, Survey, p. 8)

This revelation from Saithip highlights that some students' English skills do not match the content taught at the university level. Therefore, the teacher has to teach fundamental English skills while also assisting the students to complete the prescribed curriculum. She explained that this problem emerged as a result of the quality of English teachers in pre-university schools and

the inequality between government and private school education. As Saithip stated during her interview:

I have seen teachers with Master's degrees in Kindergarten schools in a foreign country. In Thailand, most English teachers graduate from vocational or high schools. I think Kindergarten and Elementary teachers are the most important people in the effort to improve Thai students' English language skills. The main reason why most private school students speak English well is that there are native English teachers or Thai teachers who have accomplished an English teaching certificate or degree. A government school teacher has to teach many subjects. The result is that most private schools students can speak English well while most government school students cannot. The difference indicates that the quality of the teacher of English is important. The government should emphasise the importance of achieving equality among teachers. (Saithip, Interview, p. 1)

Saithip emphasised how important is it to have highly qualified teachers in early childhood education settings because they play a crucial role in children's communication, learning, and psychological development. Furthermore, Saithip suggested government schools should adjust their management methods by recruiting more native speaker teachers or professional English teachers.

Saithip was faced with the problem of how to support learner autonomy and motivation. The problem was based on the students' lack of confidence and their passivity due to low English proficiency. Their low English proficiency was due to pre-university teachers and management. As a result, the students' proficiency level did not match the skills required by the university curriculum. Saithip tried to address this problem by suggesting out-of-class learning to the students to help them to learn independently. She seemed to hope that this method was the way to help students to improve their English proficiency and also to support them to be able to learn independently.

#### **6.3.4 Summary**

Three main themes emerged in relation to Saithip's beliefs and teaching practices: she motivates students to learn for grades; she uses humour as part of her teaching style; and she supports out-of-class learning for the students. Saithip encourages and persuades students to understand the importance of external outcomes (grades and scores). This emerges from her belief that providing rewards and scores is a very effective way to encourage students to learn.



A particularly effective teaching practice by Saithip is to make jokes during the lesson. This practice emerges from her belief that a sense of humour from the teacher can help the classroom atmosphere to be relaxed and enjoyable. The students will enjoy learning English and, as a result, they will have a positive attitude towards her teaching practices and enjoy studying in her class.

Most students enjoy being in Saithip's class because she tells jokes while teaching. This practice appears to make the classroom atmosphere enjoyable and relaxed. The students in the class do not report feeling bored or stressed. They like Saithip's friendly manner and sense of humour. About half of the students enjoy answering questions, but some of them do not like this because they are afraid of making mistakes due to a lack of confidence in their English proficiency ability. However, some students suggest Saithip should provide more interesting learning activities such as the introduction of language games in the classroom.

Furthermore, Saithip encourages the students to learn independently outside the classroom by recommending helpful out-of-class learning methods. This emerges from her belief that autonomy is a lifelong learning process and is the outcome of learning independently. Her belief about autonomy does not align with autonomy in SDT. Saithip does, however, also report that it is difficult to motivate students to learn English because most lack confidence due to their low English language proficiency level.

#### **6.4 Case 3: Yuwadee**

Yuwadee is a female teacher who is aged in her early 20s. She is a novice lecturer with less than one year's experience. Yuwadee studied high school abroad (Europe) and finished her Bachelor's degree at her current workplace. She recently completed a Master's degree in English Teaching at a Thai University. Yuwadee typically teaches undergraduate students and the university at which she teaches uses English as the first medium of teaching. Yuwadee was teaching the "Literature" course to students and its primary focus was on poetry forms and interpretation. Each teaching session for the course was three hours duration. The class included 30 English major students, 26 females and 4 males.

Two girls were standing at the front and centre of the classroom near the television on a stand as they prepared to give a presentation in English. The whiteboard was behind the television. Yuwadee sat in the front row with the students to listen to the students' presentations. I sat at the back of the classroom, which included an air conditioner and ceiling fans. As illustrated in Figure 11, the students sat on desk chairs in four rows of eight divided by a walking aisle down the middle. They placed their textbooks on their tables and sat close to the

wall along the side and back of the classroom. The classroom was relatively small for 30 students who sat in mixed gender friendship groups (in both classes) facing the television. The students wore the university uniform; namely, a short-sleeved shirt and mid-length black skirt for the girls and a short-sleeved white shirt and long black trousers for the boys. Most students wore a jacket and some wore a sweater because it was winter and the lesson started at 9.00 a.m. One girl started her presentation as another girl stood near the computer on the teacher's table at the right side of the room to change the Power Point slides. The computer was connected to the television and the Power Point slides were displayed on the television screen. The students looked at the screen and listened to the presentations. Some took down notes in their textbook during the presentation.

After the students finished their presentations Yuwadee walked to the front of the classroom. She wore a long black dress with a thin sweater. She was standing near the table and talked to the students about what they would learn during the English lesson. The lesson consisted of limerick poems, haiku poems, and ballad poems. Yuwadee assigned the students to groups to participate in cooperative learning by asking the students to move their chairs to form five groups of six people each. She then handed each group a blank piece of white paper and asked one student to write the group members' names on the paper. She assigned each group a poem to read and interpret.

She talked to the students in English during the lesson and when they finished discussing the poem, one student from each group read the poem out loud and gave the group's interpretation. Following this, Yuwadee explained the meaning of each poem in detail using English phrases, but she would also use Thai when the students seemed to find some of the phrases difficult to understand. She thus spoke in Thai only when the English phrase or word was complicated.

While Yuwadee explained the meaning of each poem, the students were attentive and jotted down notes in the textbook. When she asked the students questions about the interpretation or the meaning of poem, however, they did not answer her. They remained quiet and mostly waited for Yuwadee to explain the meaning. Yuwadee mainly gave a lecture-style lesson whereby the students sat quietly and listened to her. The students would answer or participate in the classroom only when they were told they would get a small piece of paper decorated with a coloured flower petal. The classroom atmosphere seemed to be stifled in that the students seemed to be unmotivated and unenthusiastic about the lesson activity. They seemed to prefer to listen to the lecture.

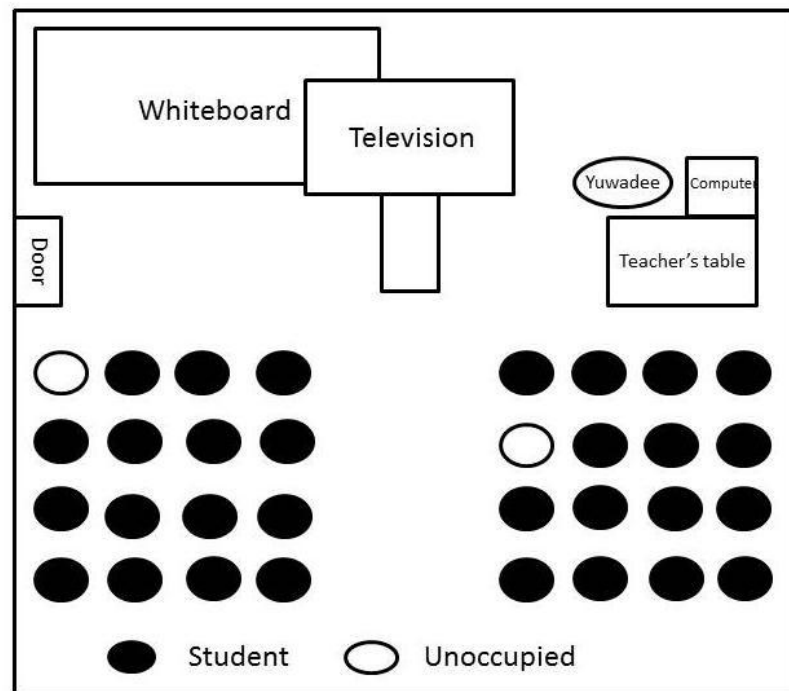


Figure 11 Yuwadee's classroom

#### 6.4.1 Motivate students to learn for incentives

A significant theme related to Yuwadee's teaching style was that she motivated students to learn for incentives. This theme emerged in the interview and classroom observation data, in that she offered incentives in the classroom. Yuwadee believed that offering an incentive is an effective way to motivate students to learn and participate in the lesson activity. She believed that this method would support students to achieve good grades. She explained this belief during the interview, in response to a question about whether she motivates students through incentives in every classroom, as revealed in the dialogue below:

Researcher: Do you offer incentives in the classroom with 15 students?

Yuwadee: Yes, I do offer incentives every class. Students will get excited and want to participate because this practice (offering incentives) encourages them to believe that even though they cannot do the exam, at least they have a little support from these scores. It is quite effective. (Yuwadee, Interview, p. 3)

Yuwadee called the incentives ‘love points’ and she awarded them to students who participated in the lesson activity, such as reading the poem, answering her questions, or reading in advance for homework. The incentive was a small piece of paper decorated with a coloured flower petal. Each card had its own coloured petal, with each colour symbolising a different score.

The classroom activity focused on learning different types of poems and interpreting the poem’s meaning. Before the students started to learn each poem, Yuwadee asked for a volunteer to read the poem out aloud. If no student volunteered, Yuwadee would look at the list of students’ names and then nominate a student to read. She responded with “thank you” and then gave the student ‘love points’ for their effort. The method of nominating the students to do something potentially placed pressure on those who were not willing to read. However, the act of awarding a love point as a kind of reward seemed to help Yuwadee gain compliance from the students.

Yuwadee also called out ‘love point’ repeatedly to motivate the students to participate. For example, she asked the students to volunteer to read a limerick poem, but typically, no student responded. Yuwadee raised one hand and counted down the time yet still no one responded. She said ‘love points’ two or three more times and the students became more active, with one boy raising his hand very fast to volunteer to read the poem that appeared on the television screen. The other students looked at the television and listened to him. Following this, Yuwadee explained the meaning of the poem and the students listened to her attentively and jotted down notes. Soon after, Yuwadee walked over to the boy to hand him a ‘love point’. This is illustrated in the example below:

Yuwadee: One volunteer!

Students: [Silence]

Yuwadee: Five, four, three, two, one! One volunteer to read! Love point. Will a love point help you to read?

[One boy raises his hand.]

Yuwadee: Go!

Student: หมดเลยหรือคะ [Read the whole poem?]

Yuwadee: Hmm.

Student: There was a young fellow named Hall,  
Who fell in the spring in the fall;

[Pause; the student stops reading]

Yuwadee: 'Twould

Student: 'Twould have been a sad thing  
If he'd died in the spring.  
But he didn't – he died in the fall.

Yuwadee: Hmm. 'Twould' is exactly the two words of there would have been, right? But for the restriction of the pattern so the poet decided to compress the word 'twould'. Okay. Let's see here. 'Spring' can mean two things, right? Three things here, season of the year, the source of water and jump. So, the first spring, he'd died in the spring in the fall what do you think? Is it a season or source of water or the jump? ['Spring' can mean more than one thing, right? It can mean three things here: season of the year, the source of water, and to jump. So, when the poet writes, "If he'd died in the spring", what do you think? Is the poet referring to the season or the source of water or to jump?]

[Students answer very softly. They seem to be unsure.]

Yuwadee: It could be both, right? Source of water or to jump. Fall?

[Students answer very softly.]

Yuwadee: Can be season as well and can be the act of object fall. Tumbling and falling down. In the fall I guess the first fall means the season. So he died in the source of water in the season of fall autumn. Autumn is the fall, right? There will be a bad thing if he would die in the spring. Spring here is the season but he didn't he died in the fall so in here it can be both a season by itself and the act of falling. This can be called 'pun' when words can be two things. When you think about it, it's quite funny, right? Whether he died because of the season or because of the water. [It may be referring to the season or

the act of falling. I guess when the poet writes; “in the fall”, fall may be a reference to the season. It would be a bad thing if he were to die in the spring.]

(Yuwadee, Observation, Class 1)

The dialogue above reveals that when Yuwadee asked for a student to volunteer to read out the poem she received no offers. To volunteer was to offer to read the poem freely and willingly which no student was prepared to do. However, as soon as Yuwadee offered a love point to any student who was prepared to read out the poem, one student suddenly raised his hand because he would get something in return. It showed that offering an incentive in the classroom motivated the students to learn for rewards. Furthermore, it appeared that Yuwadee took on the main role of talking and explaining. She did not seem to provide the students with any opportunities to express their ideas and interpretations. She seemed to direct the talk around her own interpretation rather than listening to the students' interpretations. Therefore, the students answered her questions very softly when asked about the meanings of the words.

The students' quiet responses may however have also been because they were unsure and/or confused about her interpretation. As a result, the students seemed to prefer to listen and jot down Yuwadee's interpretation which seemed to be correct. In SDT, a controlling teaching style such as offering incentives and directives to gain compliance may undermine students' autonomy and initial motivation to learn (Jang et al., 2010). Then, they may learn only for external outcomes.

Yuwadee also gave out 'love points' when the students answered her questions. While she was explaining the meaning of the poems, she asked the students the literal or symbolic meaning of the words in the poems. She would say “anyone” or “anyone want to express their ideas” as she raised her hand. The girls in the front row actively answered the questions and when one girl answered correctly she was given a love point. However, Yuwadee did not give out 'love points' all of the time, especially when the question was easy. For example, she asked the students the symbolic meaning of the word 'storm' and two students, one girl and one boy, answered correctly. She did not give them 'love points' and although the boy was very disappointed, Yuwadee continued to explain the meaning of the poem as the following dialogue illustrates:

Yuwadee: What are the snow storms? Can be symbol for what? If you travel and there are storms. [The “snow storms”, they may be a symbol for what?]

Girl: Problems.

Yuwadee: Problems.

Boy: Obstacles

Yuwadee: Or obstacles. Good. Too easy, so no point.

[The teacher smiles and the girl laughs.]

Boy: Oh man!

Yuwadee: So this is actually talking about a journey of life. Sometimes you may experience some difficult moments, right? Like a storm. (Yuwadee, Observation, Class 2)

The boy's reaction when he was not given a love point clearly demonstrated that he expected a reward if he provided a correct answer. When he did not receive a love point, he interjected with "oh man!" to express his feeling of disappointment or displeasure. Thus, it is evident that offering an incentive as a controlling practice may result in the students experiencing negative feelings (Deci et al., 1999). That is, when the students are driven to learn by a desire to gain satisfaction from external outcomes rather than from personal interest and enjoyment, when the external outcome is not satisfying, the learning itself may not be satisfying.

I observed the students also gave out 'love points' to one another. Both classes commenced with the students working in pairs to present the biography of a well-known poet. The presentation took around 20 minutes for each class. When the first pair group finished their presentation they had to ask their friends questions about their presentation. Yuwadee walked to the presenters and provided them with bags of 'love points' of different colours. They were allowed to give out 'love points' to their friends. Yuwadee provided the following instruction:

Yuwadee: Listen to the questions carefully. This time is special because they decide which colours to get for your love point so the presenters have the authority.

(Yuwadee, Observation, Class 1)

When the presenters read out the questions, most students actively wanted to answer the questions by raising their hand. The students who raised their hand first would be allowed to answer the questions. Therefore, they had to raise their hand before their friends in order to get a love point if the answer was correct. When a student answered the questions correctly, one presenter would walk over to him or her and hand over a love point. Every pair group was allowed to do this practice when they finished their presentation. It appeared the power to give out 'love points' and even to choose the colour or score to give out to friends was an incentive to students because Yuwadee interpreted the 'love points' as a symbol of authority or control. In the same way, it showed Yuwadee also controlled the students by using the 'love points' to maintain her authority in the classroom.

During the interview Yuwadee talked about 'love points' and test scores. She explained that she learned about the practice from a previous lecturer in the course and thought it was a good technique to encourage students to concentrate on their studies. This sentiment is revealed in the following excerpts from Yuwadee during her interview:

Yuwadee: The previous senior teacher used 'love points'. She had a picture of the four steps of human evolution; from apes to upright walking humans. But my steps were represented by a tree with a small petal. If one did a good job it would eventually become a full flower. I used these steps in the hope that the students would realise how much they have accomplished.

Researcher: Did you give scores to them?

Yuwadee: Yes, I gave scores; otherwise they would not pay attention. The participation scores are included, with 10 points for class attendance and 5 points for 'love points'.

Researcher: How about the class with 15 students? Did you use 'love points'?

Yuwadee: Yes, every class. Students will get excited and want to participate because this practice encourages them to believe that even though they cannot do the exam, at least they have a little support from these kinds of scores. It is quite effective. (Yuwadee, Interview, p. 3)

Yuwadee explained that she evaluated the students' performances in the course by combining the students' scores in the exam with their participation scores. The participation score included



the class attendance score and the 'love points'. Undoubtedly, their grade is influenced by the 'love points'. It reveals that Yuwadee's teaching practice is to encourage students to focus on incentives and grades rather than on acquiring knowledge. As a result, the students' main goal is to achieve a grade rather than develop their knowledge. In SDT, offering incentives encourages students to learn from extrinsic motivation rather than intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1991). Interestingly, this practice matches Yuwadee's comments during her interview regarding the problems she experienced in motivating the students to learn. Yuwadee indicated the problem was caused by the fact that most students focused on grades. She stated; "the students pay more attention to the grades they expect to receive from the university than to the knowledge they can gain" (Yuwadee, Interview, p. 2).

In turn, a consistent theme to emerge during the interview was that any time the topic turned to problems associated with motivating students, Yuwadee attributed the problem to the students. In her view, the problem is with the students and as such she overlooks any issues with her teaching style, beliefs, or knowledge, etc. It appears contradictory for Yuwadee to state that the problem is caused by the students and their skewed focus on grades when she actually encourages a form of extrinsic motivation through her use of 'love points'.

Furthermore, four students disagreed with Yuwadee's view. According to their survey responses, they did not enjoy the use of 'love points', with one student commenting that the practice encouraged students to focus on scores rather than knowledge. The following survey responses from students reflect similar views:

Sometimes the teacher gives special scores too easily and this makes the students feel that the goal of their study is to get scores instead of understanding the lessons. (Student 5, Q 4)

I don't like competing to answer questions in order to receive 'love points'. (Student 7, Q 4)

I don't like raising my hand to answer questions to get 'love points'. I could not raise my hand before others, so I did not have an opportunity to answer, even though I knew the answer as well. (Student 8, Q 4)

I don't like that the teacher gives the 'love points' to the same students. She should allow the other students to answer the questions as well. (Student 10, Q 4)

The students who provided the responses above would clearly like to participate in the classroom freely without incentives, and it is clear that this practice does not encourage them to think and to express their opinions freely. It also causes negative feelings in the students such as feeling disappointed, feeling neglected, and feeling controlled. The students' comments argue that the students themselves would like to learn for knowledge and understanding rather than for grades, which is contrary to Yuwadee's beliefs. Furthermore, some students indicated that Yuwadee should provide them with more interesting activities in the classroom:

There should be more activities which eliminate student stress. The activity can help the students to learn effectively. (Student 7, Q 6)

Please provide more activities. (Student 13, Q 6)

Students need activities to help them to think actively and to encourage them to be alert. (Student 15, Q 6)

Teachers should make the students feel relaxed by providing more games or short activities in order to enhance the enjoyment of the learners. (Student 27, Q 6)

The above comments reveal that the students would like feel more relaxed and to enjoy learning by being provided with interesting activities. The comments also show that the learning activities in the classroom influence the level of active learning engaged in by the students.

#### **6.4.2 Providing cooperative learning**

A significant theme related to Yuwadee's teaching style is cooperative learning. This theme emerged in the interview and classroom observation data in that she often required the students to do group work in the classroom. Yuwadee believed that cooperative learning was good for students as it required them to share their ideas and to get to know each other well. She mentioned that she learned this practice while studying for her Master's degree in English teaching, as shown in the following excerpts:

Researcher: You provide cooperative learning activities in the classroom. Is it your own teaching or from the syllabus?

Yuwadee: I learned how to provide cooperative learning activities for students when I studied English teaching. The course suggested that a teacher should provide cooperative learning opportunities because students are often more creative than we expect. I think cooperative learning is good in that it allows students to share their opinions and to develop closer relationships. (Yuwadee, Interview, p. 5)

During the first of Yuwadee's lessons that I observed, I noticed that she provided the students with a group work activity. She assigned each group the task of reading a nominated poem and identifying its theme and meaning, allowing each group approximately 15 minutes to work on the task. The students talked loudly in Thai and actively discussed the meaning of the poem as a group. They sat upright with their backs straight and Yuwadee walked around the room to observe their progress. She spoke in Thai to the students in some groups when referring to the meanings of some words. She believed this task motivated the students to be active because, as stated during her interview, "it could make students alert" (Yuwadee, Interview, p. 5). The students seemed to be active and attentive to the task.

Following this, Yuwadee asked the students if they were ready to share their ideas. Some students nodded their heads. A representative of each group read out their nominated poem and another student then outlined to the whole class the group's interpretation of the poem's theme. The students listened to their peers attentively. Following each group's presentation, Yuwadee would read each verse of the poem again and explain the meaning according to her interpretation. While she talked about the poem's theme, the students sat quietly and wrote down notes in their textbooks. I noticed that some student groups shared a different interpretation of the poem's theme to that shared by Yuwadee. Yuwadee would repeat the group's interpretation and then provide her own, reminding the students that an interpretation depended on your understanding and that there was not necessarily a right or wrong interpretation. Although Yuwadee reminded the students that it was fine to have different interpretations, it appeared to me that she did not welcome the students' explanations or allow them to discuss their ideas. She seemed to adopt the main role during the explanation and interpretation process. This is illustrated in the example below:

Student: Utter aloneness —  
another great pleasure  
in autumn twilight

Student: Theme is everything happens in autumn twilight, someone is loneliness [sic] someone are [sic] happiness [sic].

Yuwadee: Okay. Good. Because you say it another, you understand it as another person, right? But for me, I understand it as it as another pleasure. So being the most it's not bad at all. It's not all the time bad. Sometimes this person also is being alone in the autumn twilight, right? What is the colour of the sky in twilight time? Orange, towards dark, right? In blue sky. But it's not bad just, another pleasure. But it can be understood in your way, right?

(Yuwadee, Observation, Class 1)

The students were not allowed to express their ideas to the whole class as Yuwadee took on the role of providing the main ideas. The students appeared to follow and listen to her and were therefore being passive. However, the students were allowed to share their ideas within their groups. Creating opportunities for initiative is an autonomy-supportive practice (Jang et al., 2010). It supports student autonomy because they are encouraged to think for themselves and to exchange their thoughts with their peers. As a result, the students enjoyed doing cooperative learning because they were allowed to share and exchange their ideas and it made the classroom more interesting as shown in the survey responses:

I like working in groups because we can share our ideas among the group. (Student 5, Q 3)

I like to work in a group because I can obtain ideas from others and I can compare the similarities and differences. (Student 10, Q 3)

I like sharing ideas with my friends because this activity makes the classroom atmosphere not boring, but cheerful. (Student 15, Q 3)

I like group work because we can share ideas among group members. (Student 16, Q 3)

I like group work and discussion because it allows me to gain new knowledge and I have a chance to listen to other people's ideas, how they think about it. (Student 22, Q 3)

It is evident from the students' comments that cooperative learning supports students to think and create new ideas, as well as supports their autonomy to think and speak freely. It reveals

that the students like to think originally and to learn from their peers, not only from the teacher. The students appear to enjoy doing something that is original and authentic.

This episode also shows that a teacher's own learning experiences can influence their beliefs and teaching practices. Yuwadee learned about cooperative learning practices while studying for her Master's degree and believed that it would be good for students to learn via such activities. Therefore, it may be assumed that providing teachers with knowledge of the concept of autonomy in SDT and autonomy-supportive practices can benefit (i.e., develop) their teaching practices and, in turn, enhance student autonomy and their intrinsic motivation.

#### **6.4.3 Assign students to read in advance**

Another significant theme related to Yuwadee's teaching style is assigning advanced reading. This theme emerged in the open-ended responses, interview and classroom observation data in that she often assigned advanced reading tasks to the students. When discussing her experiences of studying in Europe, Yuwadee described herself as an autonomous learner. She recalled experiences of having to read the subject materials in advance or else risk not being able to understand the lesson. In turn, Yuwadee intimated that she continues to be an autonomous learner in Thailand by reading the textbook in advance at university. Therefore, she believed autonomy is learning independently from a teacher, as stated in the respective survey and interview responses below:

I think autonomy is a sense of learning by oneself without having to wait for information from the teachers. (Yuwadee, Survey, p. 8)

Learning by yourself is about gaining a sense of the success of learning. We learn to benefit ourselves. Apart from taking exams, we obtain knowledge. One does not have to wait for the lecturer to say what to do in the class. (Yuwadee, Interview, p. 2)

Yuwadee mentioned that she facilitated learner autonomy by advising the students to learn independently by using out-of-class learning strategies such as listening to English music and watching English movies. When talking about her learning experiences as an undergraduate student when studying the same course, Yuwadee explained that the teacher would always read the poems to the class and that she understood what the teacher was saying because she read in advance at home. She also commented that her friends would typically wait for the teacher to explain the poems to them or that they would ask her to explain things to them later.

