A MODEL OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING,

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES, PROFICIENCY, GENDER, AND

EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT OF THAI UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of Master of Education Program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Department of Curriculum and Instruction

Faculty of Education

Chulalongkorn University

Academic Year 2014

โมเดลความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษา กลวิธีการเรียนภาษา ความสามารถทางภาษา เพศ และบริบททางการศึกษาของนักเรียนไทยระดับมัธยมศึกษาตอนปลาย

นายศิรวิชญ์ อภัยราช

Thesis Title	A MODEL OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING, LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES, PROFICIENCY, GENDER, AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT OF THAI UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS
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ศิรวิชญ์ อภัยราช : โมเดลความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษา กลวิธีการ เรียนภาษาความสามารถทางภาษา เพศ และบริบททางการศึกษาของนักเรียนไทยระดับ มัธยมศึกษาตอนปลาย (A MODEL OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING, LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES, PROFICIENCY, GENDER, AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT OF THAI UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: อ. ดร. จุฑารัตน์ วิบูลผล, 228 หน้า.

การวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษา 1) ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษา กลวิธีการเรียน ภาษา ความสามารถทางภาษา เพศ และบริบททางการศึกษาของนักเรียนไทยระดับมัธยมศึกษาตอน ปลาย และ 2) นำเสนอรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ของตัวแปรทั้งห้า โดยกลุ่มตัวอย่างประกอบด้วยนักเรียน ชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6 จำนวน 458 คน ในกรุงเทพมหานคร ปีการศึกษา 2556 โดยใช้แบบสอบถาม เป็นเครื่องมือในการเก็บข้อมูล การวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลประกอบด้วยสถิติบรรยาย และใช้สมการโครงสร้าง (SEM) เพื่อวิเคราะห์โมเดลความสัมพันธ์ของตัวแปรทั้งห้า ผลการวิจัยพบว่า นักเรียนไทยระดับ มัธยมศึกษาตอนปลายมีความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษาว่าคนบางคนมีความสามารถพิเศษในการ เรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ เชื่อว่าภาษาอังกฤษมีความยากระดับปานกลาง เชื่อในเรื่องความสำคัญของ วัฒนธรรมของเจ้าของภาษา การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ การมีสำเนียงที่ดีในการพูด และเชื่อว่าการพูด ภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีจะช่วยเพิ่มโอกาสในการได้งานที่ดีมากขึ้น มีการใช้กลวิธีการเรียนภาษาทุกกลุ่มใน ระดับปานกลาง กลุ่มตัวอย่างส่วนใหญ่มีความสามารถทางภาษาในระดับสูง เพศหญิงมีจำนวน มากกว่าเพศชาย สำหรับบริบททางการศึกษา โปรแกรมภาษาไทยใช้ภาษาไทยในการเรียนการสอน เป็นหลัก ส่วนโปรแกรมภาษาอังกฤษใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการเรียนการสอนเป็นหลัก ผลจากโมเดล สมการโครงสร้างแสดงผลของบริบททางการศึกษาที่มีต่อความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษา และผลของ ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษาที่มีต่อความสามารถทางภาษาที่มีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ โดยแสดงค่าสถิ ติวัดระดับความกลมกลืนดังนี้ ค่า CMIN/DF = 1.42, p = .012, ค่า CFI = .983, ค่า RMSEA = .031, ค่า GFI = .972, ค่า AGFI = .957 และค่า Hoelter = 417.

ภาควิชา	หลักสูตรและการสอน	ลายมือชื่อนิสิต ....
สาขาวิชา	การสอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็น	ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก ....
	ภาษาต่างประเทศ	
ปีการศึกษา	2557	

5583362727 : MAJOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

KEYWORDS: MODEL OF RELATIONSHIPS / BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING / LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES / PROFICIENCY / GENDER / EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

SIRAWIT APAIRACH: A MODEL OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING, LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES, PROFICIENCY, GENDER, AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT OF THAI UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS. ADVISOR: JUTARAT VIBULPHOL, Ph.D., 228 pp.

The present study aimed to 1) investigate beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students and 2) propose the model of relationships between the five variables. The participants were 458 twelfth grade students in Bangkok, academic year 2013. The data were collected by means of a questionnaire. The data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics and structural equation modeling (SEM) to analyze the model of relationships. Findings revealed that Thai upper secondary school students hold beliefs about language learning in terms of the special ability for language learning in some individuals. They viewed English as moderately difficult and emphasized the cultures of the English-speakers, vocabulary learning, and good accent. They also believed that having good speaking skills leads to better job opportunities. The use of language learning strategies was at the moderate level. In this study, most of the participants had high proficiency. There were more female than male students. And the two educational contexts in focus were regular programs using Thai as a medium of instruction and English programs using English. The structural equation model revealed the statistically significant direct effect of educational context on beliefs about language learning and the direct effect of beliefs about language learning on proficiency. The following goodness of fit was achieved: CMIN/DF = 1.42, p = .012, CFI = .983, RMSEA = .031, GFI = .972, AGFI = .957, and Hoelter = 417.

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Field of Study:	Teaching English as a Foreign Language	Advisor's Signature ....
Academic Year:	2014	

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Stevick (1980, p. 4) contended that "success depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistics analyses, and more on what goes inside and between the people in the classroom." Accordingly, the question raised here is, as a teacher, "How much do we know about our learners?" To shed light on such inquiry, the study on how people acquire language is a focal start. Researchers in second language acquisition have examined a number of personal variables and the extent to which they influence language learning. One of the factors that contributes to learning attainment is what learners hold in their cognition about the language they are learning. This influential variable is largely known as *learner beliefs* (Ellis, 2008; Lightbrown & Spada, 2006; Wenden, 1999) or *beliefs about language learning* (Horwitz, 1988).

Concerning the influential nature of beliefs, researchers and scholars view beliefs as a determinant of ones' learning behaviors. It has been claimed that learners who believe they have the capacity to achieve the outcome tend to approach such behavior (Gabillon, 2005). Mantle-Bromley (1995) also asserted that learners possessing positive beliefs about language learning tended to encourage positive behaviors. On the other hand, if ones failed to believe so, this, as a result, could obstruct learner attainment in the future (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). Beliefs, in other words, are found to have a certain degree of control over what learners do,

and that, accordingly, results in their performance. In Abraham and Vann's (1987) study, two learners held different kinds of beliefs. One believed in the value of grammar while the other favored communication and meaning. Their findings showed that the first participant scored better in TOEFL, and the latter participant had better spoken English test scores. Mori (1999)also revealed that students who believed in the ease of language learning obtained comparatively higher achievement. According to Park (1995), it was found that learners who believed they were confident to learn English and speak English with other people tended to be active English users and practiced out of the class. Findings from these studies shed light on how beliefs about language learning affect language learning outcomes which, according to Ellis (1994),is part of the whole learning processes with involvement of multiple factors such as learner strategies, proficiency, and other general factors.

Researchers, in consequence, have attempted to explore the influence of relationships between beliefs about language learning and other related variables such as language learning strategies, learner proficiency, gender, and educational context. One area of studies that researchers have been interested in is an investigation of relationship between beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies (Chang & Shen, 2010; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Wang, Spencer, & Xing, 2009; D. Yang, 1999). The relationship between the two variables were revealed in several studies. Wenden and Horwitz (as cited in Park, 1997), for example, asserted

that the link between beliefs about language learning and language learning

strategies was crucial. Taken into consideration learner's proficiency, many

researchers were also interested in the extent to which proficiency plays a role in

affecting beliefs about language learning (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Huang & Tsai, 2003;

Peacock, 1999) and language learning strategies (Lai, 2009; Park, 1997; Wharton,

2000). Regarding gender, studies have also investigated the relationship between

beliefs about language learning and gender (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Daif-Allah, 2012)

and the relationship between language learning strategies and gender (Salahshour,

Sharifi, & Salashour, 2013; Wharton, 2000). Apart from language learning strategies,

proficiency, and gender, another type of variable, educational context, also comes

into play. Barcelos (2003) suggested that if beliefs were merely perceived as a stable

factor, this could neglect other contextual influences on beliefs. Possible

relationships between beliefs about language learning and educational context

(Gabillon, 2005; ÖZ, 2007; Wesely, 2012) and how educational context also affects

language learning strategies (Daosodsai, 2010; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006) have been

studied. Furthermore, one of the contextual influences is in terms of the exposure to

different medium of instruction in different class programs, regular and English

programs, in the context of the present study.

In accordance with the aforementioned studies, it is thus far indispensable

that in order to understand more about learners. Learning about the complexity of

these relationships between these five variables is critical. Also, no study has

attempted to investigate these variables altogether. The present study, thus, aimed to bridge such a missing gap by investigating this complex relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context in Thai context.

In Thailand, English education has been debatable, several issues about learners such as the influence of the native language, passivity in learning, and lack of real-world communication may account for such dilemma (Wiriyachitra, 2002). A new educational milestone has shifted the focus to promote learner-centeredness, autonomy, and communicative use of English (Darasawang, 2007). The current national curriculum, the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551, requires all Thai students to study English from grade 1 to 12. With the goals of promoting positive attitudes towards English and enhancing the practical use of English in communication and careers, to use language to acquire new knowledge, to further their higher education, to understand a variety of cultures, and to present Thai culture to the world community (Ministry of Education, 2003). The findings from this study will contribute to the improvement of the English instruction in Thailand with the comprehensive view of the relationships between these five variables. English teachers will have better insights about their learners and how to take into account these variables when working with Thai learners.