Yuwadee stated that she did not want her students to wait for her to explain everything to them in the classroom. She liked to encourage student autonomy and independent learning, and as such I observed that she asked the students to read the poems in advance so that they could formulate an understanding of the poems prior to the lesson. I also observed, however, that Yuwadee motivated the students to read in advance by offering ‘love points’. She explained that offering ‘love points’ was very effective for encouraging students to read in advance because without the ‘love points’ the students would wait for her or their peers to explain the meanings of the poems. This belief is illustrated in the following excerpts:

Researcher: What will happen if you do not use ‘love points’?

Yuwadee: They will not read in advance because they believe that the teacher and their friends will explain the meaning to them in the class. (Yuwadee, Interview, p. 3)

During the second lesson of Yuwadee’s that I observed, she started by asking the students if they had completed the assignment by reading the poems in advance. Yuwadee walked around the classroom to look at every student’s textbook to see whether or not they had completed the task. She then distributed ‘love points’ to the students who did the homework. One girl complained to Yuwadee that it was difficult to understand the poems and Yuwadee responded to the girl that she would explain the meaning of poems. While she walked around the classroom to provide ‘love points’ she suggested to the whole class that they should read each poem many times, as shown in the following excerpts:

Girl: อาจารย์ มันเข้าใจยาก [Teacher, it is hard to understand.]

Yuwadee: Okay. I will explain.

[The teacher walks around the classroom and gives out ‘love points’.]

Yuwadee: Maybe [when] you read it [the poem] for the first time you may not get it, so you need to read [it] many times or perhaps read it at different times.

(Yuwadee, Observation, Class 2)

The above excerpts demonstrate that Yuwadee appeared to block the complaint or negative expression by the student by responding that she would explain the poem to her. She did not ask the student to explain why it was hard to understand, or which poem, etc. and thus did not seem to openly address the negative element in the student's complaint. Instead, Yuwadee attempted to fix the negative affect by saying, "I will explain". Yuwadee also used the phrase "need to" to inform the students that she required them to independently read each poem many times in order to understand it. She did not attempt to teach them how to read and interpret the poems, but rather focused on providing incentives to the students. Thus, Yuwadee appears to use controlling practices such as blocking or countering when responding to students' expressions of negative affect (Jang et al., 2010). Using language such as 'have to', 'must', 'got to', and 'should' which require someone to do something is a controlling practice (Reeve, 2009). The "need to" phrase used by Yuwadee appears to be an illustration of controlling language to achieve this affect.

When Yuwadee had finished checking the students' homework and providing 'love points' to students who had read the poems in advance, she began to ask the students questions about the poems. She did not, however, receive any responses from the students and concluded that the reason for this was that the students did not study in advance, as shown in the following statement:

Yuwadee: นี่คือผลของการไม่อ่านมาก่อน งงเลย [This problem occurs because you do not read the text in advance. As a result, you are not able to answer my questions.] So, when I asked you, you don't have any opinions because you are not thinking about it beforehand.

(Yuwadee, Observation, Class 2)

The statement above clearly shows that encouraging students to learn independently by offering incentives is a controlling practice that is often ineffective. The students completed the assignment to get a reward incentive rather than to acquire understanding or knowledge. Furthermore, Yuwadee's conceptualisation of autonomy does not align with the concept in SDT. Autonomy in SDT does not mean independence from others or from the teachers (Ryan & Deci, 2002). As a result, the students did not respond and actively participate and thus appeared to be controlled and unmotivated.

Yuwadee believed, however, that the reason she experienced difficulty in facilitating learner autonomy in her teaching was due to the students. She said the main problem was that

some students were compelled to study at university even though they were not equipped with the language skills to study at this level. Therefore, it was hard for them to study independently. Yuwadee stated during her interview:

Student success depends on how study is conceptualised and the study goals to be achieved; namely, whether the study is undertaken for good grades, to satisfy parents, or to create work opportunities into the future. The challenge to supporting autonomy is that the students are often forced to study at university even though they do not have the necessary skills. This does not mean that they are not smart, but it means that it does not suit their ability. Some are suitable for vocational schools, but if they finish such schools they may not be accepted into the workforce. University level study does not suit everyone and some students struggle to achieve autonomy. The results then include attrition, re-enrolment, unsuccessful attempts, and financial resource waste. The problem is caused by the parents' decision without considering their child's abilities. As a result, compelling students to study does not support motivation for them to study by themselves. (Yuwadee, Interview, p. 4)

Yuwadee also believed students should set their own study goals and mentioned three goals in particular: good grades, parents' satisfaction, and future work. She thought that most students studied in order to satisfy their parents and were subsequently controlled to learn by their parents. Therefore, the students were not willing to learn independently. Yuwadee attributed this as the reason why it was so hard for her to encourage learner autonomy. In SDT, a controlling context undermines intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In the same way, students who are controlled to learn by their parents therefore experience reduced intrinsic motivation. Yuwadee also mentioned, however, good grades and future work are external outcomes that result from extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Once the students have achieved their goals they no longer care about what they have learned. Alternatively, student goals to obtain knowledge, explore interests, and add value are the results of intrinsic motivation (Reeve, 2009) that generally result in them developing a positive attitude toward lifelong learning. Yuwadee appeared to believe that learning for external outcomes (good grades and future work) should be the goal of study and that it would motivate the students to learn independently.



#### **6.4.4 Summary**

The three main themes related to Yuwadee's beliefs and teaching practices are: motivate students to learn for incentives; provide cooperative learning activities, and read in advance. Yuwadee believes that offering incentives is an effective way to motivate students to learn. She offers 'love points' (incentive) in the classroom and applies this controlling practice in order to encourage the students to participate and to be active in the classroom. Indeed, Yuwadee not only offers incentives in the classroom, she also offers directives and seeks compliance by performing other controlling practices. Yuwadee also believes that cooperative learning supports students to be alert and active and so she implements cooperative learning activities in the classroom that provide the students with the opportunity to discuss their ideas. This is an autonomy-supportive practice and the students enjoy group work activities because they can share their own opinions in the classroom. Yuwadee engages in controlling practices to persuade the students to learn independently by reading in advance. She believes autonomy means learning by oneself, but this belief does not align with the conceptualisation of autonomy in SDT. This is despite Yuwadee being aware that the problems she faces in trying to motivate students are caused to some degree by her controlling style. Indeed, some students do not enjoy her teaching style and this appears to hinder their learning. Yuwadee does not realise, however, that providing 'love points' is also a way of controlling student motivation. While the students are motivated to be active participants in the classroom as a result of the use of 'love points', they may have no interest in the course or the knowledge they gain once the course is finished.

#### **6.5 Case 4: Lanna**

Lanna is a female teacher who is aged in her early 50s. She has thirty years of teaching experience and has completed her Doctorate in English as an International Language from a Thai university. Lanna typically teaches English for Information and Communications Technology (ICT) to undergraduate students. The focus in the course is on computer vocabularies and literacy associated with computer programs such as Microsoft Word and Excel. Each session of this course is four hours duration. The class observed for this study included 24 English major students, 22 females and 2 males.

The classroom was an air conditioned lecture theatre with loudspeakers and a large projector screen. The seats were arranged in seven rows of eight chairs, divided by a walking aisle. The students sat facing towards the teacher and the projector screen in four rows as illustrated in Figure 12. The boys sat in the middle row; whereas the girls filled the other available seats. Both the boys and the girls sat in the same area in both classes. I sat at the back

row. Most of the girls wore an official uniform comprising a short-sleeved white shirt and mid-length black skirt, and the others wore a university sports uniform comprising a short-sleeved shirt and long pants. Most of the students wore a thin sweater because the air conditioner was on and it seemed to be cold for them. The temperature outside the classroom however was hot because the class started at 1 p.m.

Lanna was standing at the front of the classroom near her desk and was holding a microphone. She wore a shirt and long skirt with a thin sweater. She started the lesson by telling the students that she would review the previous lessons' work by asking a series of questions. She also warned the students before asking the questions, that she would revise their test scores if they answered incorrectly. She thus seemed to pressure the students to answer correctly. Lanna then asked about computer vocabularies related to definitions and functions based on the learning activities completed in the previous lessons. The students looked at the textbook and answered softly. When the students answered correctly, Lanna responded with the phrase, “ขอบคุณพระเจ้า” [Thank you, God] (Lanna, Observation, Class 1). This phrase seemed to praise the students.

Lanna used a microphone when conducting the lesson and she stood at the front of the classroom when she taught the content shown on the projector screen. She taught the students about Microsoft Word as she displayed the Microsoft word program on the projector screen. Lanna asked the students to name of each of the features and icons as she pointed to the screen with a long ruler. The students answered very softly. Lanna then provided the answer and explained the functions. The students listened and jotted down answers on the lesson sheet.

Lanna taught the lesson in Thai, using English only when reading out English sentences from the information on the screen. She then translated the English sentences into Thai and would encourage the students to participate by asking the meaning of the English words in the sentences. Most girls in the front row answered her questions, but with a very soft tone as they appeared to be unsure of their answers. Although Lanna asked the students questions consistently throughout the lesson, the classroom atmosphere was quite subdued.

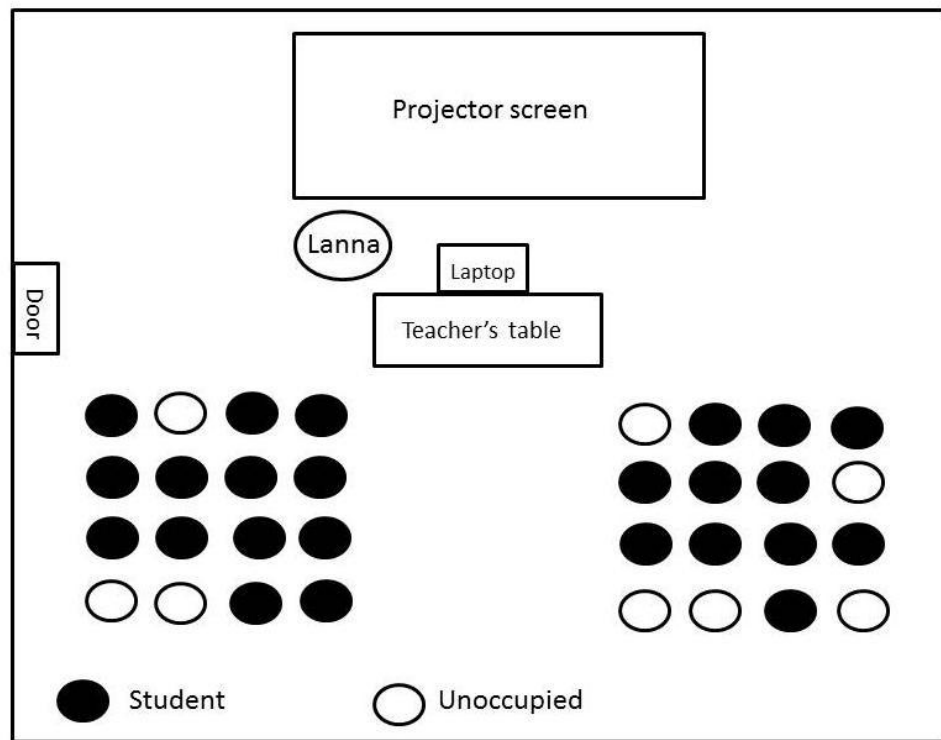


Figure 12 Lanna's classroom

### 6.5.1 Assign a group work presentation

A significant theme related to Lanna's teaching style was to assign the students a group work presentation, as revealed in the open-ended responses, interview, and classroom observation data. Lanna believed that autonomy meant the students should be encouraged to learn independently, as revealed in her survey response:

Autonomy is independent learning or self-directed learning. (Lanna, Survey, p. 7)

Lanna explained during the interview that she believed autonomy involved self-directed learning and the ability of students to learn independently by being self-motivated and by taking responsibility for their learning. As such, she believed the teacher should be regarded as a trainer who suggests information resources to students on how to learn independently. Therefore, she provided the students with examples of online resources where they could find information independently. In turn, the students would feel motivated, as she indicated in the dialogue below:

Researcher: You answered in the survey that ‘autonomy’ means ‘self-directed learning’. Could you please explain the meaning of self-directed learning?

Lanna: Autonomy means that the students can learn independently by their motivation and responsibility. Autonomy is rather vague. Self-directed learning is when the teacher trains the students a little by showing information resources and giving examples in order to motivate them to learn. Following this, the students are required to find information independently. (Lanna, Interview, p. 2)

Given Lanna’s belief that autonomy is primarily about learning independently, she therefore claimed that the role of the university lecturer was to facilitate this outcome by assigning independent learning tasks to students in order to motivate them. She believed that a facilitator should support the students’ autonomy by demonstrating how to use online resources and by assigning tasks which encourage them to search for additional information outside of the classroom. She mentioned:

The teacher who acts as the facilitator should not teach or tell the students everything. A facilitator is responsible for assigning practical activities or projects in order to guide students to search for additional information. Sometimes the teaching cannot cover all of the required content. The students must know where their research sources are because I usually demonstrate for them in class how to find the information. They will be required to do research on the missing topics and to deliver a presentation as their main learning project. (Lanna, Interview, p. 1)

During the second observed lesson of Lanna’s she assigned a group work presentation to the students that required them to research the information independently as homework. Lanna decided on the number of students in each group and the topic for their presentation. The purpose of the task was to support the students to learn how to independently access relevant information for the project and to present the information in front of the class. Lanna gave the following instructions:

Lanna: จำได้ว่ามี student presentation ด้วย ยังไม่ได้เอาหัวข้อมาให้ คีนันจะใส่หัวข้อมาให้ ที่นี้เช็คจำนวนก่อน เรามีเย่สิบหกคน ถ้าเราแบ่งกลุ่มละสาม จะมีอยู่กลุ่มหนึ่งที่มีแค่สอง ก็จะออกมาแก้กลุ่มพอดีนะคะ ก็หัวข้อ ก็ยกตัวอย่างเช่น ถ้าใครได้หัวข้อ word processing อย่างเงี้ย เราก็ไปหาความรู้ที่เป็นการเพิ่มเติมว่าถ้าเกี่ยวกับ word processing นอกเหนือจากที่เราเรียนใน

ห้องมีอะไรบ้าง ก็คือฉันที่จะได้ความรู้ทั้ง computer skill ด้วยและ English skill ด้วยนะคะ เราจะ present ที่เดียวเลย  
วันที่ 19 [I recall that this class includes a student presentation. I have not given you a topic yet. Tonight I will give it to you. Now let's check how many we are. This class includes 26 students. Each group consists of three students, and one group will have two students. So there are nine groups. In regards to topic, if you get the word processing topic for example you will be required to research new information on word processing. You should find the information that can help you gain knowledge about computer skills and English skills. All of you will give a presentation on the 19th.]

(Lanna, Observation, Class 2)

Lanna's belief about autonomy is similar to the concept of learner independence that learning through projects would encourage learner autonomy by allowing students to work toward their own objectives and goals on their own, using only their choice of materials from the library and online resources, rather than conventional [teacher centred] learning. This conceptualisation of autonomy does not align with autonomy as represented in SDT. Autonomy in SDT does not mean being independent of others, but rather it is the feeling of volition and choice in relation to the support provided by teachers (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

When asked during the interview about student-centred teaching, Lanna indicated that the subject she taught was mainly content-based learning with only one small project she called “student-centred กึ่งๆ” [student-centred approach could be half applied]. She then gave an example of a subject that mainly focused on the students' practical project, which she proudly called “student-centred เต็มๆ” [student-centred approach]. She explained how she applied a student-centred approach as shown in the following excerpts:

Researcher: How do you apply a student-centred approach?

Lanna: I assign a practical activity. Every course includes a project or a presentation. The project-based learning is 80% and 20% is content-based learning. Students have to research information and give a presentation. Content-based learning aims to guide students and to give them suggestions. (Lanna, Interview, p. 3)

The excerpts above reveal that Lanna links student-centred teaching to project work in which the students take full responsibility for the content and receive minimal assistance from the

teacher. A student-centred approach in Lanna's view is when the students take the main role in the learning activity; namely, researching the information for the presentation independently and spending most of the time presenting their project. As such, the teacher's role is to listen to the students and to allocate scores. In other words, Lanna believed that if the teacher played the main role in the learning activity by standing in front of the class and providing all of the content in lecture format then this was a teacher-centred approach. Her beliefs about student-centred teaching and learner autonomy thus appeared to be reflected in the project she assigned to the students.

Lanna also mentioned that the teacher-centred approach to student learning was the cause of the problems she faced in trying to support learner autonomy in the classroom. Teachers who relied on this approach mainly lectured to the students who, in turn, listened passively. As a result, the students preferred to depend on teachers for the learning content rather than to want to learn independently. Lanna explained that the students preferred to wait for the teachers to teach them:

Students are familiar with spoon-feeding teaching and they expect teachers to teach them all and they feel reluctant to do self-study. (Lanna, Survey, p. 8)

It is evident that Lanna conceptualises student autonomy to include a level of independence from the teacher and she therefore assigns group work presentations as a student-centred approach to avoid spoon-feeding the students. This method appears to encourage the students to research the additional content independently instead of only receiving the required content from her. However, the students have to present according to the topics assigned to them by Lanna (i.e., the students do not have the opportunity to choose their own topic of interest). Providing assigned topics is to offer a directive and offering directives is categorised as a controlling practice (Jang et al., 2010).

### **6.5.2 Demonstrate how to use the computer program**

Another significant theme related to Lanna's teaching style was demonstrating how to use the computer program. This theme emerged in the interview and classroom observation data. Lanna believed that she supported student autonomy by demonstrating how to use online resources and computer programs, as revealed in the following excerpts:

Researcher: How do you support your students' autonomy? Could you please give me some examples of your teaching practices?

Lanna: I demonstrated how to use online resources and the computer program. If I teach translation I will demonstrate how to translate by using Google translation from Thai to English. If there are technical vocabularies I will demonstrate how to search for the term's meaning. I always demonstrate these things using the projector screen which is connected to the internet. Therefore, I can demonstrate while lecturing and I sometimes capture the print screens and display them. (Lanna, Interview, p. 2)

I observed that Lanna demonstrated how to use some features of Microsoft Word and Microsoft Excel. Prior to starting the first lesson Lanna informed the students that they would learn about Microsoft Word. She then asked the students general questions about Microsoft Word and received some answers from the students before explaining the answers in full.

Lanna began focusing on the lesson content by reading out the English sentences about the functions of Microsoft Word appearing on the screen. She translated the sentence from English to Thai and asked the students to participate by providing the meaning of some English words in Thai. The students seated at the front of the classroom answered softly. After they provided the meaning, Lanna would repeat the meaning and then translate the whole sentence. She demonstrated how to use some of the functions according to the sentences on the screen. For example, one sentence described how the user could direct the Word processor to search for a particular word or phrase and also how to replace one group of words with another word everywhere that the group of words appeared.

When Lanna had finished reading out and translating the sentence, she asked the students to indicate whether or not they had used the features before. The students remained silent, so Lanna sat down on the chair and opened the Thai version of Microsoft Word. She then demonstrated how to search for words using the feature “ค้นหา” [find] and she explained how to find the word step by step. Following this, Lanna demonstrated how to replace the words by using the feature “แทนที่” [replace] and she also explained how to replace one word with another word. The students looked at the screen and listened to her carefully. Lanna then suggested to the students that they practise using these features independently.

During the second lesson, Lanna demonstrated how to use Microsoft Excel. Similar to the previous lesson, she read out the English sentences about each of the Microsoft Excel functions from the screen, for example, the sentence on how the user can calculate the total and

percentages of numeric values by using a particular formula. Lanna asked the students whether or not they had used the functions before and again the students remained silent. She then sat down and demonstrated how to calculate the total of the numeric values. Lanna opened the Thai version of the program and created a new document titled 'Exam Scores'. She entered the names of the students and entered values for the exam scores. She asked the students to help her to enter the values of the sample scores and the students seated at the front provided her with scores. Lanna then demonstrated how to calculate the total of the exam scores by entering the formula; that is, entering an equal sign (=), typing SUM, selecting the values, and then pressing ENTER. Following this, Lanna further explained the formula. The students looked at the screen and listened to her, with some jotting down notes. After Lanna had finished demonstrating how to calculate the values, she continued to read out each English sentence about the functions of Microsoft Excel from the screen, through to the end of the lesson.

During the lesson observation it was evident that Lanna chose particular features she wanted to demonstrate and therefore did not demonstrate every feature from the sentences on the screen. Instead, she suggested to the students that they practise these features independently. The learning activity was primarily based on reading out each English sentence about the program function from the screen. Again, Lanna translated the words from English to Thai and asked the students about the meaning of some of the words in Thai. The students seated at the front answered her questions, but the students seated in the middle and back rows remained quiet, with most jotting down the meaning of the words on their worksheet. After approximately one hour, I noticed that one student had leaned her head on the side of her classmate's chair, suggesting she was bored and sleepy. The students' survey responses provided interesting insights on this point:

Too much content sometimes makes me sleepy. (Student 1, Q 6)

Listening to the content that you have already known repeatedly is boring. (Student 15, Q 4)

I would like the teacher to create the classroom atmosphere to be more active because it is very sleepy. (Student 18, Q 6)

Sometimes the teacher only gives a lecture. The teaching style makes me feel sleepy. (Student 24, Q 5)



Lanna believed that demonstrating how to use the program may help the student to learn autonomously and motivate them to learn independently outside of the classroom. However, this practice did not appear to motivate the students to learn and to be active in the learning activity. Rather, it appeared to make them feel bored and sleepy as they were only required to look at the screen and to listen to Lanna while she demonstrated how to use the program. Additionally, some students suggested in their open-ended responses in the survey that they would like the learning material to be interesting and authentic, such as video clips about computer programs. As the following excerpts reveal, the students believed the use of more authentic learning materials and the teacher delivering the content in English would make the classroom atmosphere more interesting:

The teacher should provide authentic material such as video clips about the content in order to make the class more interesting. (Student 7, Q 6)

The teacher should occasionally show video clips about what we are learning. (Student 20, Q 6)

The teacher should speak English more. (Student 3, Q 6)

The teacher should speak English language in the class rather than Thai so that I can practise English skills. (Student 21, Q 6)

According to the survey feedback, the students would be more active and interested in the learning activity if Lanna provided them with authentic materials according to their interests. They also would actively learn English and develop their English skills if Lanna spoke English in the classroom. It appeared that the students would like to learn autonomously and to learn for knowledge.

### **6.5.3 Read out aloud**

A third significant theme related to Lanna's teaching style was reading out aloud. This theme emerged in the interview and classroom observation data in that Lanna believed the students should be allowed to practise reading out aloud in the classroom. She explained during her interview that Thai education should be a learner-centred approach where a teacher should not only lecture to the students and provide all the required knowledge. If it is still traditional teaching, students only passively listen and do not have an opportunity to practise their English

speaking in the classroom. Therefore, a teacher should encourage students to practise their English in the classroom by asking them to read out aloud. She explained this belief, as shown in the dialogue below:

Researcher: Could you please give me the reason why it is difficult for Thai education to apply a learner-centred approach?

Lanna: Some teachers at suburban schools give lectures and focus only on grammar. Students do not have the chance to practise. I think it is disappointing because if the teacher allows students to drill, it is good for the students to have a chance to pronounce the English words in the classroom. (Lanna, Interview, p. 3)

I observed that Lanna allowed the whole class to read some English sentences out aloud from the screen. While the students were reading, however, Lanna would read along with them. After the students finished reading the sentences, she would ask them about the meaning of each word. The students typically answered very softly and Lanna translated the meaning of each word into Thai. The students only jotted down the meaning of each word and listened to her translation of the whole sentence. This is illustrated in the example below:

Lanna: เดี่ยวขอพวกเราบ้าง เดี่ยวขออ่านสักนิดหน่อย ฟังเสียงหน่อย เอาประโยคแรกก่อน one, two, three [Now it's your turn. Please read out aloud the first sentence.]

Students: Allow you to direct the word processor to search for a particular word or phrase. You can also direct the word processor to replace one word or characters with another everywhere that the first group appears.

[The teacher reads along with students.]

Lanna: แปล จะแปลเดี่ยวหรือแปลกลุ่ม [Let's translate. Do you want to translate individually or in groups?]

Students: แปลกลุ่ม [In groups.]

Lanna: ไม่คิดเลยเหรอ คิดสักหน่อยสิ [Don't you want to think? Please think a little bit.]

[The students laugh.]

Lanna: เอาแปลกลุ่มก่อนก็ได้ ช่วยครูประโยคแรก [Okay, let's translate in groups. Please help me with the first sentence.] หน้าที่ find and replace ทำให้เราสามารถจะทำอะไร direct เราจะแปลว่าอะไรดีคะ [What can we do in the function of 'Find' and 'Replace'? Direct. What is the meaning of direct?]

Students: [Silence]

Lanna: มุ่งตรงหรือสั่งมันเองนะคะ อันนี้หมายความว่าให้เราสามารถสั่ง word processor เข้าไปทำไม [Straight or instruct. In this context we can direct the word processor to do what?]

Students: ค้นหา [Search]

Lanna: ค้นหา direct word processor to search a particular word or phrase ให้ไปหาอะไร [Search. Direct the word processor to search for a particular word or phrase. Search what?]

[The students answer very softly.]