Research Questions

    1. What are beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students?

    2. What is the model of relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students?

Research Objectives

    1. To investigate beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students.

    2. To propose the model of relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students.

Statement of Hypothesis

    Based on the previous literature, the relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context were identified. Interrelationships between beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies have been found (Chang & Shen, 2010; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Wang et al., 2009; D. Yang, 1999). Beliefs about language learning yield a direct relationship with proficiency (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Huang & Tsai, 2003;

Peacock, 1999), while proficiency predicts language learning strategies (Lai, 2009; Park,

1997; Wharton, 2000). Additionally, among the overall relationships, both gender and

educational context had a direct effect on beliefs about language learning and

language learning strategies (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Daif-Allah, 2012; Daosodsai, 2010;

Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; ÖZ, 2007; Salahshour et al., 2013; Wharton, 2000). Thus,

considering all the relationships as a model based on the literature, the present

study proposed the following hypothesized model to be tested (see Figure 1.1):
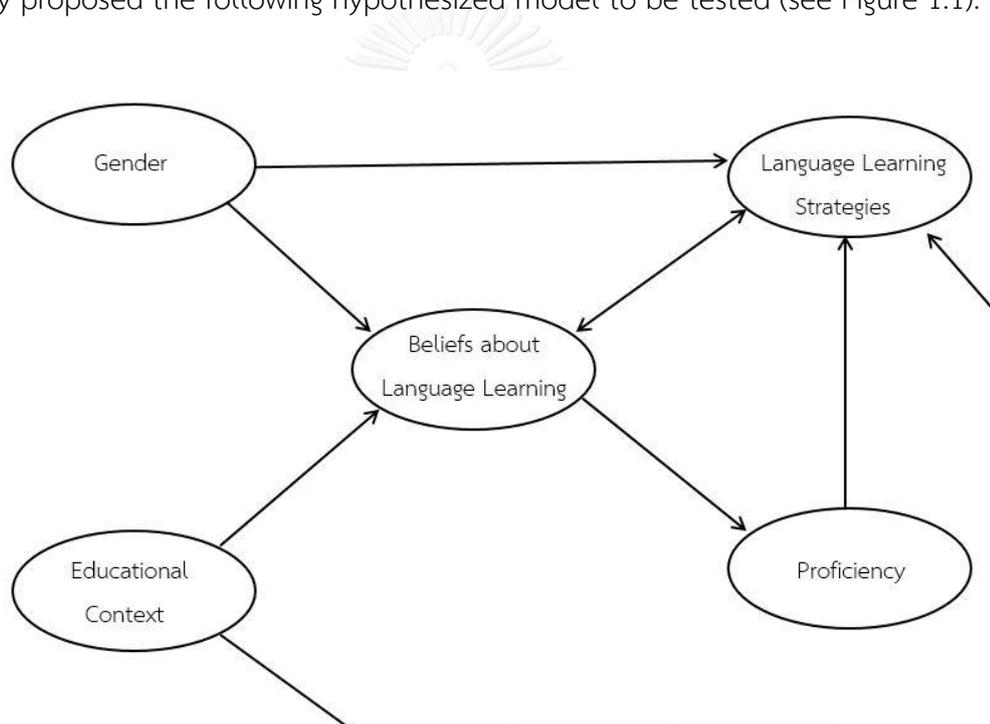
Figure 1.1. Research Hypothesized Model.

The present study also formulated the following hypothesis: The

hypothesized model is fitted with the empirical data based on the following

goodness of fit indices:

CMIN/DF	Should be less than 2
Root Mean Residual (RMR)	Should be close to 0
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA)	Should be close to 0
Hoelter	Should be higher than 200

Scope of the study

1. Population in the present study was Thai upper secondary school students in Bangkok Metropolis under Bangkok Secondary Educational Service Area 1 and 2.

2. The present study aimed to investigate the relationships between the five variables:

    2.1) Beliefs about Language Learning

    2.2) Language Learning Strategies

    2.3) Proficiency

    2.4) Gender

    2.5) Educational Context

Definition of Terms

      1. Beliefs about Language Learning refer to the preconceived notions about

language learning that the students hold in their cognition consisting of beliefs about

foreign language aptitude (the idea of gifted abilities in language learning and

characteristics of good language learners), beliefs about difficulty of language learning

(perceived difficulty of a foreign language and student's L2), beliefs about nature of

language learning (general ideas of language learning process), beliefs about learning

and communication strategies (strategies used directly in student's language

practices), and beliefs about motivations and expectations (encouragement and goals

in language learning). Beliefs about language learning in the present study are elicited

by using the Likert-scale items in the adapted version of Horwitz's Beliefs about

Language Learning Inventory.

      2. Language Learning Strategies refer to the techniques and plans that the

students employ to facilitate their language learning. The inventory studies 6 types of

language learning strategies including memory strategies (how students memorize

their language learning), cognitive strategies (students' deeper thinking process) and

compensation strategies (how students deal with their insufficient knowledge),

metacognitive strategies (how they plan their learning), affective strategies (how

students emotionally deal with learning difficulties), and social strategies

(interpersonal strategies I language learning) The students' language learning

strategies in this study are elicited by Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language

Learning or SILL.

3. **Proficiency** is the overall ability of English of the students. In this study,

the student's proficiency is represented by the grade from the English foundation

course in the previous semester used in the evaluation of the student's ability since

the outcomes of the English foundation courses at each level of all schools must

adhere to the indicators in the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551. Eight

possible grades are as follows (Bureau of Academic Affairs and Educational Standards,

2008):

4.00	means	Excellent
3.50	means	Very Good
3.00	means	Good
2.50	means	Moderately good
2.00	means	Moderate
1.50	means	Fair
1.00	means	Passed the minimum criteria
0.00	means	Below the criteria

In the present study, high proficiency students refer to students who obtain

the grades of 3.50 to 4.00, while low proficiency students refer to those who obtain

the grades of 1.00 to 1.50. Learner's proficiency is elicited in the demographic

information section of the questionnaire.

4. Educational Context in this study refers to the medium of instruction in the study program. In this study, there are two types of educational context: regular program and the English program. Regular program uses Thai language as the medium of instruction except English courses which may be conducted in English. On the other hand, the English program (EP) uses English as the only medium of instruction in every subject except in Thai and Social Study courses. Educational context is elicited in the demographic information section of the questionnaire.

5. Gender refers to the fact that people are male or female elicited in the demographic information section of the questionnaire.

6. Thai Upper Secondary School Students refer to Thai students who are in 12th grade in Bangkok, Thailand.
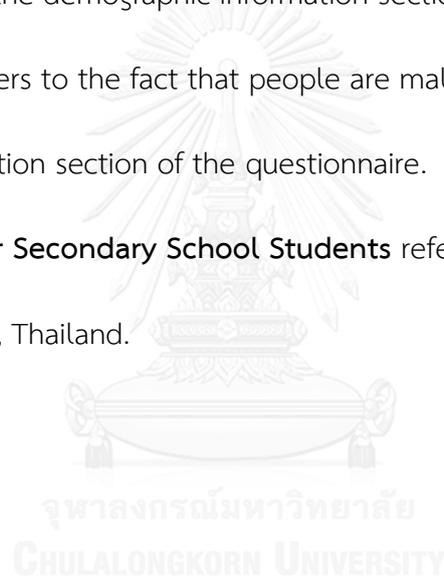
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews related theories, conceptual frameworks, characteristics, definitions, and assessment of beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies. Other variables including proficiency, gender, and educational context are also reviewed how they play their roles in research. Then, previous studies on the relationships among all the variables are presented in later section.

In second language acquisition, certain learner variables are related to other variables in individual learner differences. There are myriads of factors found to be influential in language learning as Ellis (1994) compiled several examples from three studies. Factors like age, sex, previous experience with language learning, and proficiency in the native language were found in Altman's study. In Skehan's, language aptitude, motivation, language learning strategies, for example, were identified. Lastly, there are socio-psychological factors (e.g. attitude) personality (e.g. self-esteem, extroversion, anxiety) and cognitive style (field independence/ dependence) in Larsen-Freeman and Long's study (Ellis, 1994). Furthermore, from Wenden's view of metacognitive knowledge, the firm relationship between metacognitive knowledge (beliefs about language learning) and the use of learning strategies was patently illustrated. Obviously, both variables greatly facilitate each other, and these are the reasons why the researcher of this paper attempts to determine and affirm the existence of the link. These are empirical evidence proving

that there is a great deal of variability among individual learner differences, and that

language teachers, educators, and researchers should study and view them as an

influential group of factors might be necessary and more effective.

To help with the investigation of individual learner differences, Ellis (1994),

importantly, proposed a framework portraying how these factors are related in

complicated ways (see Figure 2.2). The framework is divided into three sets of

categories: 1) individual learner differences, 2) learner strategies, and 3) language

learning outcomes. Regarding the first category, there are three subsets including

beliefs about language learning (their presumed conceptions about learning as

discussed in the earlier section), affective states (learner mental and emotional

differences), and general factors (diverse factors that are changeable at disparate

levels such as language aptitude, motivation and differ in terms of the extent to

which they are controlled such as age, learning style). Another category
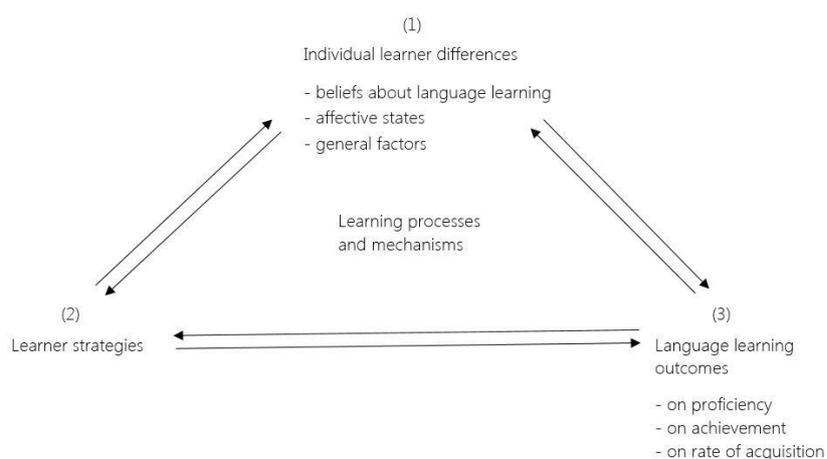
Figure 2.1. A Framework for Investigating Individual Learner Differences (Source: Ellis,

1994)

involves learner strategies, and this chapter provides a more detailed review of strategies learner use shortly after this section. The final category is language learning outcomes which Ellis contended that more research there has been insufficient research on the possible effects of these factors on individual learner differences.

Since the literature exceptionally illustrates the relationships between numerous learner variables and how they are connected to one another, the present study further explores the following variables: beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, and gender. Moreover, educational context is included.

Beliefs about Language Learning

Theoretically, the concept of beliefs about language learning emerges from the area of second language acquisition, embedding as one of the influential factors in individual differences. In social psychological perspective, beliefs are part of the study on cognition and are defined as one of the affective constructs (Dole & Sinatra, 1994). Beliefs about language learning deal with learners' cognition which forms certain kinds of attitudes or ideas towards the language they are learning and that this effect largely impacts learners' attainment in language learning.

Many researchers believe that every learner holds different notions shaped by their past experiences and environment. Based on the assumption Horwitz (1995) proposed that students come to class with a number of diverse ideas about

language learning, the study on beliefs about language learning have been underlined and considered one of the powerful factors in language learning.

In the area of second language acquisition, a lot of research has been conducted in order to investigate various factors. However, Horwitz (1988) claimed that beliefs about language learning have been inadequately scrutinized. Her claim was supported in later years as Wenden (1999) declared that learners' beliefs have long been *a neglected variable*. Researchers in this field like Benson, Nyikos and Oxford realize that learners always bring with them "a complex web of attitudes, experiences, expectations, beliefs, and learning strategies" (as cited in Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005, p. 4). Likewise, Vibulphol (2004) suggested the same concept that people hold "preconceived ideas" about a variety of matters and that these notions potentially affect their intelligibility of what they encounter. These assertions essentially underline the cruciality of more beliefs investigations.

Beliefs have been proved by some researchers that, aside from the benefits from their positive effects, they can also yield negative outcomes. While learners who possess certain kinds of beliefs tend to reach fruitful learning (Mantle-Bromley, 1995) and mediate their limited competence (Mori, 1999), Horwitz (1988) suggested that negative beliefs may weaken their language learning. A later study by Kim suggested that certain positive beliefs could possibly yield different impact. Beliefs in native English speakers' supremacy, for instance, basically nurture learners' motivation to take part in L2 interactions, while, in multilingual context, holding such

beliefs too extremely may give dissatisfied outcomes (as cited in J. S. Yang & Kim, 2011).