Lanna: คำหรือวลีจะเฉพาะที่ต้องการนั่นเอง ต่อไปอันที่สอง นอกจากนั้น also นอกจากนั้นคุณยังสามารถทำอะไรคะ สั่งให้ word processor ไป replace one group of characters พวกกลุ่มอักขระที่เราต้องการ with another everywhere that the first group appears ก็คือไปแทนที่ตรงไหนก็ได้ที่ตอนแรกเราคัดไป [A particular word and phrase. What can you also do? Order the word processor to replace one group of characters with another everywhere that the first group appears.] (Lanna, Observation, Class 1)

Lanna stated during interview that she allowed the students to read out aloud. It was observed, however, that although she allowed them to read independently, she also read along with them. Furthermore, the students responded that they wanted to translate in groups, but she then asked the students to help her to translate instead of letting them work in groups as they requested. One student also commented that Lanna should allow them to translate independently:

I don't like it when the teacher helps with the translation. She should let the students translate by themselves (sometimes). (Student 6, Q 4)

Lanna appeared to neglect the students' request to work independently. Moreover, she seemed to take control of the learning process and to adopt a teacher-centred approach, even though she stated that she believed this approach made the students passive. As a result, the students mostly remained inactive during her lessons.

Furthermore, it was observed that Lanna allowed the students to read out some of the exercise questions to the whole class when completing the exercises together. Lanna read out most of the exercise questions, however, and after she finished reading each sentence she asked the students to identify the subject, verb and conjunction, as well as the meaning of the sentence. The students would provide an answer which she would repeat before translating the whole sentence. Following this, Lanna asked the students to answer the exercise questions, which they did.

Thus, it was observed that Lanna and the students completed the exercises together. Lanna seemed not to allocate time for the students to accomplish the exercises independently and she thus rarely gave the students opportunities to think, read and translate independently. Lanna did not allow the students to nurture the sense of challenge and seemed instead to offer directives. Offering directives is a controlling practice that undermines inner motivational resources (Jang et al., 2010).

In addition, it was evident that when the students provided correct answers with confidence and a loud voice, Lanna would respond with a comment about scores or tests. For example, “อย่างนั้นแสดงว่าข้อสอบเต็มกันละสิเนี่ย [It shows that you can get full marks in the exam] and “ไม่ต้องเรียนอะไรอีก สอบเลย” [You do not have to study anymore, you can do exam now] (Lanna, Observation, Class 1). Lanna uttered these phrases because the students normally answered her questions with a soft tone and she was implying that because they were confident with their answers, they could also do well in the exam. In other words, she appeared to imply that if the students could not answer correctly and loudly they could not do the exam or get full marks. Lanna seemed to encourage the students to learn for test scores and thus from extrinsic motivation because learning for scores or grades is a result of extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Even though Lanna believed that reading out aloud would help the students to practise their English language usage, the students were allowed to read out only some of the sentences. Indeed, the students were allowed to participate in the learning activity only when Lanna asked

them to read aloud, to provide the meaning of words, and to answer the exercise questions. The classroom atmosphere could therefore be described as controlled because the students were not allowed to learn in a way that they wanted to learn. Lanna seemed to direct the students to follow what she said.

#### **6.5.4 Summary**

The three main themes related to Lanna's beliefs and teaching practices are: assigning the students a group work presentation to complete; demonstrating how to use computer programs; and reading English sentences aloud. Lanna believes that student autonomy is about independent learning and that the role of the teacher is to encourage students to learn independently outside of the classroom. Therefore, she assigns the students a group work presentation and demonstrates to them how to use the computer program. Lanna believes that these practices will help to develop the students' abilities to learn independently and to be motivated learners. The students, however, appear to be inactive and bored in the classroom. Furthermore, Lanna believes that allowing the students to read out English sentences aloud in the classroom will help them to practise their English speaking skills. However, she allows them to read out only selected English sentences. Interestingly, Lanna provides feedback to the students about their scores and the test when she responds to the correct answers given by the students. She did not mention scores or tests during the interview and this reveals that in the classroom she seems to encourage students to learn for scores and test results according to her feedback.

#### **6.6 Brief discussion of results from the four case studies**

This section presents a summary of the findings to emerge from the four case studies and provides a brief discussion which compares the results. A cross-case study analysis is used to examine and compare the beliefs about autonomy and teaching practices of the four case study teachers. Table 6 summarises each case study teachers' beliefs about autonomy and three main teaching practices as derived from the open-ended survey, interview, and observation data.

The four case study teachers represent different beliefs about autonomy and rely on different teaching practices. Vanida's beliefs about autonomy align with the concept of autonomy in SDT as a feeling of volition and freedom based on the teacher's support. Saithip, Yuwadee and Lanna, however, seem to share a contrasting belief that autonomy is when the student learns independently from the teacher. Their beliefs are thus different to the way autonomy is conceptualised in SDT. Notwithstanding the similar beliefs about autonomy held

by the three teachers, they varied in the teaching practices they implemented to promote such autonomy. Furthermore, the results show that even though Vanida and Saithip have different views about autonomy, their teaching practices appear to be similar.

Table 6 Summary of four case study results

Case study	Vanida	Saithip	Yuwadee	Lanna
<b>Belief about autonomy</b>	Autonomy is a feeling of learning what you want to learn.	Autonomy is lifelong learning.	Autonomy is learning by oneself.	Autonomy is self-directed learning.
<b>Three observed teaching practices</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Motivate to learn for knowledge</li> <li>- Give choices</li> <li>- Humour</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Motivate students to learn for grades</li> <li>- Humour</li> <li>- Suggest out-of-class learning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Use incentives to motivate students to learn</li> <li>- Provide cooperative learning tasks</li> <li>- Read in advance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Assign group work presentation</li> <li>- Demonstrate how to use computer programs</li> <li>- Read out aloud</li> </ul>

The results show Vanida believes autonomy to be a feeling that one can learn what one wants to learn, which is similar to the concept in SDT. Therefore, she realises that students should learn in order to acquire knowledge rather than to achieve grades. Vanida emphasises that trying to persuade students to learn for grades is not effective. As a result, she does not offer rewards or test scores to encourage students to study in the classroom. Instead, she focuses on the students' level of understanding and interests. In contrast, Saithip, Yuwadee and Lanna believe autonomy is reflected in the level of independence from others the student demonstrates while learning. This view of autonomy is in contrast to SDT. Saithip and Yuwadee believe students learn for grades and they therefore assert that providing incentives or rewards is an effective way to motivate the students. In turn, both teachers encouraged the students to learn for external rewards (grades). According to SDT, the value Vanida places on learning for knowledge may encourage intrinsic motivation in students; whereas the value Saithip and Yuwadee place on external outcomes may lead to external regulation (extrinsic motivation).

Although Saithip and Yuwadee share a similar belief about rewards, their teaching practices are different. Saithip writes the stars on the whiteboard after finishing each lesson and talks about the importance of scores and grades; whereas Yuwadee provides 'love points' or incentives over the course of the lesson. Both teachers use external rewards to encourage the students to be active and alert in the classroom. However, Saithip's rewards do not appear to be relevant to the students' grades. She offers rewards only to motivate the students to pay attention during class. She talks about the importance of scores and grades in order to help the

students to pass the examination and potentially achieve good grades. In contrast, Yuwadee's rewards appear to be directly related to student grades as she mentions that the 'love points' are combined with the students' participation scores. Moreover, Yuwadee seems to offer rewards for three purposes: to motivate the students to participate in the classroom; to encourage the students to learn for grades; and to encourage students to learn independently by reading in advance.

In relation to the third purpose, Yuwadee explicitly applies a controlling practice in order to encourage the students to be independent according to her belief about learner autonomy. This is in contrast to Saithip who promotes out-of-class learning activities – rather than offering a reward – to encourage students to learn by themselves. With regard to Lanna, although she does not mention during the interview that she believes providing rewards to be an effective method to promote independent learning, she nonetheless provides praise related to full scores and positive examination outcomes when the students answer correctly. Lanna's purpose thus seems to be similar to that of Saithip, in that she is focused on helping the students to pass the examination and achieve good grades. It is assumed that the teachers who believe autonomy to be equated to independent learning are likely to encourage students to study for external rewards which are driven by external regulation (extrinsic motivation).

### **6.6.1 Humour**

Although Vanida and Saithip have different beliefs about learner autonomy, they have a particular teaching practice in common; namely, sharing jokes with the students in the classroom. Both teachers use humour as an autonomy-supportive practice by making the lessons enjoyable to the students and to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere. Vanida appears to tell jokes in order to make the students happy and relaxed in the classroom, because she believes that when the students are happy, they are more motivated to learn. This belief is similar to the view in SDT that enjoyment in learning nurtures students' motivational resources, which enhance their intrinsic motivation and academic engagement (Jang et al., 2010, Reeve, 2009). For Saithip, she appears to tell jokes because she not only wants the students to be happy and relaxed, but also because she wants them to enjoy learning English. Saithip would like the English language learning experience to be positive for the students, just as her own experience as a student was positive. Indeed, her desire to emulate her English teacher who taught with a sense of humour demonstrates that a teacher's prior learning experiences are likely to be a factor that influences their teaching practice.

### **6.6.2 Read out aloud**

Saithip, Yuwadee and Lanna share a similar teaching practice in that they encourage their students to read out aloud in English during lessons. The three teachers believe students should be able to learn autonomously (independently), but that the main problem to achieving this outcome is related to the students themselves. Saithip believes the main issue is that her students lack the confidence to learn autonomously due to their low-level English language proficiency; whereas Yuwadee and Lanna believe that the main obstacle is the students' passive approach to learning. In response, Saithip encourages the students to practise their English skills and to develop their confidence by asking them to read English words and sentences out aloud. Similarly, Yuwadee and Lanna encourage students to be active participants in the classroom by allowing them to read out aloud. In contrast, Vanida believes the students should be supported to learn about topics that they find interesting. Therefore, she encourages students to actively participate by allowing them to discuss and share their opinions. It appears Saithip, Yuwadee, and Lanna focus on student ability and this may lead to a controlling teaching style in which they pressure the students to behave in a specific way (Reeve, 2009). Alternatively, Vanida focuses on the students' feelings and this may lead to an autonomy-supportive style in which she tries to identify, nurture, and develop students' inner motivational resources (Reeve, 2009).

Although Vanida's understanding of the concept of autonomy seems to align with the concept of autonomy in SDT, and although she motivates the students to learn from autonomous motivation, she is challenged by a curriculum that seemingly hinders her own autonomy as well as learner autonomy. She provides the students with choices only when assigning them projects or group presentations. She has to follow the lesson and assessment formats prescribed in the curriculum and the students are therefore rarely asked to choose their own learning topic of interest, learning objectives, learning materials, or learning activities. Even though the students in Vanida's class would like to engage with more interesting learning content and activities, the curriculum does not afford the students the opportunity to put forward their opinions, preferences, and interests. The curriculum does not support teacher and student autonomy as it is conceptualised in SDT. It is clear that the curriculum is the main contextual element constraining teachers in their capacity to implement their beliefs and desired teaching practices.

### **6.6.3 Assign a group work presentation**

Three case study teachers assigned the students in their classes group work presentations; namely, Vanida, Yuwadee and Lanna. Vanida requires the student groups to present at the end of the lesson; whereas Yuwadee and Lanna require the student groups to present at the



beginning of the lesson. Unlike Yuwadee, who assigned the group presentation tasks prior to the observed lessons, Vanida and Lanna assign the tasks during the observation period. Notably however, they each take a different approach to providing the presentation topics to the students. Vanida allows the students to choose a topic of interest to them, which is regarded as an autonomy-supportive practice (Jang et al., 2010). In contrast, Lanna chooses the presentation topics for the students and thus appears to control the students' autonomy. This shows that the teacher's belief about autonomy may influence their teaching practices. Furthermore, it suggests that a group work presentation is a prescribed course assessment in the curriculum at Thai higher education institutions.

Lastly, it was observed for all four case study teachers that their teaching practices rely heavily on the learning exercises contained in the course textbook. Three of them teach to the contents of the textbook during lessons and require the students to prepare information for their group presentations outside of the classroom and then present the information to the class. Thus, the curriculum plays an important role in the teachers' teaching practices.

## **6.7 Summary**

This chapter presents and discusses the main findings to emerge from the four teacher case studies undertaken in this research. The findings include that teachers mainly draw on the contents of the textbook for their learning activities and that they prefer to give assignments to students to complete outside of the classroom. In addition, it emerged that most teachers believe student autonomy is to be conceptualised as a state of independence from teachers, and at the same time, that the teachers commonly apply controlling practices in their approaches to teaching. Therefore, it is clear that a tension exists between the knowledge that autonomy support is important and the difficulty of applying autonomy-supportive practices in the classroom. This tension may be attributed to their beliefs about autonomy—as independence, which conflicts with more formal conceptions of autonomy, as also reported in Chapter 5. The next chapter further discusses all of the findings in this research study.

## **7. DISCUSSION**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the quantitative and qualitative results from Chapters 4, 5 and 6. The discussion is presented in four parts. The first part addresses the relationship between teachers' attributes and teaching practices. The second part discusses how social context plays an important role in shaping teachers' beliefs and their actual teaching practices. The third part looks at the relationship between teachers' actual practices and students' motivation. The final part demonstrates the integration of all three of the parts discussed to present an overall picture of this study in order to understand the links between teachers' beliefs, their practices, and students' motivation.

### **7.2 The relationship between teachers' attributes and teaching practices**

This section describes teachers' attributes related to their teaching practices and discusses how teachers' general beliefs, their teaching goals, and their personal learning experiences influence teaching practices. Three findings stood out from the data as being significant: the relationship between teachers' beliefs and teaching practices; the ways in which teachers' goals influenced their teaching practices; and the relationship between the teachers' prior learning experience and their teaching practices. Each of these is discussed in turn.

#### **7.2.1 Teachers' beliefs and teaching practices**

Teachers' beliefs play a crucial role in the implementation of teaching practices (Bingimlas & Hanrahan, 2010; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2007). Teachers' beliefs about the definition of autonomy, along with other beliefs about student motivation, impacted their understanding of how to implement autonomy support in their teaching practices.

##### ***Teachers' beliefs about the concept of autonomy***

The majority of the teachers in Phase 1 of the study described autonomy as an ability to learn independently. Furthermore, the autonomy-supportive teachers targeted in Phase 2 elaborated on these beliefs with strong agreement that learner autonomy equates to independence from teachers. The teachers believed that they motivate students and foster learner autonomy in the classroom by encouraging students and helping them to learn the skills required to learn by themselves outside the classroom. They believed that assigning self-access

learning and project work encourages students to learn independently, and that this reflects a student-centred autonomy-supportive approach. Notably, the teachers also reported a belief that autonomy is both very important and beneficial to students, but they also point to the challenges the students present when they are trying to support learner autonomy; namely, passivity and lack of motivation. Therefore, they used some controlling practices to support students to be active and be able to learn independently.

On the basis of the way Thai teachers define autonomy, it is clear their beliefs about autonomy are conceptualised around an ‘independence’ versus ‘dependence’ dynamic. Their concept of autonomy is similar to the concept of ‘full autonomy’ of Dickinson (1987), as “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” (p. 11). Students achieve greater autonomy without the help of a teacher (Dickinson, 1994). However, this concept is different from other scholars in second language learning. As discussed in Chapter 2, Holec (1981) argues that taking charge of their own learning does not have to be independent from the teacher. One of the teacher’s new roles is to help and support students to develop their ability to take charge of all aspects of their learning, while Little (1990) defines autonomy as “*not* a synonym for self-instruction; in other words, autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher and it is *not* a matter of letting the learners get on with things as best they can” (p. 7). Benson (2011) also clarifies that students still need teachers’ guidance and support to help them to take control of their learning.

The Thai teachers’ conceptualisation of autonomy is also different from the concept of autonomy in self-determination theory (SDT). Ryan and Deci (2002) argue that autonomy does not mean independence or being isolated from others. The SDT conceptual contrast is on the one hand the feeling of volition and freedom (autonomy) versus the feeling of being controlled (control) (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Furthermore, according to SDT, depending on others is associated with the sense of being connected with others (relatedness) which is one of the basic psychological needs that supports student motivation (Ryan & Powelson, 1991). Thus, according to this conceptualisation, students can feel autonomous while still depending on teachers. In this study, teachers reported believing that effective motivation and learning occurs when students learn independently. When they encountered difficulty with students in the classroom with this approach, they responded with what SDT would refer to as controlling practices, where control is defined as the opposite of autonomy. It is not surprising, then, that teachers reported difficulty with implementing autonomy in their classrooms, and hesitated to fully endorse the idea of a wholly autonomy-supportive teaching approach.

The teachers readily endorsed practices that acknowledged the importance of relatedness. Indeed, the findings to emerge from the interview data show most of the teachers realised that their relationship with the students was important and that they showed concern for the students' feelings by being friendly, kind, and having a sense of humour in order to create a relaxed atmosphere. According to SDT, the concept of relatedness complements the concept of autonomy (Ryan & Powelson, 1991). Thus, with a fuller understanding of autonomy as defined by SDT, these teachers may be better able to more fully support both student autonomy and relatedness.

Teachers' beliefs played a crucial role in shaping their teaching practices (Pajares, 1992). The teachers' understanding of the concept of autonomy is associated with the type of teaching practices they implement in the classroom. The teachers in this study view the students as passive and not ready to be independent learners (see section 4.3.2 and 5.3.3). As a result, they believe they support autonomy and prepare the students to be independent learners by assigning tasks that require the students to learn outside the classroom (e.g., self-access learning, assignments, and project work). The teachers indicated their wish that the students were able to learn by themselves and become autonomous learners. For them, autonomy is treated as the goal or end, so their purpose is to *produce* an independent or self-sufficient learner. As such, their practices align with 'full autonomy' as an ultimate goal of education as developed by Dickinson, (1987). The methods to achieve the ultimate goal are the provision of self-access learning and out-of-class project work (Dickinson 1987, 1996).

However, in order to train students to be autonomous by assigning project work and self-access learning, the teachers in this study motivated the students to learn mostly through the use of what SDT regards as external controls such as rewards or test scores. Indeed, the provision of a score or grade was always linked to the out-of-class tasks assigned to the students. For example, Somkid stated during his interview:

As for student-centred approach, the teaching methods I employ include two programs, for example, the first program is self-access learning consisting of speaking, listening, vocabulary and grammar. The second program is online lesson. I persuade them to attend the class and get 10% of total scores from online task. (Somkid, Interview, p. 2)

The teachers who believed student autonomy is a situation in which the student is independent from teachers ironically tended to adopt controlling teaching practices such as using scores in order to encourage the students to learn by themselves and be independent. As discussed in Chapter 2, rewards have generally been found by SDT to undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci,

Koestner & Ryan, 2001). In practice, however, teachers reported finding them to be effective. Indeed, rewards are likely to be effective in motivating students to behave in particular ways in the situation in which they are used. They may even assist in promoting a sense of relatedness between the teacher and the students (as in the case of Yuwadee, see Chapter 6). So in practice, the effects of rewards may be mediated by other factors in the classroom.

Furthermore, it has been established that the autonomy-supportive teachers in this study believe the teacher-centred approach is a significant contributing factor to their teaching problems related to student motivation and participation. The teachers noted that the teacher-centred approach was the main reason for students becoming passive learners and that this passivity made it difficult for teachers to foster learner autonomy. Thus, given that university students have become accustomed to the teacher-centred approach since childhood, it is difficult for teachers to encourage students to be active and participatory learners in the classroom. Similarly, Balçıkanlı (2010) found the traditional teaching method implemented in the Turkish educational system is a major constraint to the development of student autonomy.

Another contributing factor to emerge from the interview data, however, is that although teachers valued the concept of student-centred teaching, they lacked knowledge of how it could be implemented in the classroom. Nonkukhetkhong et al. (2006) reached the same conclusion: “the (Thai) teachers had not been sufficiently prepared to implement the new student-centred policy either in theory or practice” (p. 6). Furthermore, the teachers believed that the autonomy-supportive style or student-centred teaching makes it challenging for them to organise and arrange their teaching lessons. As Somkid mentioned:

As for student-centred approach, I think it means that the students play more important role than the teacher and the teacher has to work harder. The teacher has to prepare the content and activities and persuade the students to participate in the activities. (Somkid, Interview, p. 3)

Vanida also stated:

The idea of [a student-centred approach] is very good but it is not effective because some teachers do not understand it clearly. You cannot just throw textbooks to the students to read. It is not that easy. (Vanida, Interview, p. 3)

Reeve (2009) offers a possible explanation for why these teachers found autonomy support so difficult. In his research on teacher autonomy support, control, and structure, he found that

teachers sometimes equate control with structure, whereas autonomy-supportive strategies are often incorrectly associated with a chaotic or laissez-faire situation. However, Reeve (2006) argues that an autonomy-supportive style is related to structure. Indeed, teachers still have to give structure to students while they use an autonomy-supportive style by presenting clear, understandable directions, offering a program of action to guide students' ongoing activity; and offering constructive feedback on how students can gain control over valued outcomes (Jang et al., 2010). In light of this finding, it is not surprising that, as noted above, the teachers who thought they were being autonomy supportive ended up resorting to controlling practices when their unstructured classrooms did not proceed the way they had planned. It is clear that teachers' knowledge and skills about the concept of autonomy-supportive, student-centred teaching is important to their teaching practices.

### ***Teachers' beliefs toward student motivation***

The findings of this study also reveal an inconsistency in teachers' beliefs about student motivation. The majority of teachers believe the main obstacle they face in trying to support learner autonomy and to motivate students comes from the students themselves (see section 4.3.2). On the one hand, the teachers believe it is difficult to apply autonomy-supportive practices and increase student motivation because the students are mostly passive and often unmotivated. On the other hand, many students in their feedback survey responses indicated their desire for the teacher to implement more interesting learning activities and not rely so heavily on the textbook. These responses may be showing that the students themselves want to be active learners and are motivated to engage in interesting activities with authentic and preferred materials.

The autonomy-supportive teachers in this study seemed to be of the view that the students were motivated to learn mainly for grades (external regulation). Yet most students stated that they would like to learn English by requesting the teachers to provide them with more interesting activities, to speak English in the classroom, to provide them with authentic materials and to create a fun and interesting atmosphere. This suggests the students would like to be intrinsically motivated because they would like the teachers to support their inner motivational resources and their knowledge. The teachers' beliefs about the students' motivations are therefore vastly different from the students' own views of their needs and motivation. One of the implications of this may be that if the teachers are more understanding of their students and view them as active and motivated to learn, they may be able to better foster student autonomy and their motivation to learn. A focus on more active and interesting

classroom learning activities that fulfil the students' need for autonomy and enhance their intrinsic motivation may be better than a focus on external rewards such as grades.

Fostering autonomy is regarded by teachers as problematic or challenging. To resolve the problem the teachers believe fostering student autonomy is best achieved by applying a teacher-centred approach and by adopting controlling practices (e.g., giving extrinsic rewards, providing controlling language). As noted above, the practices they used when they thought they were being autonomy supportive actually resembled practices that were controlling, especially with passive or unmotivated students. This sentiment is particularly reflected in the interview responses from Kanda, Somkid, and Yuwadee. Furthermore, the comments of the teachers also highlight that student motivation plays an important role in the teaching style chosen by the teacher. This finding is similar to the reasons given by Reeve (2009), about why teachers adopt a controlling style. He describes how teachers react to student passivity during learning activities, so episodically unmotivated or episodically unengaged students tend to 'pull' a controlling style out of teachers. Teachers adopt a controlling style during the lesson because they perceive that students have low motivation, passivity and poor engagement.

A further paradox is that the teachers who believed in the importance of autonomy support also believed that a controlling style is effective for student motivation. The findings revealed that Yuwadee, for example, believed using external rewards was an effective practice for learner autonomy and motivation. She put this belief into practice by giving out 'love points' to students in the class whenever she wanted to encourage the students to be more independent in their learning (e.g., read lesson material in advance by themselves). This demonstrates a move to foster autonomy in the SDT sense that the teacher may exercise control over the students while also encouraging them to be independent learners. Yuwadee also offered 'love points' to motivate the students to answer questions and participate in the classroom. This method appeared to be effective because the students were likely to be active and responsive in the observed classroom. Indeed, such motivators often appear to be effective in the immediate situation, because they elicit behavioural compliance (Ryan & Deci, 2000), but this compliance lacks the fuller cognitive and affective engagement required for effective learning and wellbeing (Jang et al., 2010). Saithip also strongly believed that providing rewards and scores was an effective method to motivate students to learn. Therefore, Saithip encouraged her students to learn in the classroom by providing stars on the whiteboard and emphasising the importance of scores and how to receive good grades.

These findings suggest that a controlling style is adopted in the classroom because the teachers believe that it is an effective method to motivate students to learn. As Reeve (2009)

explains, teachers' beliefs about student motivation are often rooted in the "maximal-operant principle" of motivation. They adopt a controlling style because they believe it is more effective than an autonomy-supportive style. In contrast to the examples in the above paragraph, Vanida did not believe that adopting a controlling style (e.g., offering scores or grades) was effective for student motivation. Vanida argued that an autonomy-supportive style (for her, allowing students to learn what they want) is effective for student motivation. In the classroom, Vanida encouraged her students to openly discuss and answer questions autonomously, and she did not appear to adopt controlling practices. As a result, most of her students appeared to enjoy their learning and her teaching practices. In these ways, teacher's beliefs about student motivation, along with their own beliefs about the nature of motivation, appeared to shape their teaching practices.