People hold certain kinds of beliefs about language learning differently, but the phenomenon seems common among learners. Horwitz, as one of the pioneering researchers in beliefs about language learning, suggested that providing that beliefs are considered as a common phenomenon, language teachers are deemed to acknowledge the existence of beliefs about language learning brought into classroom.

Definitions of beliefs about language learning

Based on previous research studies, no clear definitions of beliefs have been given. Researchers have only provided certain terms regarding different theories. Horwitz alternatively refers to beliefs as "notions," "preconceived notions," and "preconceived ideas" in her studies (1987, 1988). When talking about beliefs from another standpoint, some researchers are likely to refer to the concept of metacognitive knowledge, and the term *metacognitive knowledge* can be used interchangeably with beliefs (Wenden, 1998). The first type of knowledge is in linguistic theories. She explained that the *domain knowledge* of learners was a tool to acquire their first language and second language. By contrast, another kind of knowledge relied upon social psychological theories—*social knowledge*. Wenden elaborated that this kind of knowledge is shaped by external factors such as culture influencing learning environment. Lastly, learners' knowledge was based on cognitive

theories on which the focus was the process of learning, the nature of learning, and learners themselves. This includes *metacognitive knowledge* which, as mentioned earlier, can be regarded as learner beliefs. This idea was also supported by as they refer to metacognitive knowledge as a broader term of learners' beliefs. Furthermore, Livingston (1997) gave a concise explanation of this knowledge as "general knowledge" concerning a particular mechanism of how people learn and deal with information. Even though metacognitive knowledge and beliefs about language learning can be exchanged in terms of definitions, it should be noted that some distinctions between the two terms exist. Beliefs, which is an underlying term of metacognitive knowledge, is different in a way that they are "value-related and tend to be held more tenaciously" according to Alexander and Dochy and Wenden (as cited in Wenden, 1999, p. 436).

Apart from seeing beliefs as metacognitive knowledge, some researchers have suggested other ways of viewing the term. In Dole and Sinatra (1994), beliefs are constructed in social psychology, classifying the terms *cognition, knowledge, beliefs,* and *attitudes*. They mentioned that the term *cognition* is used generally in social psychological study, and the term, more particularly, can also be interpreted as *knowledge* (or *thought*s). However, they concluded that the term *knowledge* refers to information which is yet to be evaluated, while *beliefs,* are evaluations people used to justify certain information. Taking into consideration *beliefs* and *attitudes,* the two terms seem to be overlapping according to Dole and Sinatra. They clarified

that a group of beliefs constitutes our attitudes toward certain things. Social psychologists, therefore, view beliefs as a subset of attitudes. However, in their study, beliefs and attitudes were used interchangeably.

In brief, definitions of beliefs vary depending on specific theories or perspectives on which the researchers focus. However, these definitions do have a common feature in a way that they embed within human's cognition. After all, beliefs about language learning can be referred to what learners generally perceive about their language learning, including their own ability, how to learn a language, and how a language should be taught, for example. To be more systematic, based on Horwitz's inventory of beliefs about language learning (more details about the inventory are discussed in later section), learners' beliefs can be classified into five subcategories: 1) beliefs about foreign language aptitude, 2) beliefs about the difficulty of language learning, 3) beliefs about the nature of language learning, 4) beliefs about communication strategies, and 5) beliefs about motivations and expectations.

Characteristics of beliefs about language learning

Normally, learners form their assumptions which influence their learning. These perceptions are believed to be systematic based on to the following characteristics of beliefs about language learning (Wenden, 1998, p. 517):

Table 2.1

Flavell's Classifications of Metacognitive Knowledge in Wenden (1998)

Classifications	Meanings	Examples
1. Person knowledge	1.1) General knowledge learners have acquired about human factors that facilitate or inhibit learning	Age, language aptitude, motivation
	1.2) Specific knowledge learners have acquired about how the human factors apply in their experience	
	1.3) What learners believe about their effectiveness as learners in general	Self-efficacy beliefs Achievement beliefs
	1.4) Beliefs about their ability to achieve specific learning goals	
2. Task knowledge	2.1) What learners know about the purpose of a task and how it will serve their language learning needs	To improve writing skills, expand vocabulary, develop oral fluency
	2.2) Knowledge that is the outcome of a classification process that determines the nature of a particular task	Understanding of differences between learning to read and to write
	2.3) Information about task's demands	How to learn in general, how to deal with a particular task, and what required knowledge and skills are

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Classifications	Meanings	Examples
3. Strategic knowledge	3.1) General knowledge about what strategies are, why they are useful, and specific knowledge about when and how to use them	Strategies learners may actually use or think they use or should use

1) a part of a learner's store of acquired knowledge

2) relatively stable and statable

3) early developing

4) a system of related ideas

5) an abstract representation of a learner's experience.

Based on the literature, it was found that metacognitive knowledge was classified into three categories (see Table 2.1). This classification is initiated by Flavell (as cited in Wenden, 1998). Wenden also elaborated that metacognitive knowledge was categorized based on different focuses: learner (person knowledge), learning task (task knowledge), or process of leaning (strategic knowledge).

In brief, metacognitive knowledge is consistent in nature, but, over time, it can be altered. Learners may form the knowledge both intentionally and incidentally due to different factors they encounter in their learning. They can add and fix the existing beliefs or even form new ones. Therefore, learners' beliefs can be regarded as a changeable factor provided that a certain amount of time is spent. Moreover,

internal and external factors they have experienced in their learning also account for

the change.

　　Some other researchers suggested an alternative to analyze the

characteristics of beliefs about language learning. Benson and Lor (1999) proposed an

analytic framework they believed to help researchers in the field of SLA understand

more about learners' beliefs. There were three levels of analysis as follows:

conception, beliefs, and approach. Benson and Lor furthermore suggested that it is

very facilitative for researchers if *conception* is distinct from *belief*. *Belief*, like a

personal judgment, refers to "objects and processes" learners perceive to be true

while *conception* is used to describe such objects and processes. That is, learners are

in the level of conception when they describe certain "concepts" in their opinions.

The level of belief, on the other hand, is seen as their personal notions to judge

whether those "concepts" are right or wrong. They further stated that conceptions

of learning shape the notions at a comparatively more abstract level than beliefs. In

other words, beliefs can possibly be made manifest through data collected from

learners as it is less abstract, yet conceptions require deeper analysis. Both

conceptions and beliefs, however, can be considered as related and context-

sensitive (Benson & Lor, 1999), and these two terms can be understood at the level

of approach. Evidence of these levels of beliefs was also mentioned in Tudge's study

(as cited in Yang & Kim, 2011). It was suggested that in order that beliefs could

influence certain behaviors, such beliefs are required to be "internalized" to a

certain degree when beliefs can influence behaviors.

Interestingly, beliefs are also viewed as a developing, hierarchical process

interacting with different contextual influences (Gabillon, 2005). As presented in

figure 2.2, Gabillon shows that beliefs, as related to cultural and social aspects, are

formed as the earliest beliefs before learners encounter language learning. Beliefs at

this phase do not necessarily involve learner's target language. Then, when learners

start their schooling, general educational context comes into play and affects their
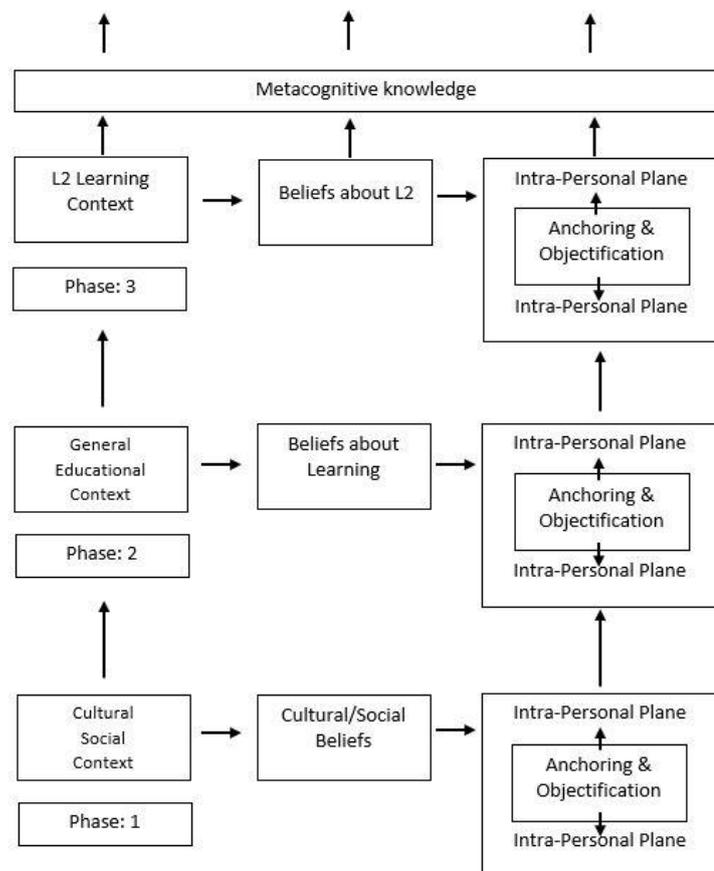
Figure 2.2. A categorization that views L2 learners' beliefs as a chronological /

hierarchical progression (Source: Gabillon, 2005, p 260)

beliefs about learning. After that, when learners expose directly to L2 learning, their previous beliefs and experiences create what is seen in the figure as *beliefs about L2*. Once beliefs are internalized, they finally develop to be metacognitive knowledge used to govern how learners deal with their learning tasks on a regular basis. Based on this particular way of looking at beliefs, it also sheds light on the fact that beliefs are context-sensitive (Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Dole & Sinatra, 1994; Negueruela-Azalora, 2011).

Given these proposed frameworks, researchers can strengthen their understanding of the nature of beliefs and how they technically function. It shows that not every notion inside learners' cognitions is considered beliefs. Rather, beliefs are specifically viewed as a separate entity which can be hold as facilitative or debilitative to language learning. Beliefs are also formed It is, therefore, very imperative to identify these beliefs, for the positive and negative kinds of beliefs are recognized and, for the latter, finally consolidated (Benson & Lor, 1999). Based on the overall nature of beliefs researchers have studied so far, we, as teachers, can make use of it as an essential source to effectively deal with a variety of beliefs that our students bring with them into class.

Assessment of beliefs about language learning

Researchers have employed various methodologies in order to examine what learners perceive about learning a language. According to Barcelos (2000), there are three different approaches to consider: normative, metacognitive, and contextual

approaches (see Table 2.2). *Normative approach* relies on the Likert-scale

questionnaire used to elicit the extent of beliefs about language learning reported by

respondents. The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory or BALLI is considered

the most popular instrument developed by Horwitz and is extensively employed in

this approach. Regarding *metacognitive approach*, learners' beliefs are examined

whether they hold certain kinds of beliefs and how much is the level of importance

of such beliefs. The data is collected by self-reports and semi-structured interviews

(Ellis, 2008). In regard to *contextual approach*, learners' contexts are the dominance.

Researchers view beliefs as a varied factor depending on particular contexts,

and the data is usually collected qualitatively. Barcelos (2000) also elaborated that

the core concept of contextual approach lies upon the combination of distinctive

methodologies employed altogether to identify beliefs in certain contexts.

For instance, alternative methods were implemented in certain studies. Ellis (2008)

investigated three studies which explored the beliefs of beginner learners learning

German conducted by Ellis himself in 2002, Japanese students' beliefs conducted by

Tanaka, and the beliefs of a Chinese migrant learner conducted by Zhong.

Furthermore, J. S. Yang and Kim (2011) qualitatively studied beliefs from a

sociocultural perspective, and their study yielded interesting findings. In one of his

studies on learners' beliefs, Ellis reported that there were some problems during the

process of data collection such as students may not report their actual beliefs or

report only

Table 2.2

Approaches to the Investigation of Language Learning Beliefs (Barcelos, 2000)

Approaches	Interpretations of Beliefs	Methodologies
Normative Approach	"…indicators of students' future behaviors as autonomous or good learners, in a cause-effect relationship" (Barcelos, 2000, p. 45) "preconceived notions, myths or misconceptions" (Ellis, 2008, p. 8)	Likert-scale questionnaires (e.g. the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory)
Metacognitive Approach	"metacognitive knowledge" (Barcelos, 2000, p. 56) "theories in action" (Wenden, 1999 as cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 8)	Semi-structured interviews and self-reports
Contextual Approach	Notions "embedded in students' contexts" (Barcelos, 2000, p. 60) and "varying according to context" (Ellis, 2008, p. 8)	Diaries, journals, narratives, metaphors and ethnography

those positive ones. In his study in 2002, Ellis, thus, proposed an approach called

metaphor analysis. He added that these conceptual metaphors can be used as a

tool to investigate how beliefs work (as cited in Ellis, 2008). Ellis investigated 6

learners by analyzing diaries of the participants. In their diaries, they were asked to

write about certain topics about the language they were learning such as what they

thought about it, how they reacted to the class, how they progressed, and so on.

According to the information from the diaries, Ellis classified them into five

metaphors: 1) learning as a journey, 2) learning as a puzzle, 3) learning as suffering, 4)

learning as a struggle, and 5) learning as work.

Another study in Ellis focused on is the study of beliefs about language

learning and language proficiency of Japanese learners in ESL context conducted by

Tanaka. The study explored 134 learners, employing various types of instruments

such as a Likert-scale questionnaire, an interview, and, like Ellis' study in 2002, a

diary. The results did not yield many changes in quantitative data, but in interview

and diaries. Participants, at first, reported being unsatisfied with their proficiency;

however, after 12 weeks, their beliefs changed. They had positive attitude towards

grammar. Also, they reported that being in an ESL context did not increase

proficiency; learning English required a lot of time; and formal education was not

enough in studying English. The last study that Ellis mentioned was a case study

researched by Zhong. Only one Chinese participant joined the study. Similarly, the

study investigated the development of beliefs and proficiency like what Tanaka's

study explored. However, Zhong relied on qualitative method. He employed two

interviews at the beginning and at the end of the participant's study. The findings

showed that the beliefs about self-efficacy had tremendously changed. Also, the

participant emphasized more on working collaboratively rather than rote learning.

The study, furthermore, revealed important issue on proficiency as it was found in

Ellis (2008) that the more emphasis placed on communication, the more fluency the

participant acquires. The increase in fluency, in turn, also reduced participant's

accuracy.

Since there have been a number of quantitative studies on beliefs about

language learning, J. S. Yang and Kim (2011) were interested in studying beliefs from

an alternative viewpoint which beliefs can evolve from social interactions. Using a

case study of two learners, their changes in beliefs were investigated based on their

study-abroad experience. Research instruments used to collect data were language

learning autobiographies, journal entries, interviews before and after studying abroad,

and stimulated recall task. Findings showed that beliefs were continually changed

due to their L2 goals and social interaction. Moreover, J. S. Yang and Kim found that

changes of beliefs can be considered as a remedial action when learners encounter

different learning environment. The study emphasized the internalization degree of

beliefs, suggesting that only internalized beliefs could cause a remediation process

which links L2 learners and their learning, while less-internalized beliefs were not so

comparatively dominant that they could affect L2 learning.

The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

Since the present study aims to elicit beliefs about language learning mainly through a Likert-scale questionnaire, Horwitz's Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) is then discussed in details, particularly in terms of the development of the BALLI, the nature of the BALLI and two different versions of the BALLI. Consequently, related studies are reviewed, and significant findings are acknowledged in the next section.

By means of questionnaires, there is an instrument extensively used in a number of studies, namely the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory or BALLI which was developed by Professor Elaine K. Horwitz. Firstly, according to Horwitz (1995), the BALLI was developed to be used with teachers' beliefs about several topics in language learning. The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory is, initially, a 27 items of Likert-scale questionnaire consisting of four aspects of beliefs: 1) foreign language aptitude, 2) difficulty of language learning; 3) the nature of language learning, and 4) language learning strategies. Later, the BALLI becomes a 34-item questionnaire with five categories: 1) foreign language aptitude, 2) difficulty of language learning, 3) the nature of language learning, 4) learning and communication strategies, and 5) motivations and expectations.

As Horwitz (1988, 1995) suggested, there were a lot of processes involved in developing the inventory and the development of BALLI was based on different individuals such as foreign language and second language learners and teachers with

different cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, suggestions from teacher educators

were also collected in the process of development. To examine the opinions of the

participants, they had to report how they think about language learning, how other

people think about language learning, and, for teachers, how their students think

about language learning. In developing this inventory, Horwitz reported that items in

BALLI were adapted in regard to participants' own words for the sake of better

understanding. After collecting and analyzing all the items, BALLI was piloted in order

to certify the validity by distributing the questionnaire to 150 first-year students

studying a foreign language and fifty intensive students of English at her university.

Regarding two different groups of learners (native and ESL learners), two

versions of BALLI were developed in order to suit such variety. It was, moreover,

suggested that BALLI does not yield right or wrong answer but rather illustrates the

degree to which students hold certain beliefs. Thus, the main purpose of BALLI is to

investigate the extent to which certain types of beliefs are held in learners. The first

version of BALLI is for native students in America using standard English. On the other

hand, the other version was created for ESL learners using easier type of English.

Horwitz (1988) concluded in her study that the Beliefs about Language Learning

Inventory (BALLI) has been regarded as a useful instrument to capture and contrast

certain beliefs with others types of beliefs.

Recently, Horwitz (2012) has developed a new version of BALLI (ESL version

2.0). Excluding one item from the old BALLI, 33 items were taken and partially

revised. Therefore, there are 11 new items added, so it becomes a 44-item questionnaire. However, BALLI 2.0 does not include the five categories of beliefs as the previous versions (Poza, 2013), but the underlying constructs of beliefs which is based on the 33 items taken from the previous version of BALLI still remain.

The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory has been considered a very effective tool to elicit a common trend of beliefs about language learning across different groups of students (Horwitz, 1988). Some studies, furthermore, have affirmed the reliability of BALLI and its use across different context (Jones & Gardner, 2009; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006). Therefore, many researchers still rely on a questionnaire to capture beliefs across different learners, their target languages, and contexts. Furthermore, data from the BALLI can be used as primary information which leads to in-depth insights by means of other follow-up qualitative methodologies.

As the normative approach, which examines beliefs in a wider perspective, seems to be the most popular way of researching beliefs, certain limitations of employing questionnaires, however, have been noted in the literature. According to , participants may misinterpret the items in the questionnaire, and some other beliefs that learners hold might be different from what is presented in the list of items. Strong and common criticism lies upon the other aspects of data which questionnaires are limited to elicit such information (the origin or causes of those beliefs, for example).

The following studies employed the Beliefs about Language Learning

Inventory (BALLI) as a primary research instrument in order to explore learners'

beliefs in various backgrounds and contexts (Horwitz, 1988; Jones & Gardner, 2009).

One of Horwitz's pioneering studies on beliefs about language learning examined the

beliefs of students studying German, French, and Spanish. The results showed that

all the three groups reported having similar beliefs, and there was remarkable

consistency of beliefs across different language groups. Comparing between Thailand

and Japan, Jones and Gardner (2009) examined the similarities and differences

between Thai and Japanese learners' beliefs about language learning, and the

patterns of responses among the groups. Findings from the BALLI, in general, yielded

a small range of responses of the six scales. The most different answers were found

between Japanese group and the other two groups of Thai learners. Importantly,

findings of this study suggested that beliefs about language learning were quite

context-specific due to the differences between the Japanese and Thai groups.

Moreover, using the BALLI research on beliefs has been studied in regard to

the cultural differences (Fujiwara, 2011; Horwitz, 1999). In Horwitz (1999), several

studies investigating learners' beliefs who learned French, Spanish, German, and

Japanese, university teachers teaching French, and students from Korean, Taiwanese

and Turkish studying English as a foreign language were considered. According to the

findings from the study, Horwitz determined that it is likely untimely to make a clear-

cut decision that beliefs about language learning are distinct based on cultural

differences. Next, the study by Fujiwara (2011) attempted to examine the cultural differences in beliefs of Thai EFL university students. Through factor analysis, a structure of five factors emerged. Closely similar to Horwitz's BALLI, the factors were 1) learning and communication strategies, 2) important aspects of language learning, 3) expectations and difficulty of learning English, 4) nature and aptitude of language learning, and difficulty and ability of language learning. It showed that Thai and Taiwanese learners hold similar types of beliefs, and this might be caused by similar contexts of language learning and their past experiences.

Apart from beliefs about language learning, the present study aims to investigate the other four variables including language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, educational context and how these factors relate to beliefs and among themselves. The following section covers each variables and important findings of studies which investigated the relationships among the overall variables.

Language Learning Strategies

Like beliefs about language learning, strategies in language learning emerge from the concept of individual learner differences in second language acquisition which, as O'Malley and Chamot (1990) suggested, attempts to indicate good language learners' characteristics. Therefore, researchers have long been interested in studying about strategies in order to describe, identify, and, if possible, classify learning strategies. It is believed that if learners realize what learning strategies they are using, how effective strategies are in each task, and how they can apply strategies to

overcome learning difficulties and achieve their goals in language learning, learners will have these facilitative techniques to help attain their objectives in the long run, paving the way for learning autonomy.

Definitions of language learning strategies

The word *strategies* broadly covers its two specific counterparts *learning strategies* and *language learning strategies*. Brown (2006, p. 312) metaphorically viewed strategies as "specific attack that we make on a given problem, and that varies considerably within each individual". As a tool to facilitate unfamiliar learning content, learning strategies are described to be "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 1). Looking at the aspect of learning objectives, Chamot (2004) and Anderson (2005) depict learning strategies as ideas and actions in conscious level initiated by learners in order to succeed in their learning goals. In Oxford (1989), she compares the term *learning strategies* and *language learning strategies*. Learning strategies, as Rigney (as cited in Oxford, 1989, p. 235) suggests, are "operations" learner employ to facilitate their language learning and repertoires, or to recover the information. Oxford (1989, p. 235) herself gave a definition of the term *language learning strategies* similar to those previously mentioned as "behaviors or actions" used to improve learning to become attainable, autonomous, and delightful.