### **7.2.2 Teachers' goals and teaching practices**

The case study findings suggest teachers' goals are another factor that influences teaching practices. The main objective of Vanida's teaching is to motivate students to learn for knowledge. She assigns greater value to acquiring knowledge from learning than the acquisition of rewards and thus expresses this as her teaching goal. Indeed, Vanida motivates the students to learn for understanding rather than for gaining grades because she realises that motivating the students for extrinsic rewards does not promote learner autonomy and motivation. Furthermore, Vanida's beliefs influence her teaching practices in that she does not use controlling practices that involve emphasising grades or test scores, giving external rewards, or the use of controlling language. Instead, Vanida supports learner autonomy by focusing on their opinions and preferences and she encourages the students to learn from intrinsic motivation.

In contrast, Saithip and Yuwadee appear to motivate students to learn for external outcomes. This is because the purpose they assign to their teaching appears to be to help students to pass the course and attain good grades. Thus, Saithip and Yuwadee believe grades and scores are important to the students. The teachers are nonetheless effective in motivating the students to learn; it is evident, however, that they motivated the students to learn for grades instead of for knowledge. In addition, Saithip and Yuwadee rely on external rewards as a locus of control in the classroom and use controlling practices by using incentives and by emphasising the importance of scores and grades. This teaching style may encourage the students to study for external rewards which are driven by external regulation (extrinsic motivation).

It is thus clear that teachers' goals play an important role in shaping teaching practices. As noted previously, many of the teachers endorsed the idea of autonomy as a goal—that when



they teach effectively, their students would become autonomous learners, prepared for lifelong, independent learning. However, a more effective approach to motivation may be to adopt an understanding more aligned with SDT, where autonomy support and structure together provide a motivational environment as a means to more effective learning.

### **7.2.3 Teachers' prior learning experience and teaching practices**

Teachers' prior learning experiences are another factor which impacts on their teaching practices. The findings of the case studies revealed Saithip and Yuwadee reported using an autonomy-supportive style in the classroom because they have learned this practice from their prior learning experience. Saithip had learned to tell jokes and to have a sense of humour from her prior learning experience and that these practices ignited her enjoyment of learning English. She realised from her past learning experience that this practice is good for students, so she applied this practice in her classroom. She told jokes in her classroom because she thought her students would find them funny and would therefore enjoy English learning. Another example is Yuwadee, who provided cooperative learning activities in her classroom. Yuwadee explained that she learned this practice while studying for her Master's degree, and she realised that this practice is good for students.

The interview results from Kittipong and Nittaya also showed that the prior learning experience of a controlling style influenced them to adopt an autonomy-supportive style in their classrooms. Both of them have experienced a controlling style in the past and they realised that this style was not effective for students. Therefore, they preferred to adopt an autonomy-supportive style for students. Hence, it is clear that the prior learning experiences of teachers play an important role in shaping the nature of their teaching style. One implication of this may be that when teachers themselves experience an autonomy-supportive learning environment, these prior experiences benefit (i.e., develop) their teaching practices. Therefore, in any kind of professional learning about autonomy, it would be important for teachers to experience that professional learning as autonomy-supportive.

### **7.2.4 Summary: Teachers' attributes influencing teachers' teaching practices**

The discussion in this section examines how teachers' attributes impact their teaching practices. The summary model presented in Figure 13 encapsulates the connection between these two variables (i.e., teachers' attributes and teaching practices). This study found that not only do teachers' beliefs influence their teaching practices, but so too do their goals and prior learning experiences.

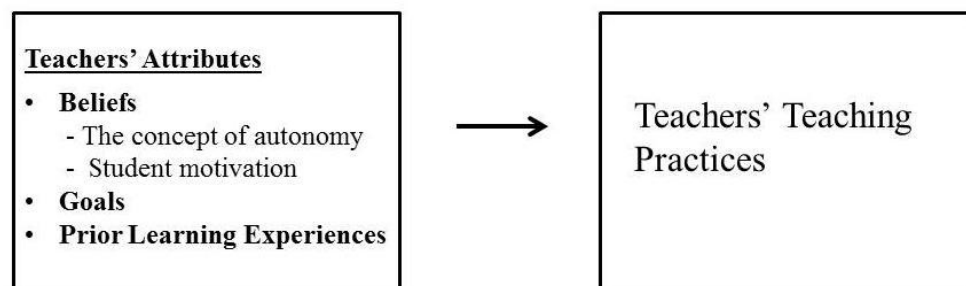


Figure 13 Teachers' attributes to teachers' teaching practices

### 7.3 Teachers' teaching practices and student motivation

In SDT, the fulfilment of basic psychological needs comes from social contextual conditions (Deci et al., 1991). When the basic needs are satisfied, behaviour is more likely to be internalised, representing either self-determined forms of extrinsic motivation or intrinsic motivation, rather than externally regulated motivation (Deci et al., 1991). The basic needs satisfied in the autonomy-supportive context will increase intrinsic motivation and facilitate the internalisation and integration of extrinsic motivation, while a controlling context decreases the satisfying of basic needs and undermines intrinsic motivation and self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2002). The teaching practices observed in Phase 3 of this study from four autonomy-supportive teachers combine some autonomy-supportive practices and some controlling practices. The students' responses to the open-ended questions indicated that they are motivated in learning when they are taught by practices that are autonomy-supportive.

Autonomy, the key psychological need that is required to be fulfilled for effective learning and wellbeing, is the feeling of volition, choice and freedom. They appear to feel satisfied in their need for autonomy because they mentioned that they were interested in learning when the teachers allowed them to talk, ask questions, participate in the classroom, and provided cooperative learning activities. Thus, the study found that in the Thai context, as with other contexts evidenced from previous research, autonomy support is clearly effective in facilitating student motivation.

Relatedness, the second of the three psychological needs, is the feeling of being connected to others. Students in Phase 3 of the study appeared to feel satisfied in their need for relatedness because they enjoyed learning with teachers who were friendly, joyful, kind, and had a sense of humour. Forman (2011) found that humorous language play also raises the Thai students' desire and effort to participate in the classrooms. This is evidence that a sense of relatedness may also be important for Thai students' motivation to learn. It may be assumed that the relatedness need

of students is satisfied when they have a good relationship with their teachers. This finding from the students' responses is consistent with teachers' beliefs. Most autonomy-supportive teachers also realise the teacher-student relationship is important in order to create a positive learning atmosphere for the students. Therefore, the teachers offer enjoyment and acknowledge students' feelings, and therefore, they try to be friendly and kind towards the students and even share jokes with them. Thus, the support of relatedness appeared to be done well by the teachers, and this relatively uncontroversial idea is also aligned with SDT.

Competence is the feeling of being effective in one's ability to do something. The students appear to feel satisfied in their need for competence because they felt confident and challenged when they were encouraged to think and answer questions. Furthermore, they enjoyed learning when they were allowed to translate the sentences by themselves.

In contrast, the students do not enjoy learning with controlling practices. They mentioned that they do not like the teacher to give external rewards. For example, the students in Yuwadee's classroom would clearly like to participate in the classroom freely without incentives. This also causes negative feelings in the students, such as feeling disappointed, feeling neglected, and feeling controlled. The reward systems simply do not increase the total amount of motivation and qualitatively undermine students' intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1991). Furthermore, they would like to learn for knowledge and understanding rather than for grades.

According to Littlewood (2000), non-Western students are inherently active, however, they may appear to be passive because of the classroom conditions. The findings of Phase 3 showed that the majority of the students are active and they would like to be intrinsically motivated. However, some autonomy-supportive teachers did not encourage them to be active and participate in the classroom. As a result, most students indicated that they need more autonomy-supportive practices in the classroom. They need the teachers to provide them with more fun and interesting activities, and provide them with authentic materials in the classrooms. These practices nurture the motivational resources of students and support their motivation (Reeve, 2006). Indeed, Reeve's (2013) research shows that students who are *agentically engaged*—that is, they actively and autonomously participate in class, ask questions, seek help from the teacher, and draw autonomy support from their teacher—create a motivationally stimulating classroom environment for themselves when their teacher also supports their autonomy. However, in Phase 3 of the study, students exhibited some attempts to be agentically engaged in the class, but their teachers persisted with controlling, rather than autonomy-supportive practices.

### 7.3.1 Summary: Teachers' teaching practices and student motivation

This section examined how teaching practices impact students' basic needs and motivation. The model presented demonstrates the relationship between teaching practices and student motivation, as shown in Figure 14.

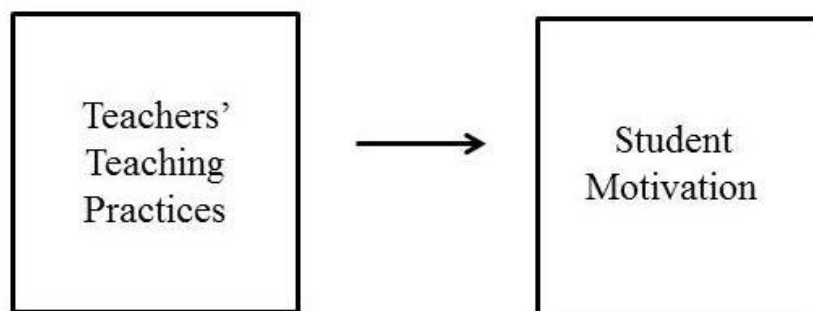


Figure 14 Teachers' teaching practices to student motivation

### 7.4 Social context: Thai EFL curriculum

This section explains how the social context of a curriculum played an important role for teachers in this study. It discusses how the social context of the curriculum influences teacher autonomy by making them feel pressured and controlled, and how this in turn influences teachers' teaching practices.

In SDT, the social context holds great potential to support or undermine human basic psychological needs (relatedness, competence, and autonomy) (Ryan & Deci, 2002). The concept of autonomy is the key need, and a principle that represents internalisation and motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002). In this study, the curriculum that was required to be taught by the teachers appeared to be an element of the social context that influenced the teacher's own feelings of autonomy. The majority of teachers agreed that learner autonomy is an important factor for students to acquire and that a student-centred teaching approach can benefit students. In the classroom, however, the teachers could not totally put their beliefs into practice because they were required to follow the prescriptive university curriculum.

As mentioned in section 1.2.2, Thai education policy now endorses the design and implementation of student-centred curricula that focus on students' aptitude, interests, and needs. In foreign language classrooms, the emphasis in the curriculum is on the development of communicative competence and skills. Indeed, teachers have been encouraged to apply the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach since the implementation of the Basic National Curriculum in 2001. The results of this study show a student-centred curriculum

according to education policy directives was not fully applied in the classrooms. The present curriculum remains traditional or ‘teacher-centred’ with an emphasis on examinations or tests at the end of the learning process. As such, the teacher’s role is primarily to ‘teach to the test’; that is, implement learning activities that focus on preparing the students for examinations rather than on the development of their communicative skills, interests and autonomy.

Indeed, all of the autonomy-supportive teachers appeared to be themselves controlled by the curriculum. A controlling curriculum such as this may decrease the sense of autonomy the teacher experiences as well as their level of intrinsic motivation. It may also lead teachers to then, in turn, adopt controlling practices. When this occurs, the teachers are then unable to teach the students according to the students’ sense of self and intrinsic motivation. The result of this study is similar to the study by Pelletier et al. (2002), that the more teachers are pressured by the curriculum, the less they perceive themselves to be self-determined toward teaching. Indeed, the phenomenon of teachers using controlling practices because they themselves work within a controlling social environment has been documented extensively in high schools, mostly in Western contexts (e.g., Collie, Shapka, Perry & Martin, 2015; Reeve, 2009), and the present study shows some evidence for it in Thai university classes. This finding indicates that a highly prescriptive or controlling curriculum can stifle teachers’ autonomy to implement teaching practices according to their beliefs about learning and education.

This process of teacher perceptions of control leading to them using controlling practices in their classroom is exemplified by Vanida, an autonomy-supportive teacher who appeared to understand the concept of autonomy in a way that aligned with SDT. Her personal teaching goal is to help the students to learn for knowledge rather than grades. However, she is required to ensure her teaching practices in the classroom align with the curriculum. Vanida stated during her interview:

Especially at my university, rights and freedom of the instructors are limited. Beside the strict regulations, the set teaching schedules must be followed effectively. Every section must be taught at the same time and in the same manner. The examination must be the same too. (Vanida, Interview, p. 2)

Hence, although she understands the concept of autonomy in SDT and the notion of an autonomy-supportive teaching style, her autonomy-supportive practices remain limited. Providing choices, for example, is the autonomy-supportive practice to support learner autonomy (Reeve & Halusic, 2009). However, Vanida only gives the students a choice about the topic for the project (to be completed outside the classroom) and its content. There is little

room within the curriculum she is required to teach to provide much further choice. The provision of this type of choice to students provided them with only limited opportunity to participate in learning autonomously. Within a less prescriptive or controlling curriculum, the students may be able to make choices, informed by their learning needs, about learning objectives, materials, topics, or the learning activities in the classroom. Instead, the prescriptive curriculum communicates a message that learning needs to not differ from one another, and that the social context has no regard for students' progress and appropriate pedagogy.

Although the teachers in the case studies believe autonomy needs to be encouraged in students, in practice they mainly focus on student assessment by following the curriculum. This study found that teachers appear pressured to follow the university curriculum. These teaching practices are suggestive of a highly prescriptive or controlling curriculum. The implications of this are evident in the study by Taylor et al. (2009) that found an emphasis on student assessment not only constrains teachers' (in this case, physical education teachers) beliefs, but also their teaching strategies. Student assessment appears to place on teachers the twofold burden of responsibility and accountability for student behaviours and outcomes. In conclusion, the traditional curriculum (test-oriented curriculum, teacher-centred approach) implemented in the Thai educational system creates a controlling teaching context in that teachers are inclined to position external rewards (grades, scores) as a main goal of the teaching and learning experience.

Thus, if learner autonomy is to be endorsed in Thai university classrooms, there are clear implications for the extent to which the curriculum, as part of a broader social context in which the teacher works, needs to support the autonomy of the teacher. The present study found that the controlling nature of the education curriculum was a powerful constraint around the capacity of Thai English teachers. It had the effect of making teachers feel controlled. They then used controlling practices in their teaching—not only in relation to what they taught, but also the way that they taught it. Although the students appeared interested and prepared to be engaged, the teachers continued to respond with controlling practices.

#### **7.4.1 Summary: Influence of the curriculum on teacher autonomy and teachers' teaching practices**

This section argues that the controlling nature of the education curriculum is the main constraint which reflects on teacher autonomy and teaching practices. The model presented in Figure 15 demonstrates that teacher autonomy and teaching practices are also influenced by the curriculum and that teaching practices are also influenced by teacher autonomy.

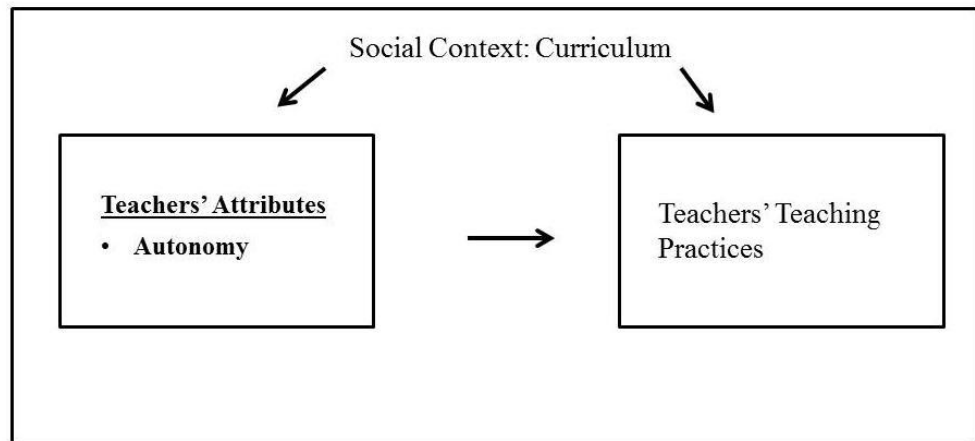


Figure 15 The influence of the curriculum on teacher autonomy and teachers' teaching practices

### 7.5 Integrated model

The findings in this study indicate that not only do teachers' beliefs about autonomy and student motivation influence their actual teaching practices, but they are also influenced by factors such as teachers' goals, prior learning experience, autonomy and social context. Teachers' teaching practices then impact the students' motivation.

The integrated model in Figure 16 combines the main elements from the three models discussed above, derived from evidence gathered in Phases 1, 2, and 3 of the present study. Teachers' beliefs, goals, prior learning experiences, and autonomy all influence their teaching practices. In addition, the curriculum is a powerful contextual factor that impacts teachers' autonomy and teaching practices. The teaching practices then influence student motivation. The students are motivated and enjoy learning with autonomy-supportive practices. However, the students feel unmotivated when the teachers use controlling practices. It is clear that the teaching style is important for student motivation.

The results indicate that the understandings that Thai teachers in this study have do not resemble the concept of autonomy in SDT and in other conceptualisations of autonomy-supportive teaching practices. They also operate in a system that is subject to the powerful influence of a restrictive curriculum, which makes the teachers feel controlled. The teachers' beliefs and the curriculum appear to be the main targets for potentially intervening to improve both teacher and student motivation. In order to foster student autonomy and motivation effectively and increasingly, the results suggest that an SDT-like understanding of the concept

of autonomy and associated autonomy-supportive practices may help to implement them and support student motivation.

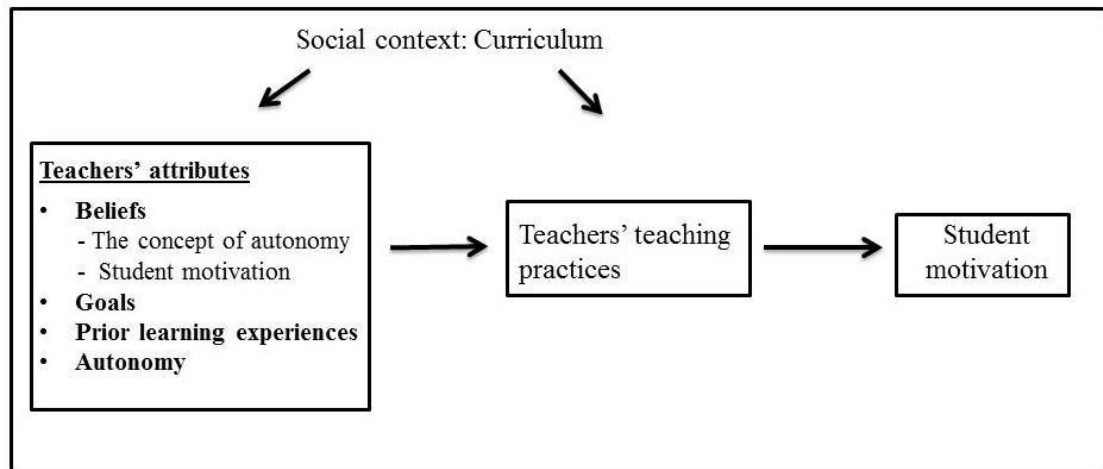


Figure 16 Pathway from teachers' attributes to students' motivation

## 7.6 Summary

This chapter discussed the relationship between teachers' beliefs, goals, and prior learning experience for their teaching practices. The teachers' attributes are important and influence their teaching practices. The second part discussed the connection between teachers' teaching practices and student motivation. The third part examined the social contexts which influence teacher autonomy and teaching practices. The curriculum was identified as a constraint which affects teachers' feelings of autonomy, and thus their teaching practices. The last part presented the integrated pathway from teachers' attributes to student motivation. Teachers' attributes—particularly their beliefs about motivation—and the controlling, restrictive curriculum appear to be aspects of English teaching in Thai universities that could be targeted by interventions aiming to improve teacher and student motivation and learning.



## **8. CONCLUSION**

### **8.1 Introduction**

This concluding chapter consists of five parts: a summary of the findings; the practice implications for in-service and pre-service English teachers and for the EFL curriculum; the limitations of this research; recommendations for future research; and a summary of the main conclusions to be drawn from this research.

### **8.2 Summary of findings**

This research aimed to investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and teaching practices designed to foster student motivation, using self-determination theory. A mixed methods research design was utilised, combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods. There were three phases in this study. The first phase aimed to identify the teacher participants for Phase 2 of the study and to explore their general beliefs about autonomy and their teaching practices. Data was collected using a questionnaire survey. Phase 2 of this study was an in-depth exploration of the teachers' beliefs about and understanding of autonomy, and teaching practices. Nine autonomy-supportive teachers from Phase 1 were interviewed. Phase 3 aimed to explore the extent to which autonomy supportive teachers' beliefs influence the actual teaching practices in the classrooms. Four were subsequently selected to have their teaching practices observed by the researcher.

The key finding was that the autonomy-supportive teachers believed autonomy should be characterised as the state of being independent from teachers and that they used both autonomy-supportive practices and controlling teaching practices to motivate students to learn. The controlling practices were primarily to emphasise the importance of scores and grades (rewards) to the students, to provide rewards, and to encourage the students to learn outside the classroom through the provision of assignments or group presentations. The teachers indicated their belief that learner autonomy is beneficial to the students in many ways, but they found it difficult to apply autonomy-supportive practices in the classroom because the students were too dependent on them. Furthermore, the findings found the current curriculum was the main constraint hindering the transition from teacher autonomy to the actual teaching practices. In conclusion, the findings of this study indicate an autonomy-supportive teaching style is important for

student motivation. Teachers' beliefs and understanding about the concept of autonomy are also essential for their teaching practices.

### **8.3 Implications for educational practice**

This section discusses the implications for educational practice according to the findings of this research. It consists of three parts: the implications for in-service English teachers in Thailand; the implications for pre-service English teachers in Thailand; and EFL curriculum transformation.

#### **8.3.1 In-service English teachers**

The findings of this study indicate teacher beliefs are a constraint to the development of learner autonomy in Thailand. Therefore, teacher beliefs may be a feasible target for intervening in order to improve the motivation and learning of English students in Thai universities. The concept of autonomy held by teachers was not aligned with the concept of autonomy that is known to have positive effects on motivation and learning in educational settings and beyond. If they had known the kinds of benefits associated with autonomy, particularly those drawing on extensive evidence in psychological literature, they may have been better informed to develop effective motivational teaching strategies. Teachers would be interested to know how to foster student autonomy effectively by better understanding the autonomy-supportive practices and controlling practices they need to implement in the classroom.

Therefore, the Ministry of Education in Thailand may consider providing teachers with the opportunity to participate in professional learning to clarify for themselves the concept of autonomy in self-determination theory, the relationship between basic human psychological needs and motivation (both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation), and how to effectively implement autonomy-supportive practices and controlling practices. The professional learning would need to include practical teacher training, including video examples of classrooms that are characterised as autonomy-supportive, as well as the provision of feedback and suggestions on how to improve their teaching. Professional learning helps teachers understand their role and how to be an effective autonomy-supporter in the classroom. In addition, Thailand's education institutes could hold workshops for teachers to provide them with a platform to discuss their beliefs and share their teaching experiences related to fostering learner autonomy. The institutes could model their workshops on the learner autonomy (LA) workshops conducted at the Language Centre of Sultan Qaboos University in Oman (see Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012).

They may also draw on successful intervention work conducted by Sung Hyeon Cheon and Johnmarshall Reeve (2015) with Korean school teachers. These teachers learned about the nature of autonomy and demonstrated it in their classrooms. The effects of the training workshop were still maintained when the teachers were observed much later. Indeed, one meta-analytical study found a sizeable effect over 19 studies of 0.63 (Su & Reeve, 2011). They may also adapt another intervention work conducted by Nitchaya Boonma (2013) in the Thai tertiary context. The study used the students' comments and feedback as a guideline for the teaching plan. This study suggests that the students' feedback is very important for the teachers to improve their teaching practices.

### **8.3.2 Pre-service English teacher education**

The findings of this research indicate teachers' beliefs are integral to their teaching practices. The understandings of pre-service English teacher's concept of autonomy inform their future practices in attempting to foster student autonomy. Therefore, their English teacher education programs need to provide pre-service English teachers with knowledge and examples of self-determination theory and the concept of autonomy included in the theory. Pre-service teachers need to understand the constructs associated with human motivation in general and, more specifically, their personal motivation for teaching. Indeed, a deep understanding of autonomy and motivation is essential for pre-service teachers.

Teachers need explicit knowledge of practices used to support student autonomy. This will necessarily involve improving their understanding of student-centred teaching methods and the characteristics of autonomy-supportive teaching techniques and controlling teaching techniques. Teachers also need to know about the effects of autonomy-supportive teaching on student motivation, observed in research in classrooms. An ideal way to structure this would be through professional learning on how to promote student autonomy, and encourage them to practise their autonomy-supportive teaching methods on peers. Peers in turn would then be encouraged to provide feedback and suggestions which the pre-service teacher can incorporate into a written self-evaluation of their teaching. Professional learning of this nature is not only useful to pre-service teachers to guide their future teaching practice, it increases the likelihood that the autonomy of Thai students will be supported in the classroom and they will become motivated to be autonomous learners.

The teacher's own learning experiences as students are likely to influence their teaching practices. There is no point, for example, learning about autonomy in a controlling context. This would thwart the process, and exacerbate the existing concern that teachers who feel controlled

do not tend to support autonomy in their classrooms. Teacher educators therefore need to provide an autonomy-supportive classroom environment to pre-service teachers in order for them to experience this learning approach. Some evidence-based autonomy-supportive practices for the pre-service teachers include the provision of choices of topics, learning materials, and learning activities; opportunities for the pre-service teachers to discuss issues and share ideas; and acknowledging the teacher's feelings about the process, including any potential negative feelings (Reeve & Halusic, 2009). These practices by teacher educators should create autonomy-supportive learning experiences for pre-service teachers.

### **8.3.3 EFL curriculum transformation**

Teachers would benefit from changes to the university curriculum to give more autonomy to teachers to provide opportunities for students to learn. The curriculum should at least be flexible enough for teachers to be able to facilitate learner autonomy and motivation. The teachers should receive more freedom and autonomy to choose the learning materials and activities according to students' preferences and interests, or to give their students opportunities to choose. The curriculum should provide more classroom activities for students, so their teacher educators can model autonomy-supportive practices.

The findings of this research indicate the current EFL curriculum in Thai universities is a major constraint on the implementation of teacher autonomy into practice. This is primarily because the current curriculum mainly emphasises external events such as rewards and assessments and is highly prescriptive with regard to teaching practices. As a result, there is little support for teacher autonomy and this is likely to undermine teachers' intrinsic motivation. To achieve the transformation to a more autonomy-supportive curriculum, the curriculum planners should first allow teachers and students to participate in developing the content of the curriculum (Nunan, 1988). Second, the curriculum content in general and the learning activities more specifically should emerge from the students' interests, preferences, and needs (Brophy, 2004). Third, the curriculum should be flexible and provide opportunities for students to make choices and participate in the decision-making process (Brophy, 2004). The learning materials should be authentic, such as newspapers, video clips, and maps etc. (Nunan, 1988) and should support communicative language teaching principles. Lastly, curriculum planners should reduce the curriculum's reliance on evaluations and assessments but increase the use of student self-assessments (Nunan, 1988; Ryan & La Guardia, 1999). An autonomy-supportive process of curriculum change is important because, as noted above regarding teacher training, if the process itself is not autonomy-supportive, it may not be taken on board by teacher educators and

teachers. Table 7 below presents the suggestions from Brophy (2004) on the principles of curriculum and teaching that enhance students' motivation to learn:

Table 7 Teaching for understanding: 10 key features  
(Brophy, 2004, p. 41)

<b>Teaching for Understanding: 10 Key Features</b>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The curriculum is designed to equip students with knowledge, skills, values, and dispositions that they will find useful both inside and outside of school</li> <li>2. Instructional goals emphasize developing student expertise within an application context and with emphasis on conceptual understanding of knowledge and self-regulated application of skills</li> <li>3. The curriculum balances breadth with depth by addressing limited content but developing this content sufficiently to foster conceptual understanding</li> <li>4. The content is organized around a limited set of powerful ideas (basic understanding and principles)</li> <li>5. The teacher's role is not just to present information but also to scaffold and respond to students' learning efforts</li> <li>6. The students' role is not just to absorb or copy input but also actively make sense and construct meaning</li> <li>7. Students' prior knowledge about the topic is elicited and used as a starting place for instruction, which builds on accurate prior knowledge and stimulates conceptual change if necessary</li> <li>8. Activities and assignments feature tasks that call for critical thinking or problem solving, not just memory or reproduction</li> <li>9. Higher order thinking skills are not taught as a separate skills curriculum. Instead, they are developed in the process of teaching subject-matter knowledge within application contexts that call for students to relate what they are learning to their lives outside of school by thinking critically or creatively about it or by using it to solve problems or make decisions</li> <li>10. The teacher creates a social environment in the classroom that could be described as a learning community featuring discourse or dialogue designed to promote understanding</li> </ol>

The features of teaching for understanding as outlined by Brophy (2004) could be implemented and adapted for the Thai context. For example, number 1: the curriculum in the Thai context should focus on how to equip Thai students with knowledge, skills, values, and

dispositions rather than on examinations and assessments. Number 5: Thai teachers should scaffold and develop students' conceptual and critical understandings rather than only give lectures and take the main role in the class. As a result, numbers 6, 7 and 8, Thai students would be actively involved in the class, understand concepts and gain knowledge instead of their learning goals being usually based on rote reproduction of material.

In conclusion, a curriculum with greater emphasis on students' interests and reduced reliance on examinations and assessments may be more effective. The curriculum should focus on learning activities that encourage students to think critically as well as to actively participate in the classroom. These changes will allow teachers to be flexible in their teaching and support teacher autonomy and motivation. The role of the teacher will then transform, to become an autonomy-supportive teacher who helps students to be interested, acquire knowledge, make choices about what they want to learn, and exercise autonomy in the learning process.

#### **8.4 Limitations**

It is important to acknowledge two key limitations in this study. First, the research investigation into the relationship between teachers' beliefs about autonomy and their teaching practices was conducted on a relatively small study sample. One hundred Thai English teachers were recruited from numerous universities in Thailand. This research therefore cannot claim that its findings are generalizable to Thai English teachers across all universities in Thailand. In addition, data was collected from the participants via an online questionnaire survey. This study recognises it may be difficult for teachers with low-level computer skills to access and complete the survey, and the availability of Information Technology staff to facilitate the process may be limited for teachers in some universities in Thailand. Furthermore, the head of the English department in each university had to consent to the teachers participating in this study and to distribute the questionnaire to them via email. The teachers could therefore not answer the survey unless they checked their emails and had time to respond to the survey. Thus, a paper questionnaire survey may have been an easier survey method for the teacher participants to complete for future research, and for substantially reliable understanding of their beliefs. However, the limitation does not apply to the function of the survey, in the mixed methods study, of identifying potentially autonomy-supportive teachers for the subsequent phases of the study.

Second, there is a limitation related to the methods used to collect data in Phase 3 of this study. The classroom observation was conducted for only three hours of each teacher's class. A short recording time for each lesson did enable the researcher to collect data on each teacher's

current teaching practices and what they actually did in the classrooms. As such, enough data was collected to discuss the teaching practices and draw conclusions. However, short recorded data cannot explain the overall teaching practices implemented by each teacher. As a result, this study cannot generalize the actual teaching practices for each teacher. The recommendation for future research would suggest conducting the classroom observations for a longer period (e.g., for one semester) in order to capture the teachers' ongoing teaching practices.

### **8.5 Future research**

This research presents the beliefs and teaching practices in fostering student autonomy and motivation of teachers in higher education in Thailand. The study demonstrates the relationship between teaching practices and the students' motivation. However, the results of this research also showed that teacher motivation is one of the main factors which influence teaching practices. Future research is needed to explore teachers' motivations more deeply by conducting quantitative and qualitative research, in order to describe the connection between teachers' motivation and teaching practices more clearly. Results of future research might give a clear explanation and solution for the development of student autonomy and motivation.

The results of this research present the current curriculum as a barrier or constraint in the implementation of teachers' beliefs into teaching practices. Future research might need to explore the English language curriculum in Thailand. The results of this study suggest the need to investigate the problems and the solutions for the current English language curriculum in the different educational levels in Thailand. Future research might explore the current curriculum from many sources, such as students, institute administrators, policy makers, and so on. Results of this future research might provide solutions to improve the curriculum and increase awareness of institute administrators and curriculum planners. These results would solve the problems of Thai teachers and students and support teachers in fostering autonomy and motivation for students.

This research presents the English teachers' beliefs about autonomy, teaching practices and the students' motivation from English language university classrooms by using self-determination theory. Future research might explore other fields or subject areas and observe teachers' beliefs, teaching practices and students' motivation there. This would encourage the development of autonomy and motivation for teachers and students in Thailand.

This research mainly focuses on the English teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. Future research might examine more closely the potential differences between English major

students and non-English major students, because these two groups may have qualitatively different motivations for studying which affect their class and their teacher's behaviour.

## **8.6 Summary**

The current research emphasized the need for the development of autonomy and motivation in Thailand. The institute administrators and policy planners need to provide a clear understanding about autonomy and student-centred approaches to Thai teachers. The perceptions about the role of teachers in Thai culture need to change and the institute administrators and policy planners need to understand and develop a new role for teachers as autonomy supporters. The current curriculum needs to be changed to be an autonomy-supportive curriculum which focuses on students' needs and interests. The teachers need to be trained to apply autonomy-supportive practices in the classroom. Training and workshops need to be provided for Thai teachers. All of these processes need to themselves be autonomy-supportive in order to be more effective.

The study examined the relationship between teachers' beliefs about autonomy and teaching practices and the relationship between teaching practices and students' motivation by using self-determination theory in Thailand. The results identified some aspects of Thai English teachers' beliefs and strategies that can potentially be developed in order to improve the motivation of their students. This research sheds light on the important issue of how motivation and learning of English might be advanced in Thai universities.



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### Thai EFL University Lecturers' Questionnaire

This questionnaire is part of the study being conducted by Ms. Siriwimon Na Chiangmai to meet the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy in Education under the supervision of Professor Chris Davison, Tel. No: +61 (2) 9385 1987, E-mail address: c.davison@unsw.edu.au and Dr. Paul Evans, Tel. No: +61 (2) 9385 6950, E-mail address: paul.evans@unsw.edu.au. Should you have any further questions, please do not hesitate to contact: Ms. Siriwimon Na Chiangmai, Tel. No. +61 4 01901575, E-mail address: s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au.

The questionnaire is composed of three parts: 1) personal information, 2) list of the problems in university classes and 3) perception of autonomy. The questionnaire is anonymous and it will not be possible to identify anyone from his/her answers. The questionnaire is expected to take no more than 20 minutes to complete.

**I consent to participate in this questionnaire.** ☐ Yes ☐ No

Please complete the following questions and tick the relevant boxes.

#### Section 1: Demographic information

1. Gender ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Nationality ☐ Thai ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

3. Age

- |                                  |                                |                                |                                |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25   | <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 | <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 | <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 41-45   | <input type="checkbox"/> 46-50 | <input type="checkbox"/> 51-55 | <input type="checkbox"/> 56-60 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> over 60 |                                |                                |                                |

4. What is your highest level of education?

- ☐ Bachelor's Degree Major \_\_\_\_\_ University \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Master's Degree Major \_\_\_\_\_ University \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Doctoral Degree Major \_\_\_\_\_ University \_\_\_\_\_
- ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

5. Years of English teaching experience \_\_\_\_\_ years

6. Teaching at University level (can tick more than one):

- ☐ Bachelor ☐ Master ☐ Ph.D.

7. Teaching at a University which is located in \_\_\_\_\_ part of Thailand.

- ☐ Northern                      ☐ Northeastern                      ☐ Central  
☐ Western                      ☐ Eastern                      ☐ Southern

8. EFL proficiency levels of your students you regularly teach (can tick more than one)

- ☐ elementary   ☐ low intermediate   ☐ intermediate   ☐ high   ☐ advanced

9. Number of students in one class you regularly teach (can tick more than one)

- ☐ less than 20   ☐ 21-30   ☐ 31-40   ☐ more than 40

## Section 2: The problems in university classes

Below are 8 different situations faced by university teachers. Each situation has 4 possible solutions. Please indicate how effective you think each of the solutions is. You can rate each solution from "very ineffective" to "very effective" or anywhere in between.

There are no right or wrong answers—we are simply interested in what you think is effective based on your personal teaching style.

Please circle **EACH** of the items using the following scale.

For example:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

A. Malee is a student who has been working at a moderately good level. During the past two weeks she has appeared bored and has not been participating actively in class. The work she does is accurate but she has not been completing assignments. The most effective thing for Malee's teacher to do is:

1. Tell her she must finish her assignments because she needs to learn this material to do well in her class.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

2. Find out why she is bored, and help her to become more interested so she can participate actively.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

3. Tell her to submit her assignment; otherwise she may fail this course.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

4. Show her that she is falling behind, and encourage her to catch up to the others in the class.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

- B. Manit did not do very well on one of his first assignments in Sukjai's English class. However, his performance in class is improving, and Sukjai thinks he could pass the class. To help him, she can:

5. Tell him that the next assignment is difficult, and he needs to work hard, otherwise he will fail.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

6. Discuss some study strategies with him so that he can improve his study skills.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

7. Tell him that she can see that his English is improving.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective



8. Continue to emphasize that he has to work hard to get better scores.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

- C. Wittaya provides an activity for his students to practice their English speaking skills. However, most students seem uninterested and bored with his activity. The best thing for him to do is:

9. Emphasize how important it is that everyone does this activity.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

10. Tell them they must complete the activity as otherwise they will not get very good grades.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

11. Explain to the students why the activity is useful for developing their speaking skills.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

12. Give the students some choices in other interesting activities to practice their speaking.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

- D. One of your students, Preeda, is on the university soccer team which has been winning most of its games. There is a soccer game tomorrow, but you are concerned because there is a test in your class the day after. You decide that the best thing to do is:

13. Tell him he probably should cancel tomorrow's game so he can study.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

14. Offer an alternative test that he can take a few days later.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

15. Remind him of how important the test is, and discuss how he might deal with the situation.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

16. Make him miss tomorrow's game to study; soccer has been interfering too much with his study.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

- E. One of the English writing groups in Miss Aree's class has been having trouble all semester. How could Miss Aree best help the members of this group?

17. Emphasize the importance of being able to write well.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

18. Remind them that they may fail the assignments if they do not improve.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

19. Explain to them that the other groups are doing better.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

20. Provide the group with some strategies to help them write better, and allow them to choose the strategies that work for them.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

- F. One of your students, Suthida, is very talkative in class. She always talks with her friends and uses her mobile phone while you are teaching. You are concerned that she is disrupting the class. You decide to:

21. Tell her to leave the class.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

22. Warn her that you will take her phone away if she continues disrupting the class.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

23. Ask her to put the phone away because it seems to be disrupting the class and other students are unable to learn

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

24. Talk to her after class about why she is always distracted, and help her to be more interested in the class.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

- G. When teaching your students in class, you ask them a question. You expect they would answer immediately. However, all students are silent and no one answers your question. The best thing for you to do is:

25. Provide them with clues or hints.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

26. Encourage them to answer until they answer the right one.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

27. Explain the answer, then continue with the lecture.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

28. Repeat the question and emphasize how important it is.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

- H. One of your students named Somsak always skips the class. He has low attendance mark. If he misses class again, he will not be allowed to take the final test. A useful approach might be to:

29. Talk to him about why he skips class, and try to provide more choices and activities so he becomes interested in class.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

30. Remind him how important it is to attend class, and point out that most of his friends do not skip class as much as he does.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very ineffective			moderately effective			very effective

31. Tell that it is wrong to skip class and he must attend every class from now on.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

32. Stress how important the attendance mark is and explain that he cannot skip class again.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very			moderately			very
ineffective			effective			effective

### Section 3: Perception of autonomy

Please response the following questions.

1. What do you think the role of a teacher is in the university classroom?

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2. How do you motivate your students to learn English?

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3. What are some challenges or problems you face in motivating students to learn English?

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4. What do you understand 'autonomy' to mean?

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5. Do you consider 'autonomy' important for students? Why? Why not?

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6. What do you do to support your students' autonomy?

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7. What are some challenges or problems you face in supporting student autonomy in Thai university classes?

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If you are interested in participating in this research further as a follow-up case study, please provide your contact phone number: \_\_\_\_\_ mobile phone:

\_\_\_\_\_ and e-mail address: \_\_\_\_\_

**Note:** If you provide your e-mail address, your response will not be anonymous. However, all of your information will remain confidential. Only the researcher and her supervisors can access your identity. When your quotes are used, your identity will not be revealed.

**Thank you for your assistance in completing this questionnaire.**

## Appendix B : Interview protocol

1. อาจารย์คิดอย่างไรเกี่ยวกับบทบาทของครูในห้องเรียนในมหาวิทยาลัยคะ
2. อาจารย์กระตุ้นหรือสร้างแรงจูงใจแก่นักเรียนในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษอย่างไรคะ
3. อาจารย์พบอุปสรรคหรือปัญหาในการกระตุ้นหรือสร้างแรงจูงใจแก่นักเรียนในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษอะไรบ้างคะ
4. ในความเข้าใจของอาจารย์ อาจารย์คิดว่า autonomy คืออะไรคะ
5. อาจารย์ทำอย่างไรที่จะสนับสนุนเสริมสร้าง autonomy ให้แก่นักเรียนคะ
6. อาจารย์พบอุปสรรคหรือปัญหาอะไรในการเสริมสร้าง autonomy ให้แก่นักเรียนในห้องเรียนในมหาวิทยาลัยไทยคะ
7. อาจารย์มีความคิดเห็นอย่างไรกับการเรียนการสอนแบบ student-centred คะ
8. รบกวนอาจารย์อธิบายวิธีการสอนที่อาจารย์ใช้ในการเรียนการสอนแบบ student-centred หน่อยได้ไหมคะ
9. อะไรคือปัญหาหลักหรืออุปสรรคสำคัญในการสอนเวลาที่ใช้การเรียนการสอนแบบ learner centred คะ
10. อาจารย์มีวิธีการชี้แนะนักเรียนเพื่อให้เขาปรับปรุงหรือแก้ไขในการเรียนของเขาอย่างไรคะ
11. อาจารย์เพิ่มความสนใจของนักเรียนในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษอย่างไรคะ
12. อาจารย์ช่วยให้นักเรียนเรียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบอิสระอย่างไรคะ
13. อาจารย์ทำอย่างไรที่จะกระตุ้นให้นักเรียนมีทัศนคติที่ดีในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษอย่างไรคะ
14. อาจารย์กระตุ้นให้นักเรียนเรียนภาษาอังกฤษอย่างไรคะ
15. อาจารย์ทำอย่างไรให้นักเรียนเห็นความสำคัญถึงการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษคะ
16. อาจารย์กระตุ้นให้นักเรียนมีส่วนร่วมในการเรียนอย่างไรคะ
17. รบกวนอาจารย์อธิบายถึงการสอนที่ผ่านมาที่อาจารย์คิดว่ามันดีมากสักหนึ่งอย่างได้ไหมคะ
18. อาจารย์ได้เลือกเป้าหมายใช้วิธีการสอนอะไรหรือกิจกรรมอะไร ทำไมอาจารย์ถึงเลือกวิธีนี้และทำอย่างไรคะ
19. อาจารย์คิดว่ากิจกรรมแบบไหนที่อาจารย์คิดว่านักเรียนชอบและสนุกในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษคะ
20. อะไรคือเป้าหมายหลักในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษของอาจารย์คะ
21. อะไรคือสิ่งที่อาจารย์คาดหวังในนักเรียนคะ
22. อาจารย์มีวิธีการสอนนักเรียนที่ไม่กระตือรือร้นหรือเฉื่อยๆในห้องเรียนอย่างไรคะ
23. อาจารย์มีวิธีการสอนนักเรียนที่กระตือรือร้นและมีส่วนร่วมมากในห้องเรียนอย่างไรคะ
24. อาจารย์มีวิธีการสอนนักเรียนที่กระตือรือร้นแบบปานกลางในห้องเรียนอย่างไรคะ

## Appendix C : Sample excerpts of Vanida's interview data (Thai)

**นักวิจัย:** ในข้อที่หนึ่ง ที่อาจารย์บอกว่า หน้าที่ของอาจารย์ในมหาวิทยาลัยควรจะเป็น facilitator คำว่า facilitator ของอาจารย์หมายความว่าอย่างไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** เออ มันค่อนข้างตรงตัวเลยนะ ก็คือการเป็นคนที่เหมือนทำให้การเรียนรู้มันง่ายขึ้น เหมือนเราไกด์เขาว่า เขาจะมี ควรจะไปทำอะไรบ้างที่ทำให้เขาสามารถเก่งภาษาอังกฤษขึ้น คือไม่ใช่ว่าสอนในห้องเหมือนกับเอาบทเรียนมาตรงนี้ สอนจบนี้แล้วก็จบ หรือเราอาจจะบอกเขาต่อว่าอาจเรียนนี้หรือเขาฟังแล้วไม่รู้ สมมตินะ ถ้าเป็นฝึกฟังเขาฟังแล้วเขาดูคำถามไม่ได้ เขาก็จับไม่ได้ เราก็บอกเขาว่าถ้ามันลองไปฝึกดูนะ ลองดูหนังฝรั่ง ดูไหม ดูละ ครั้งแรกเปิด subtitle ไทยแล้วอ่านตามไปด้วยแล้วเขาคิดไปด้วยว่าเขาพูดคำว่าอะไรถึงภาษาไทย ทำไม่ถึงเป็นอย่างนี้ อะไอย่างเนี่ย ก็จะบอกเขาว่า เทคนิคที่เขาจะไปเรียนรู้ข้างนอกห้อง เพื่อที่จะเอามาใช้ในห้องมันเป็นยังไง

**นักวิจัย:** ข้อที่สอง อาจารย์บอกถึงในการสร้างใจให้เด็ก อาจารย์ช่วยยกตัวอย่างหรืออธิบายเพิ่มเติมในวิธีการอย่างไรบ้างคะ

**อาจารย์:** ขอร้องก่อนนะ จำไม่ค่อยได้ อ่า เวลา motivate เด็กเนี่ยใช้ไหมคะ จริงๆต้องบอกก่อนว่า ครูเคยทำวิทยานิพนธ์เนอะ เป็นเกี่ยวกับเรียนของการเรียนภาษาที่สองซึ่งมันใช้หลักแนวการเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษาที่หนึ่ง ก็คือเหมือนกับว่า พอเด็กเรียนภาษาตอนแรกเนี่ย เด็กจะยังไม่พูด เด็กฟังก่อน จนกระทั่งเด็กจะรู้สึกว่าเขาพร้อม แล้วก็พูดอะไรที่มันแบบ broken ภาษาที่มันเป็น broken language มากเลย หมา แม่ หมา แต่จริงๆ มันไม่ใช่ แม่หมา คือแม่กิน ไม่ได้เรากิน แต่ว่าเด็กรู้ว่าเนี่ย ออกมาแล้วมันสื่อสารได้ และเด็กจะค่อยๆ พัฒนาว่า โอเค ฟังแล้วมันไม่ใช่ เขาก็เปลี่ยนวิธีการพูด การเรียนภาษาที่สองก็เหมือนกันก็อย่างเนี่ย ครูก็จะบอกเด็กทุกครั้งว่า ขอให้พูดออกมาก่อน พูดผิดพูดถูก ไม่ต้องสนใจ คือถ้าพูดออกมาแล้วรู้เรื่อง คือถือว่าประสบความสำเร็จในระดับหนึ่งแล้ว เพราะฉะนั้นเนี่ย เวลาที่เด็กพูดผิดเราก็จะไม่บอกเด็กว่า เฮ้ย ตรงนี้ผิดนะ มันต้องเป็นอย่างนี้ อย่างนี้ แต่บางทีเราอาจจะทวน คือเราอาจจะผิด แบบว่าผิดความหมาย มันเปลี่ยน แล้วเราเดาได้ เราก็จะทวนโดยการพูดสิ่งที่ถูกต้อง แล้วให้เขาเรียนรู้เองว่า เขาพูดผิด เราจะไม่ได้ไปทำให้เขารู้สึกอาย เฮ้ย เขา เพราะจริงๆแล้ว ส่วนใหญ่คนที่ ตามที่ทำวิทยานิพนธ์มานะ และก็ศึกษามา คือคนที่พูดภาษาอังกฤษไม่ได้เพราะว่า เขากลับ ผู้ใหญ่จะพูดไม่ได้มากกว่ากับเด็ก เพราะเด็กไม่มีความกลัวที่จะพูดผิด ผู้ใหญ่มีความกลัว ดังนั้นเนี่ย ถ้าเรากำจัดความรู้สึกกลัวของเขาออกไปได้ เขาก็จะยอมพูด และพอเขาพูดปุ๊บ เขาก็เริ่มเรียนรู้ แล้วก็ motivate เด็กเนี่ย บอกว่าขอให้พูดมาเถอะ แกรมมาผิดถูกไม่ได้สนใจ once พูดออกมาแล้ว มันจะได้เรียนรู้ แล้วเดี๋ยวมันก็จะดีขึ้นเอง แล้วก็บอกให้เด็กเรียนรู้ด้วยว่า ภาษาอังกฤษมันสำคัญสำคัญยังไง ก็อาจจะยกตัวอย่าง เช่น ครูรู้จักคนที่เรียนศิลปะ แล้วเขาไม่เอาภาษาอังกฤษเลยอะไอย่างเนี่ย แต่พอถึงเวลาปั๊บเนี่ย วันหนึ่งเขาคิดว่า ภาษาอังกฤษไม่สำคัญ เขาไม่สนใจภาษาอังกฤษ แต่เขาไม่รู้หรือว่าเขาจบไปแล้ว เขาต้องไปทำร้านสักซึ่งอยู่ตรงท่าแพ คือเขาต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษ อ่าวละ ตายละ เราต้องมาฝึกภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ คือเราไม่รู้ขนาดข้างหน้าต้องใช้ภาษาอังกฤษหรือเปล่า และมันเป็นสิ่งที่ทำให้เรามีคุณสมบัติเหนือกว่าคนอื่น ดังนั้นถ้าเรารู้