Macaro (2006, p. 324), however, notes controversy over the various definitions

of strategies that "the semantic-equivalence dilemma, with words like *strategy,*

operation, routine, process, procedure, action, tactic, technique, plan, and *step...*"

are all compatible to be used. Thus, he proposes a framework that helps describe

groups of learning strategies with other interactional components instead of merely

giving definitions.

After all, language learning strategies, in a broad sense, are defined as learning

strategies as specific techniques or methods used to approach learning goals and

overcome different learning tasks. It is also noted that learners possess certain

degree of awareness while employing learning strategies.

Characteristics of language learning strategies

To define the nature or characteristics of language learning strategies, there is

myriad of ways to follow. First of all, the distinctions between process and strategies

should be identified. The present study also discusses the concept of declarative

and procedural knowledge in order to understand characteristics of strategies more.

In addition, researchers may describe language learning strategies through the aspects

of strategies nature (e.g. observable and unobservable types of strategies). In terms

of observability, Anderson (2005) pointed out that certain types of strategies can be

easily noticed (e.g. note taking), while some strategies are unobservable such as

referring to the previous knowledge about a topic before reading a passage. Oxford

(1990) indicated that it is still problematic for teachers to observe the use of these particular strategies of their students.

Sometimes, learning strategies are characterized through learners' use (e.g. why successful or more proficient learners use certain kinds of learning strategies while less successful learners tend to use some others). Successful and less successful learners are usually studied in terms of how they use strategies. Anderson (2005) revealed that many researchers found that less successful learners are likely to use a limited set of strategies repeatedly, and that results in unproductive learning progress. They explain that these learners are unaware of other types of strategies which can be useful to them. On the other hand, successful learners "have a wider repertoire of strategies" and that effectively facilitates their learning. Despite the distinctive ways of describing the characteristics of learning strategies, they all attempt to help understand more about how learning strategies work and facilitate language learning.

Theoretically, when talking about the degree of consciousness with the use of language learning strategies, researchers usually distinguish *strategies* from the term *process*. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) stated that strategy advocates deliberate actions students used to approach their objectives. Cohen (as cited inHsiao & Oxford, 2002) asserted that when learners no longer control their strategies and use them unconsciously, it turns to be *process*. However, Oxford (1990) suggested it is somehow debatable in terms of the consciousness of strategies because strategies

can also be changed over time and finally become automatic, being unconscious. In

order to understand more about the characteristics of language learning strategies,

cognitive theory in second language acquisition should be mentioned. Faerch and

Kasper (as cited in O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) pointed out the differences between

declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. They suggested that declarative

knowledge, which is static, is the knowledge of linguistic rules and communication

activated by procedural knowledge, which is active. Importantly, O'Malley and
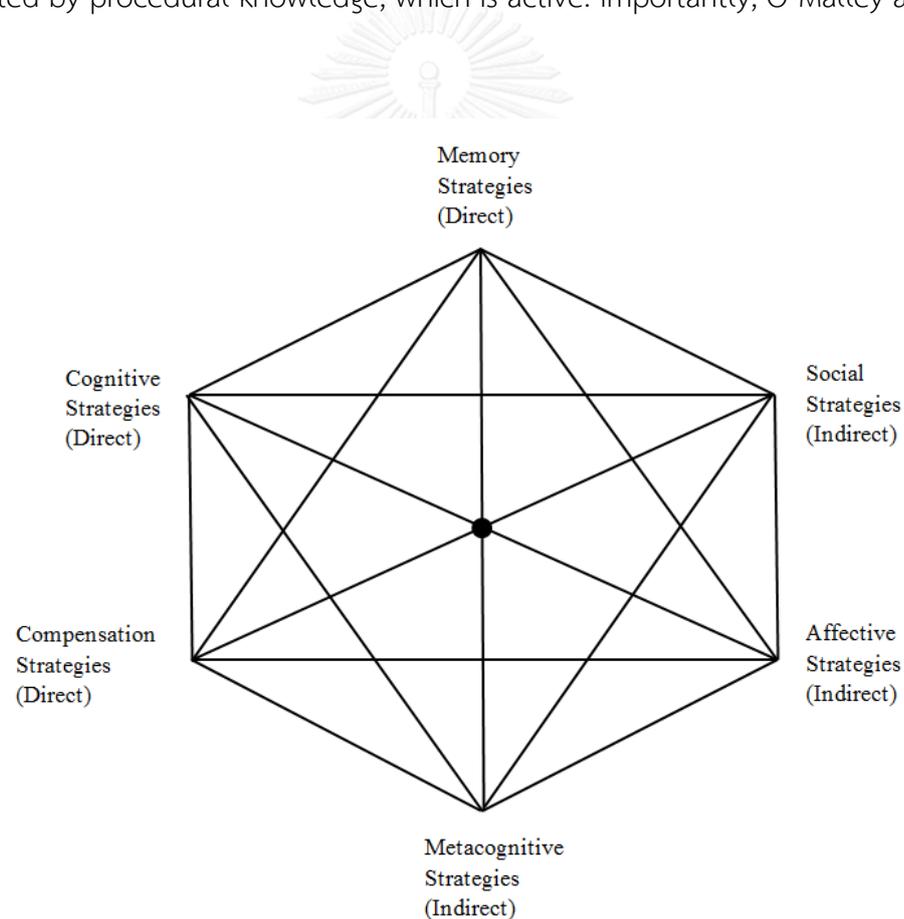
Figure 2.3. Interrelationships between Direct and Indirect Strategies and Among the

Six Strategy Groups. (Source: Oxford, 1990, p. 15)

Chamot concluded that declarative knowledge works as recently discovered strategies, but procedural knowledge operates as frequently used strategies. Researchers have proposed important frameworks of language learning strategies, and the most popular framework of strategies has been developed by Rebecca L. Oxford, proposing six categories of strategies which are presented in her well-known self-report questionnaire. Among the six categories, she classifies strategies into two main groups: direct strategies and indirect strategies. Figure 2.3 illustrates the six types of strategies and how they relate to one another.

1. Memory strategies
- A. Creating mental linkages
- B. Applying images and sounds
- C. Reviewing well
- D. Employing action

2. Cognitive strategies
- A. Practicing
- B. Receiving and sending messages
- C. Analyzing and reasoning
- D. Creating structure for input and output

3. Compensation strategies
- A. Guessing intelligently
- B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing
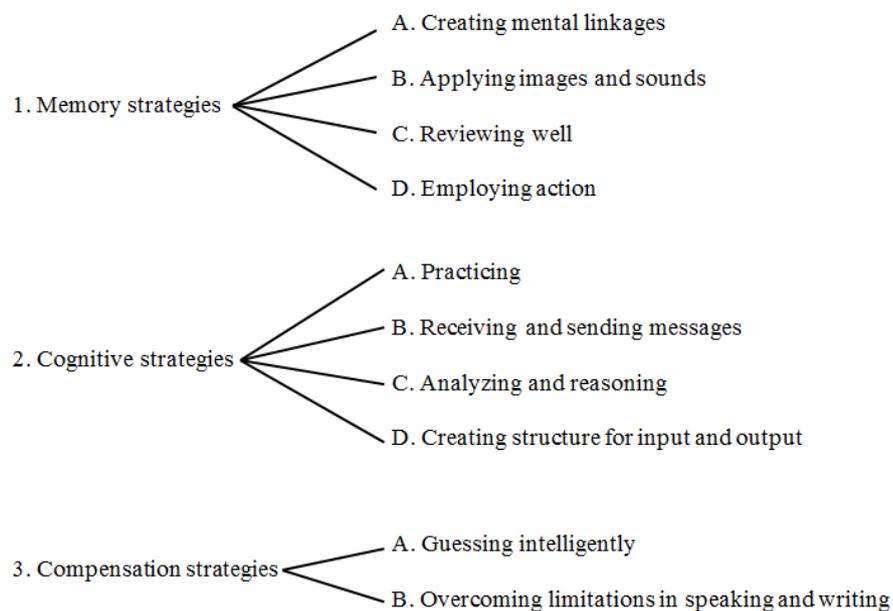
Figure 2.4. Diagram of the Direct Strategies (Source: Oxford, 1990, p. 38)
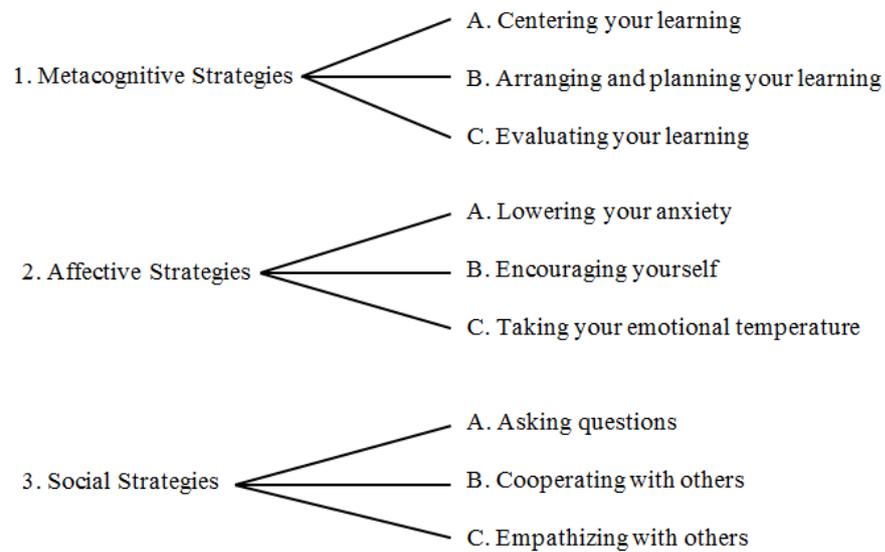
Figure 2.5. Diagram of the Indirect Strategies (Source: Oxford, 1990, p. 152)

Based on the figure, Oxford indicated that both direct (i.e. memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies) strategies as shown in figure 2.4 and indirect strategies (i.e. metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies) as shown in figure 2.5 support one another. Furthermore, each strategy group connects with the others. Oxford gave a definition of direct strategies as strategies that concern the use of L2 in a direct way, and they require cognitive processing to operate.