มันก็จะดีกว่าคนอื่น ทำให้เขาเห็นความสำคัญของภาษาอังกฤษ แล้วเขาก็จะไม่กลัวที่จะพูด เขาก็จะกล้าพูดกล้าใช้ ก็  
จะ motivate ประมานนี้ ก็พยายามทำให้บรรยากาศในการเรียน มันผ่อนคลาย ไม่เป็นการเรียนมากเกินไป จะมีการ  
พูดเล่นกับเด็กบ้าง หรือไรบ้าง เล่นมุข ทำให้เขารู้สึกตัวเอง รู้สึกกล้ามากขึ้น แต่ถ้าเกิดว่า มันก็มีเด็กประเภทที่ยังไงก็  
ไม่เอา วิธีการที่ทำให้เขาพูดในห้องก็คือ ก็จะจับเป็นกลุ่ม สักห้าคน แล้วก็ถามคำถามแล้วก็ให้ตอบทีละกลุ่ม โดยที่  
กลุ่มนี้จะอยู่ตลอดไป แล้วคือกลุ่มนี้ ถ้าวันนี้คนนี้พูด ต่อไปคนนี้ไม่ต้องพูด ก็จะเวียนไปเรื่อยๆ ให้ทุกคนในกลุ่มต้อง  
พูด ต้องตอบคำถาม มันก็จะได้ทุกคนพูด ถึงแม้ว่ามันมีคนถึง สามสิบถึงสี่สิบ ทุกคนก็จะได้พูดทั่วถึงกันอยู่ ประมาน  
แบบนี้

**นักวิจัย:** ในข้อที่สาม มีปัญหาในการ motivate เด็ก เราจะแก้ปัญหาอย่างไรกับวิธีนี้คะ

**อาจารย์:** ปกติแล้วเนี่ย เวลาที่เขาบอกว่า มันยาก เราจะไม่พูดนะ ว่ามัน ไม่ยากหรอก เพราะพูดจิปิบ เขาจะแอนด์ ก็  
อาจารย์เป็นอาจารย์ อาจารย์ก็บอกว่ามัน ไม่ยาก เราก็จะบอกเขาว่า จริงๆ มันก็ยากแต่ถ้าให้คุยกับเด็กเรียนศิลปะเสีย  
ถ้าให้ครูไปวาดรูป ครูก็ว่ามันยากเหมือนกัน แต่เธอก็วาดได้ถูกไหมละ แต่ถ้าครูหัดนานๆ ครูว่า ครูวาดได้ เธอก็  
เหมือนกัน ถ้าเธอฝึกไปเรื่อยๆ เธอก็จะทำได้เหมือนกัน แล้วก็จะพยายามโยง พยายามนึกว่า เอ๊ย จะทำอย่างไรให้การ  
สอนโยงเหมือนกับภาษาไทยให้ได้ เราจะบอกวิธีการหลักยังงัย อย่างจะเขียนประโยค มันก็ต้องอธิบายที่ใครทำอะไร  
และตามด้วยกริยา หรือถ้าเป็นแบบฝึกหัด เราต้องนึกให้ออกว่าจะทำอย่างไร

**นักวิจัย:** อาจารย์ช่วยขยายความ คำว่า autonomy ในความหมายของอาจารย์อย่างไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** ถ้าตามความเข้าใจของครู ก็คือเป็นเหมือน ความรู้สึกที่เขาอยากจะทำอะไรแล้วได้เรียน เขาสามารถเลือก  
ในสิ่งที่เขาอยากจะทำได้ ถ้ามันเอามาใช้กับตอนสอนภาษาอังกฤษ ก็คือ น่าจะเป็นประมาณว่า content ที่เขาจะ  
เลือกเรียน อย่างเช่น สมมติว่า เราจะสั่ง project เขาไปทำหนึ่งโปรเจกต์เนี่ย เขาก็จะมีสิทธิ์เลือก topic ที่เขาสนใจได้  
ไม่ได้ไปบังคับว่าต้องทำเรื่องสังคมนะ ทำเรื่องวิทยาศาสตร์ เขามาพิวไหนก็ให้เขาทำ หรือว่าด้วยวิธีการเรียน อย่างที่  
เรามี esol มันเป็นบทเรียนทางคอมพิวเตอร์ เขาสามารถเลือกเรียนได้ ฟัง พูด อ่าน แต่ว่ามันจะไม่สามารถเอามาใช้ในการ  
การสอนได้ร้อยเปอร์เซ็นต์ เพราะมันมีกรอบของมันอยู่ มันมาใช้ได้แค่บางส่วนเท่านั้น

**นักวิจัย:** แล้วในการสร้าง autonomy ให้เด็ก อาจารย์ได้ใช้วิธีการแบบไหนบ้างคะ

**อาจารย์:** ก็ใช้อย่างที่บอกไปก็พยายามกระตุ้นเขา อย่างเช่นบางทีเขาเลือกหัวข้อเมื่อไหร่ แล้วเขาบอกว่ามันยาก ลองเอา  
อะไรที่ใกล้ตัวไหม อะไรใกล้ตัวแล้วค่อยเปลี่ยนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ มันก็จะยากแค่ส่วนภาษาอังกฤษ จะไม่ยากที่ตัว  
content แต่ถ้าเอาอะไรที่มันใกล้ตัว มันก็จะยากทั้งสองอย่าง เพราะตรงนี้ก็คือ เหมือนกับให้เขาเลือกเรียนในสิ่งที่เขา  
ชอบ ถ้ามันไม่ได้เป็นไปตามแผนการสอนของแต่ละวิชา บางทีก็จะให้เขาเลือกเอาอันนี้ก่อนไหม แล้วแต่เนื้อหาด้วย

**นักวิจัย:** อาจารย์บอกว่า ปัญหาการสร้าง autonomy คือปัญหาในการ follow syllabus นอกจากนี้ มีปัญหาอย่างอื่นอีก  
ไหมคะ มีปัญหาของนักเรียนไหมคะ

**อาจารย์:** ไม่ค่อยนะ เพราะการให้นักเรียนเลือกในสิ่งที่เขาเลือกเรียนก่อน เขาจะชอบ เขาก็มีอิสระ มีสิทธิ์ในห้อง ยิ่ง  
ถ้าเป็นมหาวิทยาลัย xxxx จะกำจัดสิทธิเสรีภาพของอาจารย์ อย่างมหาวิทยาลัย xxxx สอน course hotel สามารถหา

หนังสือเองได้ ต่างสอน อิสระเขาจะเยอะ เขาจะสามารถทำได้เต็มที่ แต่ของเราเนี่ย นอกจากบังคับด้วยตัวหนังสือ แล้วก็ยังมีบังคับตัว schedule อีกว่า วันนี้สอนบทนี้ แล้วมันจะอีกปัญหาว่า เด็กบางคนเขาไม่เข้าใจว่าเราทำเพื่อเขา ถ้าเราโยกอันนี้ไว้ก่อน ไว้หลัง ทำไมไม่สอนตามตาราง ทำให้ทำอะไรไม่ค่อยได้เต็มที่ หนึ่งวิชาทุก section ต้องสอนเหมือนกันหมด ข้อสอบเหมือนกันหมด

**นักวิจัย:** สำหรับแบบสอบถามหมดละคะ มีคำถามเพิ่มเติม คำถามเพิ่มเติมนะคะ อยากแรก รบกวนอาจารย์พูดถึง learner centred อาจารย์คิดอย่างไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** ก็จริงแล้ว โอเคมันดีนะคะ แต่จริงๆแล้ว มันไม่ได้ผล เพราะบางคนยังไม่เข้าใจว่ามันคืออะไร การโยนหนังสือให้นักเรียนอ่านเอง คือมันไม่ใช่ และมันก็บางครั้งด้วยอะไรหลายๆอย่าง ด้วยอะไรหลายๆอย่าง เราก็ไม่สามารถทำกับระบบนี้ได้เต็มที่ ถ้าเราบรรยายให้เด็กฟัง สอนๆ มันไว ถ้าให้เด็กคิดเอง มัน take time ด้วย แล้วเด็กก็ต้องสอบ มันทำให้ยากเหมือนกัน มันขึ้นอยู่กับวิชา เนื้อหาแน่นมาก หนังสือเต็ม รายละเอียดทุกเม็ด มันยากเหมือนกันที่จะทำให้เต็มรูปแบบ 100% มันไม่ทัน ถ้าให้เด็กคิด

**นักวิจัย:** แล้วตอนนี้อาจารย์คิดว่า การสอนของอาจารย์ได้ทำ learner centred กี่%คะ

**อาจารย์:** ขึ้นอยู่กับวิชาด้วย ขึ้นอยู่กับเนื้อหาด้วย รายละเอียดต้องเก็บทุกเม็ด จะให้นักเรียนคิดเป็นการบ้าน เด็กก็ไม่ชอบอีก จะมีน้อย ถ้าวิชาไม่แน่นมาก หลวม อาจจะเยอะหน่อย

**นักวิจัย:** ก็ มันแปลว่า ข้อสอบเหมือนเป็น goal เลขหรือเปล่า ที่นักเรียนต้องได้เนื้อหาเอาไปสอบได้

**อาจารย์:** และเราก็คือ ถ้าเราสอนไม่ทัน มันเหมือนเป็นความคิดของเรา ถ้าเด็กทำข้อสอบไม่ได้ เพราะว่ามันเหมือนกับระบบการศึกษาของไทย เราไม่ได้เน้นว่า คือเด็กมาห้องเรียน เหมือนกับเด็กว่าฉันอยากได้ความรู้กลับไป แต่เป็นชั้นอยากได้เกรดกลับไป มันเหมือนเป็นจุดหมายปลายทางที่จะทำอย่างไรให้ชั้นทำข้อสอบได้ แทนที่จะทำยังไงให้เด็กทำอันนั้นอันนี้ได้ เด็กไม่ได้ถูกสอนให้เป็น learner centred มาแต่เด็กๆ พูดยังไงนะ เด็กไทยคิดเองไม่เป็น คือเหมือนจะต้องรอให้อาจารย์ป้อน ป้อนอย่างเดียว อย่างๆ พอเข้าไปในห้องเนี่ย แม้แต่จะเปิดไฟยังเปิดไม่เป็น ต้องให้อาจารย์เข้าไปในห้อง ให้อาจารย์เปิดไฟ เข้าไปในห้องก็นั่งกันมิดๆ อย่างนั้น ถ้าครูไม่เปิดไฟ ก็นั่งทำกันมิดๆอย่างนั้น เด็กไทยไม่คิด ไม่ทำ ไม่ได้รู้สึกอะไรอย่างเนี่ย

**นักวิจัย:** อาจารย์คิดว่าระบบการเรียนการสอน learner centred เหมาะสมกับนักเรียนไทยไหมคะ อย่างไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** มันก็ลงเหมาะสมทุกที่ แต่เราต้องทำให้ถูก learner centred เหมือนเป็นแค่หนึ่ง ตรงเนี่ย แล้วถ้าเราแก่นนี้ แต่เราไม่แก่นอื่น มันก็ไม่ช่วยอะไร ถ้าจะแก่นต้องแก่นทั้งระบบ ตั้งแต่เล็กๆ เด็กๆ โตขึ้นมา

**นักวิจัย:** สมมติว่า อาจารย์เจอนักเรียนทำการบ้านผิด อาจารย์มีวิธีการที่จะบอกนักเรียนให้แก้ไขปรับปรุงอย่างไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** ส่วนใหญ่ ถ้ามันผิดก็คอมเมนต์ไปในการบ้านเขาเนอะ จะเอาไปพูดในชั้นอีกทีหนึ่ง แต่ไม่พูดว่าเป็นของใคร เขาก็จะรู้ว่ามันไม่ใช่

**นักวิจัย:** รบกวนอาจารย์พูดถึงเป้าหมายของอาจารย์ในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษได้ไหมคะ

**อาจารย์:** อยากให้แกเด็กสื่อสารได้เท่านั้นเอง สามารถไปเปิดหาข้อมูลในอินเทอร์เน็ตภาษาอังกฤษแล้วเข้าใจ วันหนึ่งทำงานกับฝรั่งแล้วฟังพุดรู้เรื่อง เขียนอีเมลได้ คราวนี้แกนี่ก็พอแล้ว สำหรับพื้นฐานทั่วไป ถ้าเป็นเด็กเมอร์ก็อีกแบบหนึ่ง

**นักวิจัย:** คือ อาจารย์คาดหวังให้นักเรียนพูดภาษาอังกฤษสื่อสารได้ก็พอใช่ไหมคะ

**อาจารย์:** ครูเชื่อมั่นเป็นพื้นฐาน พวกตัว content ภาษาที่ลึกๆ เขาจะสามารถไปต่อยอดได้

**นักวิจัย:** อาจารย์มีวิธีการสร้างทัศนคติที่ดีให้นักเรียนอย่างไรบ้างคะ

**อาจารย์:** ก็อย่างที่บอกไป ก็ให้เขามองว่า ภาษาอังกฤษมันสำคัญอาเซียน หอบประเด็นไปพูดเรื่องอาเซียน ถ้าทำงานบริษัทต่างชาติ ไปสมัครงาน คนหนึ่งพุดอังกฤษได้ แล้วอีกคนพุดไม่ได้ แล้วเขาจะเลือกใคร ทำให้เห็นว่าอังกฤษสำคัญ

**นักวิจัย:** อาเซียนที่กำลังจะเข้ามา ตอนนี้เด็กไทยพร้อมแล้วหรือยังคะ

**อาจารย์:** ไม่พร้อมเลย

**นักวิจัย:** จะทำอะไรที่เขาต้องพยายามได้แล้ว กระตือรือร้นได้แล้ว

**อาจารย์:** ยากมาก เพราะว่ามันเหมือนกับไกลตัวมาก เขานึกไม่ออก มีอยู่วิธีเดียวคือให้มันเข้ามาแล้วเขาจะรู้สึกเอง คราวนี้มันแก้ยาก ระบบของไทยเราไม่แน่น ไม่เหมือนสิงคโปร์ ครูที่สอนเด็กเล็ก ก็ไม่แม่นอังกฤษมาก เด็กก็ไม่รับสิ่งที่ไม่แม่นมา เด็กจะจำมา เราต้องเอาฝรั่งมาสอนตั้งแต่เล็กๆ

**นักวิจัย:** การสอนล่าสุดที่ได้รับการตอบรับที่ดีจากนักเรียน วิธีการใดคะ วิธีการที่ใช้

**อาจารย์:** ขอนึกก่อนนะ นึกถึงแล้ว ถ้าเราทำในห้องเรียนมันสนุก เด็กก็จะอยากมา เหมือนห้องที่กำลังจะไปดูเนี่ย เด็กพุดและตอบคำถามได้ค่อนข้างเยอะด้วย ในห้องมีเด็กผู้ชายเยอะ กล้าแฉว มันตลก สอนมาหลายปี แล้วเป็นกลุ่มกล้าแฉวครู ครูก็ยอมให้เขาแฉว เราก็แฉวกลับไป ก็อย่าให้มันนอกเรื่องไปมาก ต้องคอยระวัง ทำให้ห้องเรียนบรรยากาศมันน่าเรียนละมั้ง เป็นเฉพาะบางกลุ่มเท่านั้น ให้เด็กยอมเรียน ไม่ถึงก็อยากเรียน

**นักวิจัย:** สำหรับนักเรียนที่จี้เกียจหรือไม่ค่อยตั้งใจเรียน อาจารย์มีวิธีการอย่างไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** อ่า จริงๆ ครูเป็นคนที่ไม่ค่อยจะจี้จี้จี้เด็กเท่าไร เพราะเด็กมหาชัยเป็นผู้ใหญ่แล้ว ถ้าเขาจี้เกียจ แล้วไม่มานี้ ครูจะเรียกเข้ามาคุย ว่าถ้าทำอย่างนี้เนี่ย แล้วบอกให้เขาเข้าใจว่าการที่เขาไม่ส่งงาน วิธีอื่น อาจจะมีผลกับเขาเอง เรื่องเกรด แต่วิชานี้เป็นโปรเจกต์จะมีผลต่อเพื่อนด้วย พอออกมาพรีเซนต์ไม่ดี จะดึงคะแนนของเพื่อน คุยกับเขา หรือไม่ก็บอกเขาว่า เราเรียนมาหลายสัปดาห์ เราขยันหน่อย สามสัปดาห์ เราจะได้ทำงานสบาย ไปเที่ยว ไปกินเล่น พุดให้เขาเข้าใจ แต่จะพุดแก้หน้าเดียว ถือว่าเข้าใจกันแล้ว ไม่ยุ่ง ปลอ่ยเขาเรื่องของเขา

**นักวิจัย:** คะแนนโปรเจกต์เป็นกลุ่มเฉลี่ยหรือคะแนนเดี่ยวคะ

**อาจารย์:** มันจะมีสองส่วน บางอย่าง content intro เป็นคะแนนกลุ่ม ภาษา เทคนิคคะแนนเดี่ยว

**นักวิจัย:** ก็คือแยกส่วนกัน นักเรียนเรียนดี (ขยัน) มีวิธีการสอนอย่างไร แตกต่างจากเด็กจี้เกียจไหมคะ

**อาจารย์:** อันนั้นต้องชมค่อนหน้าเลย ถ้าทำการบ้านมา ตอบมาดี หรือเตรียมตัวมาดีมาก ครูจะเอามาอ่านให้ฟัง เป็นตัวอย่างให้เพื่อนฟัง ถ้าเขาสอบได้คะแนนที่อป ก็อาจจะมีการไปให้ ชมเขา ปรบมือให้เขาหน่อย ถ้าจี้ก็จะคุยส่วนตัว

**นักวิจัย:** แล้วนักเรียนปานกลางละคะ

**อาจารย์:** จะกระตุ้น อาจจะแบบว่า ถามคำถาม ก็จะถามว่าคิดอย่างไร แต่จะไม่ไปช่วย ถ้าจี้มากจะไม่สะดวกใจ และไม่ชอบวิชานี้ แล้วจะไม่มาอีก ต้องดูหลายๆอย่าง เขาไม่พูดเพราะอะไร

**นักวิจัย:** แต่อาจารย์มีปัญหาเกี่ยวกับการ นักเรียนเข้าร่วมในห้องเรียนเยอะไหมคะ แบบวิธีการแสดงความคิดเห็น ทำในห้องเรียนมันเงียบ เวลาถามไปแล้วแต่นักเรียนไม่ตอบ อาจารย์ใช้วิธีการแก้ไขอย่างไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** ถ้าเป็นช่วงแรกๆ ถ้านักเรียนไม่ตอบ เราก็เล่นมุขไป that's very good และทำให้บรรยากาศในห้องดีขึ้นแล้ว เขาจะกล้าตอบมากขึ้น

**นักวิจัย:** ตอนนี้ก็จบคำถามละคะ อาจารย์มีอะไรจะเพิ่มเติมไหมคะ

**อาจารย์:** เออ มีอะไรจะเพิ่มเติมไหม ถ้าในความเห็นของครูนะ ครูว่า motivation ของเด็กเนี่ย มันมีสองปัจจัยคือ เห็นความสำคัญในสิ่งที่เขาต้องเรียนหรือเปล่า กับอันที่สองเรียนแล้วมีความสุขไหมเท่านั้นเอง ถ้าเขามีความสุขก็จะทำกิจกรรม อยากมีส่วนร่วม อยากเรียน อยากทำการบ้าน ถ้าเด็กเห็นความสำคัญ หรือถึงแม้จะไม่ค่อยมีความสุข เขาก็จะบังคับตัวเองและเขาก็จะตั้งใจ

**นักวิจัย:** อาจารย์คิดว่า motivation ของเด็ก จุดประสงค์แรกของเด็กมาเรียนคืออะไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** เกรด จริงๆมันพูดยาก เพราะอยู่ในองค์กรศึกษาอย่างนี้เนี่ยมันอยู่ในหลักสูตร เขาไม่ได้เลือกมาเรียน เหมือนเป็นตัวบังคับ เขาต้องเรียน ไม่งั้นไม่จบ นั่นก็คือเกรด แต่ถ้าเป็นวิชาเลือก มันจะมีเหตุผลในการเลือกบ้าง แต่สุดท้ายแล้ว เขาเลือกเพราะเขาอยากได้เกรด เพราะเขาต้องจบ

**นักวิจัย:** อาจารย์เคยมีวิธีการสอนแบบให้นักเรียนให้ไปจำมานะ แล้วตรงนี้จะออกสอบไหมคะ

**อาจารย์:** มีแต่บอกเขาว่า ตรงนี้มันสำคัญนะ ต้องรู้ตรงนี้นะก่อนถึงจะเข้าใจส่วนต่อไป เราถึงมองออก

**นักวิจัย:** ในห้องนี้ อาจารย์ไม่ค่อยพูดเรื่องคะแนนหรือเกรดใช่ไหมคะ

**อาจารย์:** หมายความว่า ไม่เอาคะแนนมาดึงดูดใจอย่างเนี่ยหรือ

**นักวิจัย:** ค่ะ

**อาจารย์:** อ่า จะไม่ค่อยทำ ถ้าไม่จำเป็น ถ้าเด็กจี้ถามมากๆ ก็จะบอกว่า มีผลต่อคะแนนนะ ส่วนนี้คะแนนเยอะนะ ครูมีความเชื่อว่า ครูไม่อยากให้เด็กเรียนเพื่อไปทำข้อสอบได้ ถึงแม้ว่าจะเป็นจุดมุ่งหมายของเด็กก็ตาม แต่อยากให้เด็กเรียนเพื่อให้เด็กมีความรู้เพิ่มขึ้น

**นักวิจัย:** ค่ะ จากที่หนูไปสัมภาษณ์มา ส่วนมากเขาจะต่อคะแนนและเกรด เพื่อที่จะไป motivate เด็กค่ะ

**อาจารย์:** คิดว่าการ motivate เด็กด้วยคะแนน มันไม่ถาวร เหมือนกับเราไปร่วมมือกับเด็กเพื่อให้ได้เกรด เราจึงไม่ทำ

**นักวิจัย:** อาจจะเพราะว่าเด็กจากแต่ละมหาลัยไม่เหมือนกันหรือเปล่าคะ ก็เลยมีวิธีการสอนไม่เหมือนกัน

**อาจารย์:** หมายถึงเด็กอ่อนและเด็กเก่ง ครูมีความเชื่อว่าเด็กต้องเข้าใจทั้งหมด ภาษาอังกฤษน่าจะเป็นความเข้าใจทั้งหมด ถ้าไปสอนเด็กอ่อนก็ไม่มีผล แต่ก็เคยสอนเด็กอ่อนมากๆ นะ แต่ครูก็ไม่ทำแบบนั้น แต่อาจจะมีเน้น อันนี้มันสำคัญนะ ไปจามา ไปดู

**นักวิจัย:** เด็กอ่อนมากๆ ทำอย่างไรคะ

**อาจารย์:** ให้เด็กเก่งนั่งประกบคู่คนที่อ่อน ก็จะหมั่นไปเดินดูเขา เราต้องไปจี้

**นักวิจัย:** จากประสบการณ์อาจารย์เคยให้ F นักเรียนไหมคะ

**อาจารย์:** เคยค่ะ ครูเชื่อว่า ทุกคนแฟร์ๆ ช่วยตอนตรวจงาน แต่ไม่ช่วยตอนสอบ ครูจะกรอกคะแนน ไม่ดูชื่อเลย

Appendix D : Sample excerpts of Vanida's interview data (English)

**RESEARCHER:** In question number 1, you answered that the role of a teacher should be a facilitator. Could you please explain what a facilitator means to you?

**TEACHER:** Ummm, it is quite specific. It is a person, who simplifies the study. It is as if I guide them about what they should do to improve their English. You do not only teach the lesson in class and it is over. I can tell them that they can see this if they do not understand. For example, in listening practice, if they cannot answer or they cannot get it, I will suggest them that they may try to watch foreign movies. First, you follow Thai subtitle and think about what is being said. Why does it say like that? Something like this. I tell them techniques they can learn outside the classroom so that they know how to use it in class.