Despite having systematic framework of language learning strategies, there still are criticisms of strategy research. Macaro (2006) argued that some issues are still unclear and questionable. For instance, as he summarized, what are actually learner strategies? Do they include knowledge, intention, or action? Are strategies always facilitative? The vague definitions of strategies still exist as well as the unclear

relationship between strategies, skills, and processes. Therefore, Macaro has

proposed a new theoretical framework (see Figure 2.6) based on cognitive

psychology and information processing, providing a relationship with other learning

factors. He also claimed that the "three underlying propositions to strategy features"

should be considered. Firstly, strategies should be described in regard to goals,

situations, and intellectual actions. Strategies, secondly, are considered as a natural

tool of conscious cognitive processing; moreover, the effective use of strategies

depends on how strategies are employed and combined in learning tasks and

processes. Thirdly, strategies must be differentiated from subconscious activity,

processes, skills, learning plans, and learning styles (Macaro, 2006).
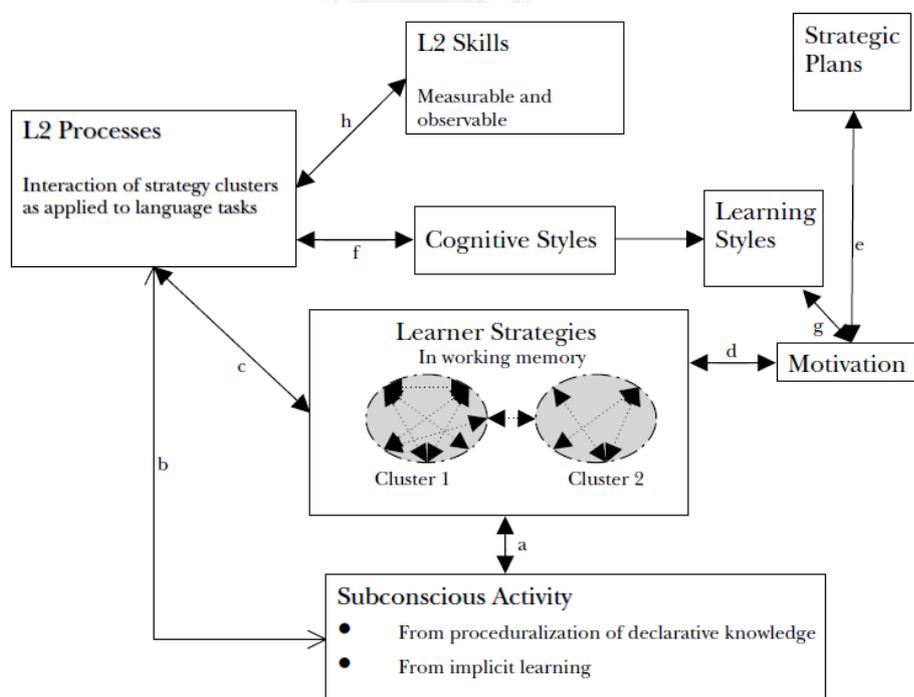
Figure 2.6. A Cognitive Framework for Learner Strategies (Source: Macaro, 2006,

p. 326)

As Macaro suggested, the proposed framework aims to clarify the aforementioned problems in strategy research. The framework consists of a variety of components which interact with learner strategy. Macaro claimed that a strategy functions in working memory and viewed strategies as "integral components" of the processing, not as "shortcuts". He illustrated that strategies work in clusters and, when interacted with tasks, they turn into L2 processes. The frequency of strategies and successful learners does not connect to each other anymore. Rather, how they organize the available strategies is taken into consideration.

After all, many researchers have attempted to define, investigate, and support language learning strategies in many different ways. Strategies are classified into two types (direct and indirect strategies) and six subgroups (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies). Moreover, the literature shows that in order to see strategies from a clearer perspective, the interaction between strategies and other domains need to be considered. Next, the chapter discussed how language learning strategies can be measured and by what instruments.

Assessment of Language Learning Strategies

To assess language learning strategies, there is a wide range of assessment types which offer different advantages as well as disadvantages served in various purposes of researchers. Oxford (1996) provided several types of strategy assessment, their use and limitations. As shown in Table 2.3, certain types of assessment are

Table 2.3

Comparisons of Strategy-Assessment Types (Source: Oxford, 1996, p. 39-40)

Type of Assessment	Appropriate Use	Limitations of Use
Strategy questionnaire	Identify "typical" strategies used by an individual; can be aggregated into group results; wide array of strategies can be measured by questionnaires	Not useful for identifying specific strategies on a given language task at a given time
Observations	Identify strategies that are readily observable for specific tasks	Not useful for unobservable strategies (e.g., reasoning, analyzing, mental self-talk) or for identifying "typical" strategies
Interviews	Identify strategies used on specific tasks over a given time period or more "typically" used strategies; usually more oriented toward task-specific rather than "typical" strategies of an individual; depends on how interview questions are asked	Usually less useful for identifying "typical" strategies because of how interviews are conducted, but could be used for either task-specific or "typical" strategies
Dialogue journals, diaries	Identify strategies used on specific tasks over a given time period	Less useful for identifying "typical" strategies used more generally
Recollective narratives (language learning histories)	Identify "typical" strategies used in specific settings in the past	Not intended for current strategies; depends on memory of learner
Think-aloud protocols	Identify in-depth the strategies used in a given, ongoing task	Not useful for identifying "typical" strategies used more generally
Strategy checklists	Identify strategies used on a just-completed task	Not useful for identifying "typical" strategies used more generally

more appropriate to investigate the use of language learning strategies in general (e.g. questionnaire), while some other types of assessment are more compatible when looking at strategies used in specific tasks (e.g. observations, interviews, think-aloud protocols.).

In the present study, the use language learning strategies was investigated by means of strategy questionnaire, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), which is presented in the next section.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Language learning strategies can be assessed in multiple ways, using different elicitation techniques. Some of them are observations, interviews, "think-aloud" procedures, note-taking, diaries or journals, and self-report surveys (Oxford, 1990). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) suggested that the main objective of data collection is to investigate how certain strategies are used in certain tasks. To capture the broad range of strategies, questionnaires and guided interviews are effective tools to elicit strategies in this sense. Questionnaires are also regarded as the most frequent and efficient method (Chamot, 2004). This section reviews the most frequently employed questionnaire, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning or SILL.

Rebecca L. Oxford first developed an instrument used to elicit the frequency of strategies at the Defense Institute Foreign Language Center in California. This well-known instrument is called SILL or Strategy Inventory for Language Learning which is a five Likert-scale questionnaire. Two versions of SILL were developed in order to

serve two different groups of learners. The first version is the 80-item SILL for native speakers of English and the other 50-item version is for ESL/EFL learners. In the literature of strategy studies, SILL has been used by a number of studies across populations and contexts. Oxford (1996, p. 30) claimed that SILL is considered as the only inventory that its reliability and validity has been examined by means of different methods. The SILL has also been translated into many different languages such as Chinese, French, German, Korean, Portuguese, Spanish, and Thai.

Strategy categories in SILL are based on Oxford's framework, consisting of six subcategories as follows: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The scale of SILL ranges from never or almost never true of me (1), generally not true of me (2), somewhat true of me (3), generally true of me (4), and always or almost always true of me (5).

Next, the chapter reviews another two learner variables, including proficiency and gender with their roles in language learning research. Furthermore, the role of educational context and how it is related to language learning and the aforesaid learner variables are presented.

Proficiency

Proficiency is one of the learner variables that plays an important role in influencing language learning. The term *proficiency*, according to Bachman, Harley, Cummins, Swain, and Allen (as cited in Tremblay, 2011), can be interpreted as "...an

index of the comprehension and production abilities that L2 learners develop across

linguistic domains...and modalities...to communicate" (p. 340). Given such

interpretation, this variable is likely to be viewed as a range of levels because it is

usually grouped into different degrees. Brown (2000) mentioned that proficiency

levels are often defined by three terms: *beginning, intermediate*, and *advanced* with

different interpretations. To define the levels of proficiency, a widely accepted

proficiency standard, ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, initiated by the American Council

on the Teaching of Foreign Languages is suggested by Brown to be taken into

consideration. Based on the suggested standard, proficiency are divided into five

different levels with unique descriptions. As presented in Table 2.4, the five major

levels with the overall descriptions of proficiency are illustrated. The guidelines, in

fact, elaborate three sub-levels which are high, mid, low applied to *novice*,

intermediate, and *advanced* levels. Brown further explains that despite the fact that

the criteria above do not correspond to curriculum assessment in particular, they can

possibly be helpful to curriculum development and improvement.

Table 2.4

ACTFL Proficiency Levels and Descriptions

Levels	Description
Distinguished	Can reflect on a wide range of global issues and highly abstract concepts, use persuasive hypothetical discourse, and tailor language to a variety of audiences
Superior	Can support opinion, hypothesize, discuss topics concretely and abstractly, and handle a linguistically unfamiliar situation
Advanced	Can narrate and describe in all major time frames and handle a situation with a complication
Intermediate	Can create with language, ask and answer simple questions on familiar topics, and handle a simple situation or transaction
Novice	Can communicate with formulaic and rote utterances, lists, and phrases

Note: from the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (2012)

Apart from defining proficiency, identifying and justifying how it is evaluated is also crucial. In SLA research, proficiency assessment is found to be varied. Tremblay (2011) complied over a hundred studies during 2000 to 2008 in order to survey the methods used for assessing learner proficiency, and a number of methods were identified. In regard to Tremblay's findings, proficiency assessment methods can be differentiated between independent test and no independent test. Independent test includes 1) standardized proficiency or placement tests, 2) cloze test or C-test, and 3) oral interview or accent ratings. On the other hand, no independent test consists of 1) classroom level or years of instruction, existing proficiency scores, length of

residence in an ESL context, and 4) self-ratings. Still, Tremblay (2011) suggests that

uniformity of selecting proficiency assessment should be established across research

studies which examine the same L2.

In regard to the context of the present study, learner grades from their

English core course at school are the focus. These existing scores are evaluated by

particular criteria stipulated by the Bureau of Academic Affairs and Educational

Standards (2008). According to the Basic Education Core Curriculum B.E. 2551, there

are four strands in foreign language learning as follows:

Language for Communication: use of foreign languages for 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

Language and Culture: use of foreign languages harmonious with culture of

native speakers; relationships, similarities and differences between languages

and cultures of native speakers; languages and cultures of native speakers and

Thai culture; and appropriate application

Language and Relationship with Other Learning Areas: use of foreign

languages to link knowledge with other learning areas, forming the basis for

further development, seeking knowledge and broadening learners' world

views

Language and relationship with Community and the World: use of foreign languages in various situations, both in the classroom and the outside community and the global society, forming a basic tool for further education, livelihood and exchange of learning with the global society

Furthermore, in each strand, there are certain standards with indicators specifying student's language performance they need to achieve (see Appendix A).

The following criteria is used for evaluating students in secondary school level: 1) Students must attend at least 80% of the studying time of each subject. 2) All students' learning indicators must be evaluated and met the school's criteria. 3) All subjects must be graded. 4) Students must be evaluated and passed the school's criteria for reading, critical thinking, writing, desired characteristics, and developmental activities.

In terms of grading, the minimum criterion for passing each subject is set at 50%, and according to the Bureau of Academic Affairs and Educational Standards (2008), there are eight possible levels of grading as shown in Table 2.5.

As to the previously presented framework about individual learner differences investigation by Ellis (1994), proficiency is also found to relate with other learner variables.

Table 2.5.

The Grading System in Upper Secondary School Level

Grades	Interpretation	Percentage of Score
4	Excellent	80 - 100
3.5	Very Good	75 – 79
3	Good	70 – 75
2.5	Moderately Good	65 – 69
2	Moderate	60 – 64
1.5	Fair	55 – 59
1	Passed the minimum criteria	50 – 54
0	Below the criteria	0 - 49

Note: From Bureau of Academic Affairs and Educational Standards (2008)

As hypothesized in the present study, beliefs about language learning as well as language learning strategies are connected to learner proficiency. Studies about the relationships between proficiency and beliefs and proficiency and language learning strategies are reviewed in the later section.