**RESEARCHER:** Second, how do you motivate the students? Please give some examples or explain how to do it?

**TEACHER:** Let me think. Actually, I must tell you that I used to do my thesis about learning second language. It applies the same principle as learning first language. When the students firstly learn language, they do not speak. They listen until they feel that they are ready. Then they say something broken, very broken language. Eat, mom, eat. But it is not. Mom eat means mother eats but you do not eat. But the students know that they can communicate and they will gradually improve. They change the way they talk if it does not sound right. Learning second language is the same. I always tell the students that they have to speak. They should not care about making mistakes. If you can communicate, you are successful at a certain level. When they speak incorrectly, I will not blame or correct it at once or immediately but I will repeat what they say. Then, I say it correctly allowing them to learn that they make mistakes. I will never embarrass them. Actually, according to my thesis and my study, most people cannot speak English because they are afraid. Adults cannot speak as well as students because they are not afraid to make mistakes. Adults have fear. Thus, if we can get rid of their fear, they will begin to speak. And when they speak, they begin to learn. To motivate the students, I tell them just to speak English. I do not care about grammar. When they speak, they learn. Then they will improve sooner or later. I also tell the students how important English is. I give them examples. I know a person that studied arts and he did not like English at all. One day he thought English was not important. He did not pay attention to English. But after his graduation he had to work in a shop on Tha Pae Road in Chiang Mai and he had to speak English. Oh no! He had to spend a lot of time practising English. We cannot forecast our future whether we need English or not. Being able to communicate in English makes us more special than the others. Therefore, if we are able to use English as a tool of communication, we will be better than the others who cannot speak English. This made him realise the importance of English. This is how I motivate. I try to make learning atmosphere relaxed and not too formal. I sometimes tell jokes with the students to be friendly and make them feel more confident. If some students do not pay attention no matter what, to make them talk in the class is gathering in group of four to five students. Then I ask some questions and allow each group to answer. This group will last. If this child has spoken today, he will not speak again. It will rotate around. Everyone in the group must speak

and answer. So everyone speaks. Although there are thirty to forty students, everyone still speak. It is like this.

**RESEARCHER:** Third, if there are some problems or challenges in motivating the students, how do you solve these problems?

**TEACHER:** Normally, if they feel that English is difficult, I will not say it is not. They will resist me if I say that. They will argue that as an English teacher you can say it is not difficult. I will tell them that it is actually difficult. If I teach art students and I have to paint. I think it is hard. However, I can paint if I practise constantly. I think I can do it. You can do it too. If you keep practising, you will be able to speak English. I try to relate English with Thai language such as explaining about the structure. It starts with who, what, followed by verb. Or they have to do their homework, I have to think how to help them to understand how to do it.

**RESEARCHER:** Could you please explain the term of autonomy in your opinion?

**TEACHER:** In my understanding, it is when the students feel that they can learn whatever they want. They are able to choose what they want to study. To apply it with teaching English, it should be the content they can choose for example, I assign them to make a project. They should be able to select the topic that they are interested. I do not force them to work about social sciences or sciences. They can choose any field. For learning method, we also have ESOL or e-learning. They can choose to practice listening, speaking, or reading. However, it [students' choosing] cannot be applied with teaching 100% because it has its own scope. We can apply only some parts of it.

**RESEARCHER:** What do you do to support your students' autonomy?

**TEACHER:** For example, I encourage the students to choose the topic, but if they say it is difficult I will let them choose something similar so that they can translate it into English. The difficult part of the learning process is the English, the content is not difficult. If the teacher chooses something the students are not familiar with, both subject or topic will be difficult. This allows them to choose what they like. It also depends on the content.

**RESEARCHER:** You mentioned that the challenge in supporting autonomy is to follow the syllabus or curriculum. Do you have any other challenges with students?

**TEACHER:** No, not really. If the students are able to choose what to study, they will like it. They have freedom. They have rights in the class. Especially at my university, the rights and freedom of the instructors are limited. In hotel course of xxxx University, teachers are allowed to choose the textbook by themselves. They have more freedom. They can do it fully. Beside the strict regulations, the set teaching schedules must be followed effectively. Every section must be taught at the same time and in the same manner. The examination must be the same too.

**RESEARCHER:** I have finished asking the questions from the questionnaires. May I ask some additional questions? Firstly, what do you think about learner-centred approach?

**TEACHER:** Actually, the idea is very good but it is not effective because some teachers do not understand it clearly. You cannot just throw textbooks to the students to read. It is not that easy.

I think because there are a lot of obstacles we [teachers] cannot do much with this approach. If I just lecture and teach, it will not take much time and willingness. If I allow them to think, it takes time and they have to take exam. So, it is hard. It also depends on the course. Some courses contain a lot of content and textbooks. You [teacher] cannot make it. The way to allow the students to think is giving them assignments but they do not like it.

**RESEARCHER:** So how many percentages do you apply learner-centred approach in your class?

**TEACHER:** It depends on the subject and the content. I have to lecture all the content. For learner-centred approach, I will ask students to do assignment. However, they do not like it. If I teach an easy subject, there will be more learner-centred.

**RESEARCHER:** You mean the exam is the goal that the students must achieve?

**TEACHER:** If I cannot complete the lecture and the students cannot do the exam, it is my fault. It seems that in Thai educational system, we do not emphasise obtaining more knowledge but we focus on grade. It is a goal of studies. The students will do whatever to complete the exam. The students were not taught with student-centred style when they were young. To be honest, Thai students cannot think on their own. They wait for the teacher to feed them. They could not even turn on the light. The teacher had to turn it on. They sat in the dark room. If the teacher did not turn the light on, they will keep sitting like that. Thai students cannot think and do something independently.

**RESEARCHER:** Is it appropriate for Thai students, and how?

**TEACHER:** It should be appropriate for everywhere but we must do it properly. Learner-centred is just one part here. If we correct this part but we do not correct other parts, it does not help. You have to correct all the whole system, from their childhood.

**RESEARCHER:** Suppose that a student does his homework incorrectly, how do you tell him to improve himself?

**TEACHER:** I usually comment in his homework. I will discuss again in the class but I will not tell who did that. Then he will know it is wrong.

**RESEARCHER:** Could you please explain your objectives in teaching English?

**TEACHER:** I just want the students to be able to communicate and search information in internet. They may work with foreigners one day. They can write email. I think this is enough for the basic skill. But it will be different for English major students.

**RESEARCHER:** Do you mean that you expect students to be able to communicate in English?

**TEACHER:** I believe that it is the foundation. If they understand the foundation, they will understand the higher knowledge and skills.

**RESEARCHER:** How do you encourage students to have a positive attitude towards the study of English?



**TEACHER:** As I have said, I encourage them to understand the importance of English for ASEAN. I talk about ASEAN. If the foreign company are recruited the position, one can speak English and the other one cannot speak English. Which one the company will choose? It makes them realise the importance of English language.

**RESEARCHER:** Are Thai students ready for ASEAN?

**TEACHER:** No, they are not ready.

**RESEARCHER:** How can you encourage them to be active?

**TEACHER:** It is so hard because it is very far from them. They have no idea about it. The only way is to allow ASEAN to come and they will know. I think it is difficult to solve. Unlike Singapore, Thai system does not emphasize this. Teachers at lower level are not good at English. The children take those incorrect things. We need foreigners to teach them since they are young.

**RESEARCHER:** Can you describe one of your recent lessons that you thought went very well?

**TEACHER:** Let me think. I try to make the learning atmosphere relaxed and not too formal. I sometimes make jokes with the students to create a friendly atmosphere and to make them feel more comfortable. I just try to make the teaching and learning fun so that the students want to attend. They dare to be friendly with me. I encourage friendliness and I tease them too but I do not let it go too far. I must keep the class atmosphere good in order to make the students want to study.

**RESEARCHER:** How do you handle with non-active or unmotivated students?

**TEACHER:** Actually, I am not strict with them. University students are adults. If they are lazy and they do not attend class, I will call them and tell that what they did will affect their grade. But this course is about project and it also affects their friends. If you can make presentation well, your friend's score will drop. I talk to them or I may tell them that you have four years in university. Just be patient. You have thirty seven years to work, travel, eat and play. I make them understand. But I will talk only one time. I consider that it is clear and straightforward for them. I will not be fussy.

**RESEARCHER:** How do you give the score of project work? Do you give score for the whole group or individual person?

**TEACHER:** There are two parts. Content and introduction scores are for group and speaking skill and technique scores are for individual person.

**RESEARCHER:** You mean it is separated score. And how do you teach active or motivated students? Does the method different from teaching non-active students?

**TEACHER:** I praise them face to face. If they do homework, answer well or prepare well, I will read it as an example for their friends. If one gets a highest score, I may give him a pen, praise and applaud. If a student is a non-active student, I will talk to him personally.

**RESEARCHER:** How about the average students?

**TEACHER:** For average students, I will encourage them. I may ask some questions about their opinions. But I do not do this often. If I bother them too much, they will feel uneasy and dislike this subject. And they will not come again. I have to observe many things.

**RESEARCHER:** Do you have any problem with a silent classroom? For example, you ask them but no student answer. How do you solve this situation?

**TEACHER:** If the student does not answer, I will tell joke and will say 'that's very good' to make the atmosphere relax. Then, they will dare to answer.

**RESEARCHER:** Now we are at the end of the interview. Do you have anything to add?

**TEACHER:** Err...Anything to add? In my opinion, I think that student motivation is initiated by two factors; namely, the realisation of the importance of what they have to study and the happiness they gain from their study. If they are happy, they will participate in the activities. They want to study and do homework, and if they realise the importance of learning, although they are not always happy, they will often force themselves to study.

**RESEARCHER:** What is the first motive (motivation) of students to study?

**TEACHER:** Grade. Actually, it is hard to say because we are in the educational institute and it is in the curriculum. Students do not choose to study but because it is the major subject or prescribed subject which they have to learn if not they will not finish their study. So it is grade. But if it is a minor subject which allows students to choose to study, students may have chance to choose but eventually they choose because of grade because they want to finish.

**RESEARCHER:** Have you ever tell students to read some parts which will be in the exam?

**TEACHER:** I just tell this part is important. Students must understand one part and the next part. Then, they will understand the whole picture.

**RESEARCHER:** In this classroom, do you talk about score and grade? Do you talk much about it?

**TEACHER:** Do you mean do I motivate students by using scores?

**RESEARCHER:** Yes.

**TEACHER:** No, I rarely do it. Unless it's necessary, if I teach students who are very lazy, I will say this part can affect your score. I believe that I do not want the students to study to pass the exam but I want them to progress in their studies.

**RESEARCHER:** I have interviewed many teachers. Most of them motivate students by using scores and grades.

**TEACHER:** I think that to motivate them by offering grades is not a permanent practice. I feel that we cooperate with the students to obtain grades instead of knowledge. I refuse to do this practice.

**RESEARCHER:** Is it because students from different universities are not the same? Therefore, the teachers use different teaching practices. What do you think?

**TEACHER:** You mean low performing or unengaged students and high performing or engaged students. I believe that in studying English the students should learn and understand it thoroughly. I have been teaching very low performing students but I did not use any score or grade to motivate them. I just said this is an important part, please read carefully.

**RESEARCHER:** What do you do with low performing students?

**TEACHER:** I ask a high performing student to sit next to a low performing student. I will walk to him and look carefully.

**RESEARCHER:** Have you ever give grade 'F' to students?

**TEACHER:** Yes, I believe I am fair to every student. I will help them when I mark their assignments but in exam I will not help them.

# Appendix E : Classroom observation field note form

Participant's name: ..... Subject:.....

Location:.....Class.....Time:.....

Number of students.....

Classroom setting:

Time	Activities	Comments

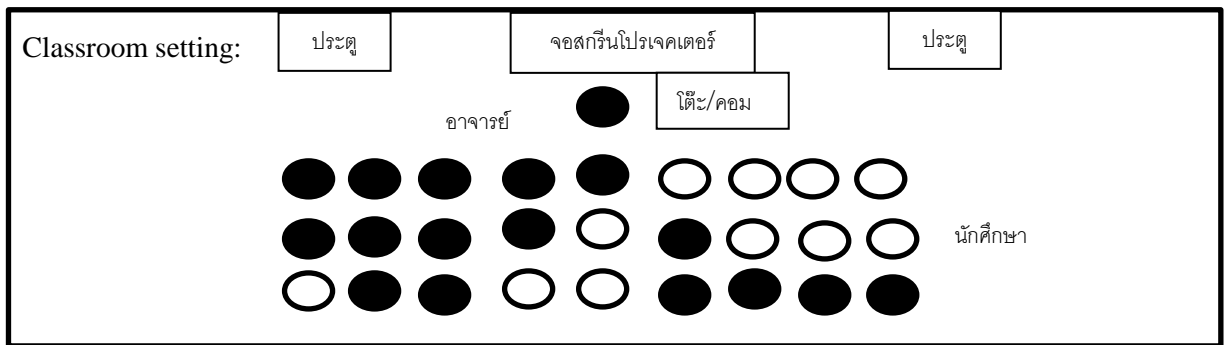
Note:

## Appendix F : Sample of Vanida's field note (Thai)

Participant's name: .....วนิดา..... Subject:..... Presentation.....

Location:.....xxxx..... Class...1..... Time:...9.30.....

Number of students.....16 .....



Time	Activities	Comments
00.00-03.03	<p>อาจารย์ยืนอยู่หน้าห้องเรียน อาจารย์ถือหนังสือไว้ข้างตัว ส่วนมากนักศึกษามา ก่อนเวลาเรียน นักศึกษานั่งที่โต๊ะ นักศึกษาใส่ชุดนักศึกษามางก็ใส่เสื้อกันหนาว อาจารย์ยิ้มและอาจารย์เริ่มการสอน โดยถามคำถามนักศึกษาเรื่อง introduction of presentation เริ่มต้นจากอะไร ควรจะอย่างไร โดยเปิดโอกาสให้นักศึกษาแสดงความคิดเห็น อาจารย์ปล่อยมุขตลกกับ นักศึกษา นักศึกษาหัวเราะ อาจารย์ถามอีกครั้ง นักศึกษาตอบคำถามอาจารย์ แล้วอาจารย์เน้นคำตอบที่ถูกต้องโดยการพูดย้ำอีกรอบหนึ่ง แล้วอาจารย์อธิบาย อีกทีให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ ส่วนมากจะเป็นการโต้ตอบ แบบถามตอบ อาจารย์จะพูด คำคำตอบที่ถูกต้องจากนักศึกษาเหมือนเป็นการคอนเฟิร์ม อาจารย์ถามแล้วจะ รอให้นักศึกษาตอบ อาจารย์จะพยายามฟังคำตอบของนักศึกษาแล้วพยายามให้ นักศึกษาตอบคำถามจนถูกและฟังคำตอบของนักศึกษาแล้วชมนักศึกษา</p>	<p>ห้องเรียนค่อนข้างใหญ่กว้าง มีพัดลม และมีลมถ่ายเท ประตูด้านหนึ่งเปิดไว้เพื่อเข้า ออก</p> <p>อาจารย์พูดภาษาอังกฤษกับ นักศึกษา อาจารย์ยิ้มและ ปล่อยมุข อาจารย์ถาม นักศึกษา นักศึกษาตอบ</p>
03.03-05.20	<p>อาจารย์ให้นักศึกษาเปิดหนังสือ หน้า 47 แล้วพูดถึง introduction นักศึกษาเปิดหนังสือตาม อาจารย์อธิบายเนื้อหา โดยอ่านจากหนังสือเรียน อธิบายและมองหน้านักศึกษาด้วยนักศึกษาดังใจฟัง นั่งตัวตรง ไม่คุยกัน หลังจากอธิบายแล้ว อาจารย์ก็ถามนักศึกษาด้วย นักศึกษาตอบคำถาม</p>	
05.20-07.50	<p>อาจารย์ถามนักศึกษาในหัวข้อที่อาจารย์อธิบายไป นักศึกษาบางคนก็ตอบด้วย มุข แล้วพวกเขาก็หัวเราะกัน อาจารย์ยิ้มและหัวเราะมุข นักศึกษาบางคนปรบมือ เวลานั้นนักศึกษาคำถามถูก มีนักศึกษามาสาย 1 คน เดินมาข้างหลังอาจารย์ และมานั่งที่โต๊ะด้านหน้ากับเพื่อนๆ อาจารย์จะพูดคำตอบซ้ำอีกครั้งเพื่อเป็นการ</p>	<p>นักศึกษามีมุขและ อาจารย์หัวเราะ</p> <p>ห้องเรียนเป็นกันเองและ</p>

	คอนเฟิร์มคำตอบให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ	ผ่อนคลาย
07.50-10.00	อาจารย์ถามคำถามนักศึกษาแล้วนักศึกษาคอบเสียงเบามาก เหมือนนักศึกษาไม่เข้าใจ อาจารย์ก็บอกนักศึกษาอีกทีว่า ตอนนี้กำลังเรียนหน้าไหนและตรงไหน แล้วนักศึกษาก็ตอบถูก นักศึกษาบางคนก็ถามคำถามอาจารย์แล้วอาจารย์ก็อธิบายคำตอบ อาจารย์ยกตัวอย่างให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจแล้วให้นักศึกษาคอบคำถาม หลังจากนั้นอาจารย์จะถามว่าทำไม ให้นักศึกษาอธิบายคำตอบ ถ้านักศึกษาคอบถูก นักศึกษาจะปรบมือ แล้วอาจารย์ก็จะอธิบายคำตอบอีกครั้ง และนักศึกษาที่ตั้งใจฟังอย่างดี	อาจารย์รอนักศึกษาและอธิบายให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ
10.00- 15.00	อาจารย์ยกตัวอย่างแล้วให้นักศึกษาคอบคำถาม หลังจากนั้นอาจารย์ให้นักศึกษาทำแบบฝึกหัด อาจารย์นับจำนวนนักศึกษาแล้วเช็คชื่อที่โต๊ะ นักศึกษานั่งทำแบบฝึกหัดอย่างตั้งใจ ส่วนมากนักศึกษาคอบแบบฝึกหัดคนเดียว ไม่ถามกัน อาจารย์ยืนอยู่ที่โต๊ะ อาจารย์ยืนรอนักศึกษาทำแบบฝึกหัด หลังจากที่นักศึกษาทำแบบฝึกหัดเสร็จ นักศึกษาคุยกัน แล้วอาจารย์ก็มายืนหน้าห้องเพื่อให้นักศึกษาคอบคำถามของแบบฝึกหัด	อาจารย์รอนักศึกษาทำแบบฝึกหัด อาจารย์ให้เวลาแก่นักศึกษาในการทำแบบฝึกหัดด้วยตัวเอง
15.00-20.00	อาจารย์อ่านคำถามของแบบฝึกหัดแต่ละข้อ นักศึกษาคอบคำถาม yes หรือ no อาจารย์พูดคำตอบซ้ำอีกรอบ	
20.00-25.00	อาจารย์ถามคำถามแบบฝึกหัด นักศึกษาคอบคำถาม อาจารย์ถามว่าทำไมถึงตอบคำตอบนี้ นักศึกษาอธิบาย บางทีนักศึกษาอธิบายเป็นภาษาไทย ส่วนมากอาจารย์จะถามคำตอบแล้วให้นักศึกษาอธิบายคำตอบเสมอเพื่อให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ แล้วอาจารย์จะอธิบายคำตอบอีกที อาจารย์ปล่อยมุขและนักศึกษาหัวเราะกับอาจารย์	อาจารย์อธิบายคำตอบทุกครั้ง
25.00-30.00	อาจารย์ถือหนังสือ อ่านคำถามและนักศึกษาคอบคำถาม เวลานั้นนักศึกษาคอบคิดหรือไม่แน่ใจ อาจารย์จะอธิบายหรือยกตัวอย่างให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ นักศึกษาตั้งใจฟังอาจารย์อธิบาย มีนักศึกษาผู้หญิงยกมือถามอาจารย์ แล้วอาจารย์ตอบคำถามและอธิบายให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ	อาจารย์ตอบคำถามนักศึกษา

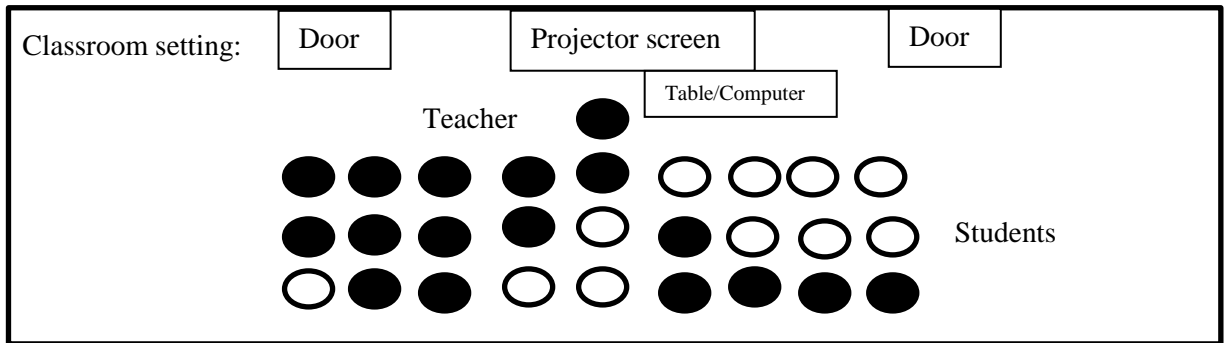
**Note:** อาจารย์มีบุคลิกที่ใจดี อารมณ์ดี ไม่ดูด่านักศึกษา อาจารย์สอนด้วยรอยยิ้มและเสียงหัวเราะ เปิดโอกาสให้นักศึกษาคอบข้อสงสัยได้ตลอดเวลา และตอบด้วยรอยยิ้ม อาจารย์กระตุ้นให้นักศึกษามีส่วนร่วมในห้องเรียนโดยการถามตอบคำถาม มีการโต้ตอบกัน มีการสนทนาระหว่างอาจารย์กับนักศึกษาคอบเวลา

# Appendix G : Sample of Vanida's field note (English)

Participant's name: ..... Vanida.....Subject:.....Presentation.....

Location:.....xxxx.....Class...1.....Time:...9.30.....

Number of students.....16 .....



Time	Activities	Comments
00.00-03.03	Vanida stands in front of the classroom and she is holding the book in one hand. Most of the students come to class before time. The students sit on the chairs. Some students wear sweaters. Vanida begins her class with a smile and starts her lesson by asking questions about the introduction of a presentation, how to start a presentation, what to say and what to do. She encourages the students to participate in the class. Sometimes she tells jokes and the students laugh. She asks the questions again and the students answer. She repeats the correct answer. Then, she explains the reason for the correct answer. The teacher and the students interact with each other. She always repeats the correct answers, which seems to give a confirmation for the students. When she asks the questions, she waits until the students answer. She encourages the students to answer and she listens to the students. Then, she gives praise or positive feedback to the students.	The classroom is large with ceiling fans and the air is flowing in the classroom. One door is open for entrance.  She speaks English to students. She smiles and tells jokes. She asks questions and the students answer.
03.03-05.20	Vanida asks the students to open the textbook at page 47 and talks about the introduction of a presentation. The students open their books. She explains the lesson from the book. She looks up and explains. The students listen to her attentively and sit upright. After she finishes talking, she asks them questions and the students answer.	

05.20-07.50	Vanida asks the students questions on each topic when she explains. Some students answer and also tell jokes. She smiles and tells jokes too. Some students applaud when they answer correctly. One student comes late to class and walks behind Vanida and sits in the front row. She always repeats the correct answers for a confirmation and to make sure that the students understand the lesson.	<p>The students tell jokes and the teacher laughs.</p> <p>The classroom atmosphere is very friendly and relaxed.</p>
07.50-10.00	Vanida asks questions but the students answer very softly. They seem unsure. Then, she explains where she is talking in the textbook. Then, the students answer correctly. One student asks her a question and she answers and explains to her. She gives an example of a situation to make the students understand. Then, she asks them questions. The students answer correctly and she asks the students to explain the reasons for their answers. When the students answer correctly, some applaud and then Vanida explains the reason again and the students listen to her carefully.	The teacher waits for the students and explains the lesson to make sure that they understand.
10.00- 15.00	Vanida gives some examples and asks students questions. Then, she asks students to do the textbook exercise. While students are doing the exercise, she counts the number of students and fills in the attendance form. The students do the exercise attentively. Most students do it individually. They do not talk to each other. Vanida stands near the table. She waits for them to finish. After they finish, some students talk. Vanida stands in front of the class and asks them questions from the textbook exercise.	The teacher waits for the students to finish the exercise. She gives time for them to do it on their own.
15.00-20.00	Vanida reads the questions in the exercise and the students answer 'yes' or 'no'. Then, she repeats the answers.	
20.00-25.00	Vanida asks the students the questions in the exercise. The students answer. Sometimes she asks them to explain the answers. Some students answer in the Thai language. Vanida asks them to explain their answers most of the time because she wants to make sure that the students understand the lesson. Then, she explains the answers again. Sometimes she tells jokes and the students laugh with her.	The teacher explains every answer of the exercise.



25.00-30.00	Vanida holds the textbook, asks questions and the students answer the questions. When the students answer incorrectly or they are not sure, the teacher explains and gives an example for them to understand. The students listen to her explanation. One girl raises her hand and asks Vanida a question and Vanida answers and explains to her clearly.	The teacher answers the students' questions.
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**Note:** The teacher is kind and cheerful. She does not give negative words to the students. She teaches with smiles and laughs. She welcomes the students' questions and answers them. She gives opportunities to the students to participate in the classroom by asking questions. The classroom is an interactive learning environment.

Appendix H : Sample excerpts of Vanida's classroom observation data

Vanida (Class 1, Time 03.00-10.25)

**Vanida:** Now open your book on page 47 page 47. We are talking about qualification. First of all, I would like you to look at the qualification of a good introduction. We have 4 qualifications. The first one the presentation focuses on the attention of the audiences so what you said. Good speaker will make the audiences at ease. It is like you build up the relationship with you and the audiences. And then explain the purpose of the talk and what the speaker would like to achieve. Why the speaker has to do this?

**Student:** [One girl answers very softly.]

**Vanida:** Sort of. But you help guide the audiences to achieve what you want to achieve and the last one to give the overview of the key points of the talk. This is to give the outline of your talk and to help the audiences understand your talk more. And the next paragraph tells the important of an introduction part, how the presenter starts the presentation is very important as the image and visual impression that you [unclear] the less of the talk. This is like the first impression that you will get from the audiences. If you don't start your presentation well, the audiences may not like your presentation. And the last sentence of this paragraph, filling the presentation with the smile. So can you smile all of your talk?

**Students:** No.

**Vanida:** Why not? Because what?

**Student:** คือนั่ง [I feel stiff.]

**Vanida:** A very good reason! No. Actually as I said before, it depends on the topic. If your topic is so serious, you will not smile all the time. You will not smile when you are talking about the death of people, right? Why do need to smile at the introduction part?

**Students:** To create a good relationship with the audiences.

**Vanida:** Yes, that is one thing to create the relationship between you and audiences. But the other thing is important? Is?

**Student:** [One girl answers softly.]

**Vanida:** Ah. To make the audiences know that you are willing to be here to give your talk. No one is forcing you to do so. Okay. The next paragraph, it is also a good idea to prop up with a short story, some facts or unusual visual aids, so these are the techniques that draw the attentions from the audiences. Now I will give you some examples and you have to tell me which technique is used. Suppose that, your topic is about traffic jams in Bangkok. You tell the

audience that I have one of my friends who lives in Bangkok. He told me that he was staying nearly for four hours a day in a car because of the traffic jams. Which technique is used?

**Student:** [One girl answers softly and the student seems to be unsure.]

**Vanida:** I'm talking about the last paragraph on this page.

**Student:** A short story.

**Vanida:** Ah... a short story.

**Student:** อาจารย์ขา unusual visual aids แปลว่าอะไรคะ [Teacher, what is the meaning of unusual visual aids?]

**Vanida:** Something that surprises the audiences, not just general or ordinary pictures. And another example, what if I ask the audience do you know how much Michael Jordan earned a year when he was a basketball player. In 1996, he earned nearly 45 million US dollars in endorsement which means that it is about 85 dollars per second or nearly 2,710 Bath per second.

**Students:** Question?? Fact??

**Vanida:** Question of interesting fact? ตายละ สองใจ ไม่ยอมตัดสินใจเลือกอันใดอันหนึ่ง [Oh! You are hesitated.] It is only one, fact. It is not a question. Why?

**Student:** Because if it is a question, the audiences need to give the answer.

**Vanida:** Exactly. Very good. Because you ask them do you know and then you tell them some fact. It means that you don't want to know that they know or not, right? It is a question that it does not need an answer. It is something that you say out to draw attention of the audiences. Do not apply as a question. So in your presentation, you do not ask something like do you know what he earned [unclear]. This is not a technique, right? This is just telling the audiences what you gonna talk about. And the last example if you ask the audiences, ahh supposed that your pay was cut 50% next month, what will you do? What technique is used?

**Students:** Question.

**Vanida:** Yes. So this is a question because it needs the answer.

## Appendix I : Students' open-ended questionnaire

### แบบสอบถามความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ

แบบสอบถามชุดนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งในงานวิจัยของนางสาวศิริวิมล ณ เชียงใหม่ นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก วิชาเอก  
ศึกษาศาสตร์ คณะศิลปศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ ภายใต้การดูแลของศาสตราจารย์คริส เดวิส โทร +61 (2)  
9385 1987 อีเมลล์ c.davison@unsw.edu.au และดร.พอล อีฟแวนส์ โทร +61 (2) 9385 6950 อีเมลล์  
paul.evans@unsw.edu.au ถ้านักศึกษามีคำถามสามารถติดต่อนางสาวศิริวิมล ณ เชียงใหม่ โทร +61 4  
01901575 อีเมลล์ s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au

กรุณาตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้และทำเครื่องหมายในช่องว่าง หากนักศึกษาไม่ต้องการที่จะเข้าร่วมงานวิจัย นักศึกษาไม่  
จำเป็นต้องใส่เครื่องหมายลงในช่องว่าง หรือทำเครื่องหมายในช่อง ไม่ การยินยอมของนักศึกษาหมายถึงการตอบ  
คำถามทุกข้อและส่งแบบสอบถามคืนตามมาตรา 1.9 บทบัญญัติแห่งชาติในการจัดการจริยธรรมในผลงานวิจัย  
นักศึกษาสามารถส่งคำแนะนำ หรือติชมได้ที่สำนักงานเลขานุการจริยธรรม (the Ethics Secretariat) ,มหาวิทยาลัย  
นิวเซาท์เวลส์ ซิดนีย์ รหัสไปรษณีย์ 2052 ออสเตรเลีย (University of New South Wales, Sydney 2052  
Australia) (โทร (+61) 9385 4234 แฟกซ์ (+61) 9385 6648 อีเมลล์ ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au) คำแนะนำ  
หรือติชมของนักศึกษาจะได้รับการดำเนินการตรวจสอบโดยละเอียดและนักศึกษาจะได้รับการรายงานผลอย่างเป็นทางการ

ฉันยินยอมที่จะเข้าร่วมงานวิจัย ☐ ใช่ ☐ ไม่

แบบสอบถามต่อไปนี้เป็นคำถามเกี่ยวกับประสบการณ์ของนักศึกษาต่ออาจารย์ผู้สอนในห้องเรียนนี้ ซึ่งอาจารย์  
ผู้สอนมีวิธีการสอนแตกต่างกัน ดังนั้นผู้วิจัยจึงต้องการจะทราบว่านักศึกษาารู้สึกอย่างไรในการเรียนกับอาจารย์ผู้สอน  
คำตอบของนักศึกษาจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับ กรุณาตอบคำถามตามความเป็นจริง

อายุ: \_\_\_\_\_ ชั้นปี: \_\_\_\_\_ เพศชาย ( ) หรือ หญิง ( ) วิชา: \_\_\_\_\_

กรุณาตอบคำถามทุกข้อต่อไปนี้

1.) คุณรู้สึกอย่างไรกับการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเรียนนี้

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2.) คุณคิดว่าการเรียนในห้องนี้น่าสนใจไหม เพราะเหตุใดจึงน่าสนใจ หรือเพราะเหตุใดจึงไม่น่าสนใจ

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3.) คุณชอบทำกิจกรรมอะไรในการเรียนวิชานี้ เพราะเหตุใดจึงชอบ

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4.) คุณไม่ชอบทำกิจกรรมอะไรในการเรียนวิชานี้ เพราะเหตุใดจึงไม่ชอบ

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5.) คุณรู้สึกอย่างไรต่อวิธีการสอนของอาจารย์ผู้สอน

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6.) กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นหรือข้อเสนอแนะเพื่อปรับปรุงวิธีการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษและทำให้บรรยากาศในชั้นเรียนน่าสนใจมากขึ้น

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## Appendix J : Back translation of students' questionnaires

**Part 3 Opinions Toward Learning English**

Please answer the following questions.

- 1.) What do you feel about learning English in this classroom?
- 2.) Do you think learning in this classroom is interesting? Why is it interesting or not interesting?
- 3.) What activities do you like in learning this course? Why do you like them?
- 4.) What activities do you **not** like in learning this course? Why do you not like them?
- 5.) How do you feel about the lecturers' teaching styles?
- 6.) Please provide your opinions or suggestions for improving English learning methods and make the atmosphere in the classroom more interesting.



26 JUL 2012

## Appendix K : Ethics approval

### Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B Arts, Humanities & Law

Date: 11.06.2013

Investigators: Miss Siriwimon Na Chiangmai

Supervisors: Professor Chris Davison, Dr Paul Evans

School: School of Education

Re: The Relationship between English Teachers' Teaching Styles  
and Learners' Motivation in Thai Higher Education

Reference Number: 12 093

The Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B for the Arts, Humanities & Law is satisfied that this project is of minimal ethical impact and meets the requirements as set out in the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research\*. Having taken into account the advice of the Panel the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Research) has approved the project to proceed.

Your Head of School/Unit/Centre will be informed of this decision.

This approval is valid for 12 months from the date stated above.

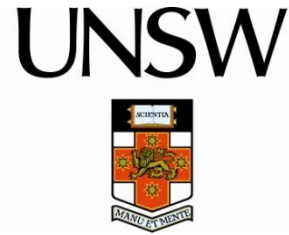
Yours sincerely



Associate Professor Anne Cossins  
Panel Convenor  
Human Research Ethics Advisory Panel B

Cc: Professor Chris Davison  
Head of School  
School of Education

\* <http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/>



School of Education

**Participant Information Statement**

**Project title: The Relationship between English Teachers' Teaching Styles and Learners' Motivation in Higher Education**

**Ethics approval number:**

Dear respondent,

My name is Siriwimon Na Chiangmai. I am a PhD student of the School of Education of the University of New South Wales (UNSW), Sydney, Australia. I am doing research under the supervision of Prof. Chris Davison and Dr. Paul Evans. This project has received ethics approval from HREA Panel B at the University of NSW.

In my research I am looking at Thai teachers' perceptions and experience in teaching English as a foreign language. This study will provide insights to concerning on the perceptions, problems, and teaching practices employed by Thai teachers.

You are invited to participate in this study because you are Thai lecturer who is teaching English course/s in a public university.

In this study, you will be asked to complete the questionnaire survey about your perception in English teaching. If you decide to participate, please follow the link below for further information, and to fill out the questionnaire (link <http://www.surveys.unsw.edu.au/survey/156666/6f68/>).



All information you provide will only be used for research and publication purposes. The anonymity of responses is guaranteed. Your consent is confirmed by the completion and return of this survey under the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Guidelines, section 1.9.

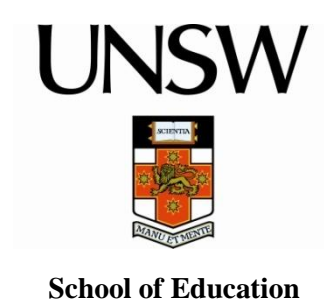
Thank you very much for your help.

Sincerely,

Siriwimon Na Chiangmai

Complaints may be directed to the Ethics Secretariat, The University of New South Wales, SYDNEY 2052 AUSTRALIA (phone 9385 4234, fax 9385 6648, email [ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au](mailto:ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be investigated promptly and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix M: Invitation letter to head of English department



**Dear Head of English Department,**

My name is Miss Siriwimon Na Chiangmai. I am a PhD candidate from school of Education of the University of New South Wales, Australia and I am conducting a study that aims to investigate Thai lecturers' perceptions and experiences regarding teaching English as a foreign language. It is expected that this study will provide a better understanding concerning the perceptions, problems, and teaching practices that are involved.

I am looking for participants who are Thai English lecturers in public universities to complete an online survey. The survey will ask questions about the perceptions of various teaching practices used in Thai English classrooms and should take about 20 minutes to complete.

I would be grateful if you would help me with the study by providing email addresses of your Thai English lecturers to me, or forwarding the attached Participant Information Statement which includes a link to the online survey to your English lecturers. They will be asked to complete the questionnaire online voluntarily. All information you provide will only be used for research and publication purposes. The anonymity of responses is guaranteed and no personally identifying information will be collected.

Best Regards,  
Siriwimon Na Chiangmai

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES | UNSW SYDNEY NSW 2052 AUSTRALIA  
s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au | (+61) 401901575 (Australia) | (+66) 895589083 (Thailand)  
SYDNEY | CANBERRA | AUSTRALIA



### **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM**

#### **The Relationship between English Teachers' Teaching Styles and Learners' Motivation in Thai Higher Education**

I (Miss Siriwimon Na Chiangmai, a PhD candidate from school of Education of the University of New South Wales, Australia) would like to invite you to participant in the study “The Relationship between English Teachers’ Teaching Styles and Learners’ Motivation in Higher Education”. I hope to learn from your perception and experience in teaching English as a foreign language in your classroom. You are selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a Thai lecturer who is teaching English course/s in a public university.

If you decide to participate, I will ask you to voluntarily take part in an interview. The purpose of the interview is to explore your insights, and experiences regarding your perception of autonomy and practices in teaching English as a foreign language. The interview will take approximately 60 minutes. It will take place at a time that is suitable for you. The questions will be about teaching practices in your classroom. With your consent, the interview will be recorded and transcribed for the purpose of research data collection. The recording is only for transcription purposes. I cannot and do not guarantee or promise that you will receive any benefits from this study.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission, except as required by law. If you give your permission by signing this document, I plan to publish the results in the forms of journal article and/or a thesis. In any publication, information will be

provided in such a way that you cannot be identified. No costs or remuneration will be incurred or offered to the participant of this research project.

Complaints may be directed to the Ethics Secretariat, The University of New South Wales, SYDNEY 2052 AUSTRALIA (phone 9385 4234, fax 9385 6648, email [ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au](mailto:ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be investigated promptly and you will be informed of the outcome.

At the completion of the study, a summary of the research findings will be sent to you via email.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with the University of New South Wales and any organisation. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

If you have any questions, please feel free to ask me. If you have any additional questions later, we (*Miss Siriwimon, Tel. (+61) 401901575 (in Australia) (+66) 895589083 (in Thailand), e-mail: [s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au](mailto:s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au), Prof. Chris Davison, Tel. (+61) + 61 2 9385 1987, e-mail: [c.davison@unsw.edu.au](mailto:c.davison@unsw.edu.au) and Dr. Paul Evans, Tel. (+ 61) 2 9385 6950, e-mail: [paul.evans@unsw.edu.au](mailto:paul.evans@unsw.edu.au) from School of Education, University of New South Wales*), will be happy to answer them.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.



**PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM**  
**(continued)**

The Relationship between English Teachers' Teaching Styles and Learners' Motivation  
in Thai Higher Education

☐

I consent to participate in the interview.

☐

I consent the interview being recorded.

**You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.**

.....  
Signature of Research Participant

.....  
Signature of Witness

.....  
(Please PRINT name)

.....  
(Please PRINT name)

.....  
Date

.....  
Nature of Witness

## REVOCATION OF CONSENT

The Relationship between English Teachers' Teaching Styles and Learners' Motivation  
in Thai Higher Education

I hereby wish to **WITHDRAW** my consent to participate in the research proposal  
described above and understand that such withdrawal **WILL NOT** jeopardise any treatment or  
my relationship with The University of New South Wales and other organisation.

.....  
Signature

.....  
Date

.....  
Please PRINT Name

The section for Revocation of Consent should be forwarded to (*Siriwimon email:*  
*s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au School of Education, Room 130 Goodsell Building the*  
*University of New South Wales, UNSW, Sydney NSW, 2052 Australia).*

UNSW



**School of Education**

Approval No (.....)

## **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM**

### **The Relationship between English Teachers' Teaching Styles and Learners' Motivation in Higher Education**

I (Miss Siriwimon Na Chiangmai, a PhD candidate from school of Education of the University of New South Wales, Australia) would like to invite you to participate in the study “The Relationship between English Teachers’ Teaching Styles and Learners’ Motivation in Higher Education”. I hope to learn from your perception and experience in learning English as a foreign language in your classroom. You are selected as a possible participant in this study because you are Thai student in the classroom which will be observed.

If you decide to participate, I will ask you to voluntarily take part in an observation. The purpose of the observation is to explore your feeling and action in learning English. The observation will be conducted twice in your teaching classroom. Each one of the sessions will last from 1.5 - 2 hours. I will set two video cameras in the front and back of the classroom on tripods. With your consent, the observation will be recorded on video and transcribed for the purpose of research data collection. The recording is only for transcription purposes. I cannot and do not guarantee or promise that you will receive any benefits from this study. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission, except as required by law.

If you give us your permission by signing this document, I plan to publish the results in the forms of journal article and/or a thesis. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you cannot be identified.

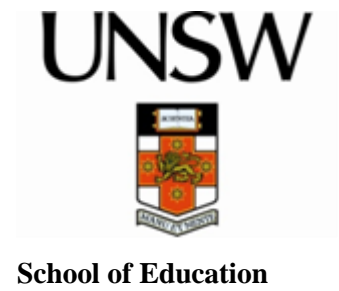
Complaints may be directed to the Ethics Secretariat, The University of New South Wales, SYDNEY 2052 AUSTRALIA (phone 9385 4234, fax 9385 6648, email [ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au](mailto:ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be investigated promptly and you will be informed of the outcome.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with the University of New South Wales and any organisation. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

If you have any questions, please feel free to ask me. If you have any additional questions later, we (*Miss Siriwimon, Tel. (+61) 401901575 (in Australia) (+66) 895589083 (in Thailand), e-mail: [s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au](mailto:s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au), Prof. Chris Davison, Tel. (+61) + 61 2 9385 1987, e-mail: [c.davison@unsw.edu.au](mailto:c.davison@unsw.edu.au) and Dr. Paul Evans, Tel. (+ 61) 2 9385 6950, e-mail: [paul.evans@unsw.edu.au](mailto:paul.evans@unsw.edu.au) from School of Education, University of New South Wales*), will be happy to answer them.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.





**PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM**  
**(continued)**

The Relationship between English Teachers' Teaching Styles and Learners' Motivation  
in Higher Education

☐ I consent to participate in the observation.

☐ I consent the observation being video recorded.

**You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.**

.....  
Signature of Research Participant

.....  
Signature of Witness

.....  
(Please PRINT name)

.....  
(Please PRINT name)

.....  
Date

.....  
Nature of Witness

## REVOCATION OF CONSENT

The Relationship between English Teachers' Teaching Styles and Learners' Motivation  
in Higher Education

I hereby wish to **WITHDRAW** my consent to participate in the research proposal described above and understand that such withdrawal **WILL NOT** jeopardise any treatment or my relationship with The University of New South Wales and other organisation.

.....  
Signature

.....  
Date

.....  
Please PRINT Name

The section for Revocation of Consent should be forwarded to (*Siriwimon email: s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au School of Education, Room 130 Goodsell Building the University of New South Wales, UNSW, Sydney NSW, 2052 Australia*).

UNSW



School of Education

Approval No (.....)

**ข้อมูลเบื้องต้นของผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยและหนังสือแสดงความยินยอมเข้าร่วมงานวิจัย**

โครงการวิจัยเรื่อง ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวิธีการสอนของครูภาษาอังกฤษที่มีต่อแรงจูงใจของนักเรียน  
ในระดับชั้นอุดมศึกษา

คุณได้รับเชิญเข้าร่วมงานวิจัย ในชื่อโครงการ “ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวิธีการสอนของครูภาษาอังกฤษที่มีต่อแรงจูงใจของนักเรียนในระดับชั้นอุดมศึกษา” ของผู้วิจัย นางสาวศิริวิมล ณ เชียงใหม่ นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยนิวเซาท์เวลส์ ออสเตรเลีย ผู้วิจัยหวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าจะได้รับข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับความคิดและประสบการณ์ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของท่านจากการวิจัยเชิงสังเกตการณ์ในห้องเรียนที่ท่านเรียนอยู่

หากท่านยินดีที่จะเข้าร่วมงานวิจัย ท่านจะเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการวิจัยเชิงสังเกตการณ์ในห้องเรียน ซึ่งมีจุดประสงค์เพื่อที่จะสำรวจความรู้สึกและพฤติกรรมในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของชั้นเรียน โดยการสังเกตการณ์จะถูกจัดขึ้นสองครั้ง ใช้เวลาประมาณหนึ่งชั่วโมงครึ่งถึงสองชั่วโมง ภายใต้การบันทึกข้อมูลโดยกล้องบันทึกภาพและเสียงด้านหน้าและด้านหลังห้องเรียน ซึ่งวิดีโอดังกล่าวจะถูกถอดความและใช้งานเฉพาะขั้นตอนการเก็บข้อมูลสำหรับงานวิจัยเท่านั้น ทั้งนี้ ผู้วิจัยไม่สามารถรับประกันหรือสัญญาได้ว่า ท่านจะได้รับประโยชน์จากงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้ ข้อมูลจากงานวิจัยจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับ และจะถูกเปิดเผยต่อเมื่อท่านอนุญาตเท่านั้น เว้นแต่ได้รับคำสั่งจากศาลให้มีการเปิดเผยข้อมูล

ภายใต้การลงชื่อแสดงความยินยอมเข้าร่วมวิจัย แม้ผู้วิจัยจะได้ตีพิมพ์งานวิจัยเป็นวารสารหรือวิทยานิพนธ์ไปแล้วนั้น ข้อมูลในเอกสารตีพิมพ์ต่างๆก็ไม่สามารถบ่งบอกถึงตัวตนของผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยได้

ท่านสามารถส่งคำแนะนำหรือติชมได้ที่สำนักงานเลขาธิการจริยธรรม (the Ethics Secretariat) ,  
มหาวิทยาลัยนิวเซาท์เวลส์ ซิดนีย์ รหัสไปรษณีย์ 2052 ออสเตรเลีย (University of New South Wales, Sydney  
2052 Australia) (โทร (+61) 9385 4234 แฟกซ์ (+61) 9385 6648 อีเมล [ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au](mailto:ethics.sec@unsw.edu.au))  
คำแนะนำหรือติชมของท่านจะได้รับการดำเนินการตรวจสอบโดยละเอียดและท่านจะได้รับการรายงานผลอย่างเป็นทางการ

การตัดสินใจของท่านในการเข้าร่วมหรือไม่เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยจะไม่มีผลกระทบใดๆต่อความสัมพันธ์ระหว่าง  
ท่านและมหาวิทยาลัยนิวเซาท์เวลส์หรือองค์กรอื่นๆ ภายใต้ความยินยอมเข้าร่วมการวิจัย ท่านสามารถที่จะยกเลิกการ  
ยินยอมและยุติการเข้าร่วมได้ทุกเมื่อซึ่งจะไม่มีผลกระทบใดๆต่อท่านทั้งสิ้น

ถ้าท่านมีคำถาม กรุณาถามผู้วิจัยได้ทันที ถ้าท่านมีคำถามเพิ่มเติม เรา (นางสาว ศิริวิมล, โทร (+61)  
401901575 (ออสเตรเลีย) (+66) 895589083 (ประเทศไทย), อีเมล:  
[s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au](mailto:s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au), อาจารย์คริส เดวิส , โทร. (+61) + 61 2 9385 1987, อีเมล:  
[c.davison@unsw.edu.au](mailto:c.davison@unsw.edu.au) และอาจารย์พอล อีฟเวนส์, โทร. (+ 61) 2 9385 6950, อีเมล:  
[paul.evans@unsw.edu.au](mailto:paul.evans@unsw.edu.au) จากคณะศึกษาศาสตร์ ของมหาวิทยาลัยนิวเซาท์เวลส์ ออสเตรเลีย) ยินดีที่จะตอบ  
คำถามท่าน

ท่านจะได้รับเอกสารฉบับนี้เก็บไว้



ข้อมูลเบื้องต้นของผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยและหนังสือแสดงความยินยอมเข้าร่วมงานวิจัย (ต่อ)

โครงการวิจัย เรื่อง ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวิธีการสอนของครูภาษาอังกฤษกับแรงจูงใจของนักเรียนใน  
ระดับชั้นอุดมศึกษา

☐

ฉันยินยอมที่จะเข้าร่วมการวิจัยเชิงสังเกตการณ์

☐

ฉันยินยอมที่จะเข้าร่วมการวิจัยเชิงสังเกตการณ์ภายใต้การบันทึกข้อมูล

ท่านตัดสินใจที่จะเข้าร่วมงานวิจัยหรือไม่ การลงชื่อถือว่า ท่านได้อ่านข้อมูลข้างต้น และยินยอมที่จะเข้าร่วม  
ในงานวิจัยครั้งนี้

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ลงชื่อผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัย

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ชื่อตัวบรรจง

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วันที่

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ลงชื่อพยาน

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ชื่อตัวบรรจง

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ความสัมพันธ์กับพยาน

### การเพิกถอนการยินยอม

โครงการวิจัย เรื่อง ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวิธีการสอนของครูภาษาอังกฤษกับแรงจูงใจของนักเรียนใน

ระดับชั้นอุดมศึกษา

ฉันต้องการที่จะยกเลิกการยินยอมในการเข้าร่วมงานวิจัยดังกล่าวและทราบว่า การยกเลิกจะไม่กระทบต่อความสัมพันธ์ของฉันที่มีต่อมหาวิทยาลัยนิวเซาท์เวลส์และองค์กรอื่นๆ

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ลงชื่อ

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วันที่

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ชื่อตัวบรรจง

ในส่วนของการยกเลิกการยินยอมเข้าร่วม กรุณาส่งมาที่ (นางสาวศิริวิมล อีเมล:

s.nachiangmai@student.unsw.edu.au คณะศึกษาศาสตร์, ห้อง 130 ดีกุกซ์เชลล์ มหาวิทยาลัยนิวเซาท์เวลส์ ซิดนีย์

รหัสไปรษณีย์ 2052 ออสเตรเลีย)(School of Education, Room 130 Goodsell Building, University of New South

Wales, Sydney, 2052 Australia)