Gender

Gender is a learner variable that cannot be manipulated, yet it has been proved to yield possible influences on particular aspects of language learning. There is a clear distinction between the terms "gender" and "sex" in the literature. Ellis (1994) pointed out that the term "sex" carries a biological meaning, whereas the

concept of male and female in the social construction characterizes the term

"gender" which is often preferable among sociolinguists.

The effects of gender are on both language production and reception, and

how gender difference affects the ways learner speak has continuously been studied

(Brown, 2006). In regard to sociolinguistic research, Labov (as cited in Ellis, 1994, p.

202) asserted there are two specific principles to distinguish the speech of natives

based on gender: " 1) In stable sociolinguistic stratification, men use a higher

frequency of non-standard forms than women. 2) In the majority of linguistic

changes, women use a higher frequency of the incoming forms than men." Ellis

explained that women are more sensitive to new language forms, and they are so

susceptible to the change that they can ultimately reject them. In contrast, men are

less sensitive to them and tend not to reject these forms once they have used them.

Based on this sociolinguistic theory, patterns have been found in a way that

females perform better in language learning than males in general (Brown, 2006; Ellis,

1994). Brown reviewed studies that depict patterns in language use which are

influenced by gender. In his summary, it was found that American female speakers of

English use more standard language than males. Furthermore, women are reported

to be less confident in speaking as they use more uncertainty expressions such as

hedges, tag questions, rising intonation on declaratives. On the other hand, men are

likely to interrupt when speaking and use more intense expletives (Brown, 2006).

Ellis (1994) also gave some examples of studies that provide evidence of how gender difference can influence language learning. For example, Burstall's study investigated 6,000 8-year-old learners learning French, and the girls' scores significantly exceeded that of boys. Similarly, findings from Boyle's research show that, among Chinese university students who learned English, female students' mean scores on ten English proficiency tests were higher. However, contradictory findings have been identified in several studies. For instance, one study found that males outperformed women in listening vocabulary tests, while another study found opposite results. Surprisingly, Ellis stated that even no gender effect was found in certain studies.

Accordingly, this can affirm that there still are possibilities of gender effects on language learning, and gender is receptive to further investigations across contexts and other variables. In the present study, it was found that many studies on learner beliefs and language learning strategies also put their focus on gender effect. Thus, the hypothesized model of the present study proposes a link between gender and beliefs about language learning as well as strategies. Details of the studies on the effects of gender on beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies are presented in later section.

Educational Context

The context of language learning and teaching appears to be one of the potential factors on which researchers have focused. The definitions and

characteristics of context vary according to the underlying approaches or specific

frameworks they are based upon. This section discusses the views of contexts as

institutional context (Brown, 2000) and in ecological perspective (Bernat, 2008). It

further explores criteria, policies, and methodologies involved in English language

education in Thailand (Ministry of Education, 2003) which essentially conform to the

context of the present study.

First of all, the concept of contexts in language teaching presented in Brown

(2000) ascribed the term "institutional context" to such concept. The term

specifically refers to the place, or the institution, where teachers are teaching, and

these institutions are framed and somewhat limited within, as Brown puts it,

"sociopolitical considerations". For example, both public elementary and secondary

schools are contingent on national educational policies.

In general, Brown distinguishes institutional contexts into two major categories

including elementary and secondary schools and institutions of higher education.

Regarding the school level, the variability between policies exists across countries.

Taking EFL contexts into consideration, English is occasionally a compulsory course in

secondary level. There are certain models in English language education being

implemented in the U.S. and being applied to other countries as well. According to

Brown (2000), the *submersion* model is when nonnative students are basically

"submerged" in the content being taught in class without any language instruction.

In the *immersion* model, content of the course is exclusively designed. Furthermore,

teachers possess some knowledge of students' L1 as well as culture. This type of model is typically applied in EFL contexts. Next, despite being quite similar to immersion program, Brown asserts that students in *shelter English* come from various L1 backgrounds. Teachers, in addition, are certified in both content areas and English language teaching. In *mainstreaming,* students will be mainstreamed into the regular curriculum once they experience ESL instruction first and are proved to acquire enough proficiency before moving to the content areas. Another type of model stressed by Brown is the *bilingual programs*. He describes that in the United States there are three types of bilingual programs as follows: 1) transitional bilingual, 2) maintenance bilingual, and 3) enrichment bilingual. As to the nature of bilingual program, the native and second languages are incorporated in the instruction, but differences lie in each type of the program. In *transitional bilingual programs*, L1 is used as a language of instruction in the content areas, while English is used in a separated ESL subject. Once students' abilities and proficiency are positively justified, they are moved to classes where instruction is all in English. Secondly, *maintenance bilingual programs* use student's native language to teach the content areas partially throughout the program. Finally, students in *enrichment bilingual programs* get to select certain content area courses taught in L2, but their program is mostly conducted in the native language.

Moving from elementary and secondary schools, Brown discusses contexts in higher education as well. In university context, there are six categories regarding

language teaching in various goals and objectives. These are 1) pre-academic programs, 2) EAP or English for Academic Purposes, 3) ESP or English for Specific Purposes, 4) Voc/Tech or Vocational and Technical English, 5) Literacy, and 6) Survival/Social Curricula (Brown, 2000).

To conclude, the two types of contexts in Brown (2000) serve different purposes of the learners in different levels. In school context, the model of English education primarily aims to support learners in a content-based manner and appropriately adapts to different backgrounds of learners and their needs, while English in tertiary education largely promotes several discrete purposes of learners, especially their areas of interest and professions.

Next, looking at educational context from another perspective, the study of learner contextual influences on language learning is implied in the ecological perspective (Bernat, 2008). Bernat discussed that the ecological perspective views language learning as highly complicated processes unlike previous SLA perspectives which imply a cause-effect relationship of input and output in a simple way. Because the characteristic of ecological approach is "contextualized" or "situative", researchers emphasize learner contexts in two levels: macro level and micro level. She described that the macro level focuses on the environment of school and classroom, while the micro level studies learner perceptions, affordances, and actions.

In this particular perspective, Bernat importantly illustrated that learner's learning is context-dependent to some extent, and researchers should examine the context of learners in two different levels including what literally surrounds learners or what the classroom environment is like, for example. The other level deal with a more complex dimension such as learner's intuitive understanding (perceptions), opportunities for interactions (affordances), and what learners actually do in the context (actions). Bernat also assertd that, based on this particular view, context is not what simply encircles language, but context characterizes language and vice versa. Therefore, everything that occurs in the context is taken into consideration.

In Thailand, the Ministry of Education (2003) officially announces the English language education program called "English Program," using the English language as a medium of instruction. As its name suggests, this particular program mainly aims to enhance student's English language abilities and skills in a way that students are able to communicate effectively in English and familiarize themselves with English language use. In terms of management, the program can be arranged into two types: English Program (EP) and Mini English Program (MEP). In EP Program, every subject areas are taught in English except Thai language and Social Study. On the other hand, English class hours in MEP Program are limited to 50 percent per week (Ministry of Education, 2003). In 2010, the concept of English Program is mentioned in the Handbook of Curriculum and Instruction by the Upper Secondary Education Bureau in 2010 as one of the curricula implemented in Thailand, and the program still offers

every subject area taught in English except Thai language and Thai history. However, there is a branch of English language curriculum apart from English Program called "Intensive English Program" (IEP) interchangeably used as MEP. According to the Upper Secondary Bureau, IEP curriculum can be differently applied across schools. For instance, more English classes are added while other subjects are normally conducted in Thai, or, in some schools, mathematics and science are also taught in English. Next, the section addresses some studies showing how context can influence language learning.

Evidence on the influence of learning contexts manifests itself in some research studies. Two example studies focused on two different influence of context: teaching approaches and the medium of instruction. In Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008), an experimental study by Kurahachi was mentioned, showing that learners in communicative approach classroom were more highly motivated and showed a more participatory role in learning tasks than learners of grammar-based instruction. Considering another type of contextual influence, Baker and MacIntyre investigated learners in immersion and non-immersion programs. Based on the study, it was concluded that learners who have experienced longer exposure in L2 interaction (immersion program) yielded comparatively higher willingness to communicate and less anxiety. Hence, this kind of influence conclusively impacts on motivation, attitudes, and affect (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008).

Since contextual influences are found to yield a significant impact on certain individual differences such as attitudes, this crucially indicates a link to learner beliefs as beliefs can be regarded as a subset of attitudes (Dole & Sinatra, 1994). Amuzie and Winke (2009, p. 376) also suggested that beliefs were "relational and responsive to the length of exposure" to study abroad context, suggesting that beliefs were possibly context-sensitive. Negueruela-Azalora (2011) also supported that beliefs are "stable" regarding its social aspect but inclined to alter due to its contextual attribute.

Obviously, taking school context into consideration, different classrooms consist of different unique aspects such as teaching approaches, teaching styles, class atmosphere, and, more particularly, the language of instruction which more or less affect learner beliefs. This potentially leads to the educational context which is of importance when considering beliefs about language learning.

In the next section, empirical research on the relationships among all variables in the present study is presented.

Related Studies

In this section, studies on the relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context are reviewed and discussed. Findings from these studies were taken into consideration as research hypothesis prior to forming the hypothesized model of the study. This section reviews studies in 8 areas: 1) the relationship between beliefs

about language learning and language learning strategies, 2) the relationship between

beliefs about language learning and proficiency, 3) the relationship between language

learning strategies and proficiency, 4) the relationship between beliefs about

language learning and gender, 5) the relationship between language learning

strategies and gender, 6) the relationship between beliefs about language learning

and educational context, 7) the relationship between language learning strategies

and educational context, and 8) the relationship between proficiency and gender.

For the relationship between educational context and proficiency, there is no

evidence of the effect of educational context on language proficiency. Therefore, the

relationship between the two variables cannot be proposed in the hypothesized

model.

**The Relationship between Beliefs about Language Learning and Language
Learning Strategies**

Based on the literature, the relationships between beliefs about language

learning strategies have long been of researchers' great interest. The following

studies found significant findings about the relationships between beliefs and

(Abedini, Rahimi, & Zare-ee, 2011; Chang & Shen, 2010; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007;

Wang et al., 2009; D. Yang, 1999).

To explore the relationship between beliefs and learning strategies, Yang

(1999) utilized the BALLI in order to investigate beliefs about language of 505 EFL

students and how they related to the use of strategies in their learning. She

employed the BALLI which was added one more item asking about their own ideas about English language learning apart from the provided items (Yang, 1999). Participants also had to answer another 49 statements in Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) and an open-ended question. The study classified the BALLI items into four factors: 1) self-efficacy and expectation about learning English, 2) perceived value and nature of learning spoken English, 3) beliefs about foreign language aptitude, and 4) beliefs about formal structural studies. Factor analysis also employed on SILL, and these factors were composed of 1) functional practice strategies, 2) cognitive-memory strategies, 3) metacognitive strategies, 4) formal-oral practice strategies, 5) social strategies, and 6) compensation strategies. Therefore, the result from Yang's study (1999) yielded clear evidence that there was a strong relationship between beliefs about self-efficacy and every kind of strategies use and between beliefs about nature of "learning spoken English" and "formal oral-practice strategies". The study concluded that these relationships between learner beliefs and learning strategies use were repetitive.

In Magogwe and Oliver's study (2007), the relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and language learning strategies as well as age and proficiency were explored. The study employed an adapted ESL/EFL version 7.0 of SILL to investigate language learning strategies. 480 participants were from primary schools, secondary schools, and universities. Findings showed that primary and secondary school learners had moderate and significant relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and language

learning strategies, while university learners had a weak and significant relationship between the two variables. The study also found the relationships between self-efficacy beliefs, language learning strategies, and proficiency of the three groups of learners in a way that when proficiency was high, the connection of self-efficacy beliefs and strategies declined. The researchers found that this pattern of relationships slightly differed across three levels of education. Findings from the study suggest that proficiency plays a role in influencing interaction between beliefs and language learning strategies and that future studies should take this into consideration.

Regarding the Chinese language, Wang, Spencer, and Xing (2009) investigated metacognitive beliefs and strategies and how the two variables related to each other. There were 45 Chinese as a foreign language learners participated in the study. The researchers employed a questionnaire divided into three sections: 1) Strategies for learning Chinese characters, 2) Metacognitive knowledge/beliefs, and 3) Metacognitive Strategies. Findings of the study showed that learners who believed that they had the ability to learn Chinese and also employed planning strategy performed better in achievement tests. The study affirmed the significance of relationships between beliefs and strategies as both variables promote language learning and entail learner higher achievement.

In Taiwanese context, Chang and Shen (2010) investigated 250 EFL learners' beliefs and their use of strategies using BALLI and SILL. A moderate relationship of the two variables was found by means of Pearson correlation. Additionally,

relationships between subcategories of each questionnaire were also investigated.

For instance, learners with strong beliefs in foreign language aptitude tended to use compensation strategies, but learners who possessed the concept of language learning difficulty were likely to employ memory, cognitive, and affective strategies. High motivation learners used mostly cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies. The findings, thus, support previous research studies on the existence of the link between beliefs and language learning strategies.

Conducted with 203 Iranian undergraduates, the study by Abedini, Rahimi, and Zare-ee (2011) employed Horwitz's BALLI and Oxford's SILL to investigate their correlations. The study further explored the impact of proficiency by using the Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB) to assess learner proficiency. By means of factor analysis, the study identified six factors of beliefs about language learning: 1) foreign language aptitude, 2) learning and communicative strategies, 3) self-efficacy about learning English, 4) perceived value of learning English, 5) nature of language learning, and 6) formal practices. Furthermore, seven factors of SILL were identified. The six original factors of SILL remained the same, while "functional-practice strategies" was added as a new category. It was found that self-efficacy beliefs and learner's perceived value of learning were significantly related to all categories of language learning strategies but metacognitive strategies. Negative relationship between formal practices beliefs and compensation, affective, social, and functional-practice strategies were found. Beliefs about foreign language aptitude

was related to memory and cognitive strategies, and the correlation between beliefs

about learning and communication strategies and compensation and functional

strategies was identified. Beliefs about nature of language learning significantly

related to memory, cognitive, and social strategies. Furthermore, the study found

that beliefs and learner's proficiency were closely related.

In brief, these studies reveal that beliefs about language learning are

generally related to language learning strategies, and some particular categories of

beliefs and strategies in BALLI and SILL were studied and identified their relationships

across contexts, languages, and learners. Interestingly, some studies focusing on the

pattern of beliefs and strategies also found that learner's proficiency comes into

play. The next two sections, therefore, explore more about studies on relationships

between beliefs about language learning and proficiency as well as between

language learning strategies and proficiency.

The Relationship between Beliefs about Language Learning and Proficiency

Among research on beliefs about language learning, some researchers

particularly examined how learners' beliefs are related to their language proficiency

(Abdolahzadeh & R, 2014; Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Huang & Tsai, 2003; Peacock, 1999)

In Peacock's study (1999), beliefs about language learning and their

relationship to proficiency were investigated. Learners' beliefs were collected by

using the BALLI, and he also employed a comprehensive proficiency test, an

interview, and a self-rated proficiency test. 202 students and 45 EFL teachers were participated in the study. He reported that the findings yielded similar results compared to previous studies. However, among eleven items of BALLI, four of them were found to be significantly associated with learners' proficiency and could be used as learning and teaching implications (Peacock, 1999). These particular items as follows: you shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly; if someone spent one hour a day learning a foreign language, how long would it take him/her to become fluent; if you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later; and learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules, respectively. According to the claim from some previous studies about the existence of "detrimental" beliefs, findings from the study clearly supported such claim. Also, to avoid negative influence of beliefs on learners' success, those beliefs should be rectified.

A study that investigated 89 participants in high schools in Taiwan was conducted by Huang and Tsai (2003). Participants were divided into two groups: high English proficiency and low English proficiency. Their study employed BALLI and interviews to elicit learner beliefs about language learning, and the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) was for learner proficiency levels. In terms of beliefs about foreign language aptitude, high proficiency learners reported having this kind of abilities to learn English. The difficulty of learning English was viewed differently by learners—high proficiency learners thought learning was easy due to personal

interest while low proficient learners thought the opposite. Two groups of learners also reported different beliefs in nature of language learning. High proficiency group did not rely much on translation while the other group valued translation. High proficiency learners, moreover, liked to practice English with native speakers, but low proficiency learners did not. However, both groups of learners held the same positive beliefs about motivation to learn English. Thus, it was suggested that high proficiency learners were more likely to possess positive beliefs than low proficiency group. This claim is also supported by Banya and Cheng of which more proficient learners are more likely to possess beneficial and sensible beliefs about language learning (as cited in Bernat & Lloyd, 2007).

Using the BALLI and an English test, this recent study investigated the link between beliefs about language learning and proficiency levels of secondary school students in Iran (Abdolahzadeh & Nia, 2014). Learners' proficiency was divided into three levels: low, intermediate, and high in order to compare their beliefs across proficiency levels. Findings of the study revealed a positive, significant, but weak relationship between intermediate level of proficiency and beliefs about language learning. However, a pattern was found in a way that the higher the mean scores of beliefs were, the higher the proficiency became.

In summary, these studies have addressed a link between beliefs about language learning and language proficiency, and the concept of positive and detrimental beliefs has been identified. Some items in BALLI contain negative

statements of beliefs, and these certain items significantly link to proficiency as mentioned in Peacock's study. Beliefs and proficiency are also related in a way that if the means of beliefs about language learning are high, proficiency tends to rise. Consequently, the present study hypothesized that beliefs about language learning are the potential predictor of language proficiency. Apart from beliefs, language learning strategies are also associated with proficiency. Studies investigating this relationship are presented in the following section.

The Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Proficiency

Researchers have found that learners with different proficiency levels use different types of language learning strategies, and some studies have shown interesting results (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Lai, 2009; Park, 1997; Radwan, 2011; Wharton, 2000). In Park's study (1997), 332 university learners of English in Korea were examined. The study used SILL ESL/EFL version to investigate learners' use of strategies and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). To investigate the relationship between language learning strategies and proficiency, subjects were divided into three groups based on their use of language learning strategies: low, middle, and high strategy groups. After that, the TOEFL scores of each group were computed and the different scores of each group were statistically significant ($p<0.01$). Thus, a linear relationship of the two variables was found. Also, the six strategy groups which include memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies were found to be correlate with the TOEFL scores. It

can be concluded that effective use of language learning strategies possibly depends on the range of strategies learners use as well as their beliefs, learning style, grade level, and goal (Park, 1997). Furthermore, the study found that two strategy groups, cognitive and social strategies, were considered relatively better predictors of the scores of TOEFL, suggesting that it is crucial to specially emphasize learner's "mental engagement" and social interaction. This finding also supported Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) as they found that students' with high proficiency favored the use of social strategies and that resulted in better confidence to use the language to communicate with people.

A study by Wharton (2000) explored language learning strategies of 678 bilingual FL learners in Singapore, learning Japanese and French as foreign languages. The study employed SILL (version 5.1) for native English speakers studying foreign languages and self-rated proficiency in a separate questionnaire. The major difference of this study is that participants were bilingual, but most of them had one dominant language. Participants reported having different mother tongues as follows: Chinese (93%), Malay/Indonesian (12%), Indian (2%), English (2%), and both Chinese and English (2%). Quite similar to Park's (1997), Wharton found a linear relationship between learning strategies and learner self-rated proficiency, and 39 out of 80 strategies in the SILL had statistically significant relationship with proficiency. The pattern was found that higher self-rated proficiency learners reported using learning strategies more frequently.

Lai's study (2009) investigated 418 first-year university students in Taiwan. Participants were placed into three levels of proficiency by the English Language Placement Test. Participants' use of language learning strategies was elicited by SILL Version 7.0 for (ESL/EFL). Findings showed that all six categories of SILL were reported medium frequency of use. As compared to other previous studies, Lai found that the overall use of language learning strategies was higher in more proficient learners; moreover, the relationship between six categories of strategies in SILL and learner proficiency was significant and positive only in this study (Lai, 2009). In terms of the types of strategies, differences among proficiency levels were identified. High proficiency group reported using metacognitive and cognitive strategies the most but memory strategies the least. However, low proficiency group used social and memory strategies the most but cognitive and metacognitive the least. Lai suggested that both cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies might possibly be crucial strategies which facilitate learners to become successful.

Another study conducted by Radwan (2011) investigated not only the link between language learning strategies and proficiency, but the role of gender was taken into consideration. The strategy use and language proficiency of 128 university students in Oman were examined by means of SILL, their GPAs, length of study in the English program, and their self-rated proficiency. Regarding the GPAs, more proficiency group used language learning strategies more frequently than those in low proficiency group. However, in terms of years spent in the English Department,

freshmen reported using more strategies compared to sophomore, junior, and senior

groups. Using ANOVA, two groups of self-rated proficiency: good and fair were

compared, and it was found that good proficiency group employed significantly more

strategies than the other. In regard to gender, the study did not find significant

findings, but it reveals that male students used social strategies more than female

students which is contrary to other research. Detailed discussions about relationships

between strategies and gender are presented in the later section.

In short, a linear relationship between language learning strategies and

proficiency was found in Park's and Wharton's studies. In Park's research, it was

found that cognitive and social strategies were comparatively better predictors of

proficiency assessed by TOEFL scores. Supported by Hong-nam and Leavell's study,

it was evident that high proficiency group tended to relish strategies that involve

social interactions. Based on these studies, it was also obvious that higher proficiency

learners used language learning strategies more frequently. In the next section, the

present study explores how gender difference affects both beliefs about language

learning and language learning strategies.

The Relationship between Beliefs about Language Learning and Gender

Gender is one of the factors on which researchers have been focused since it

has been found that these two groups of learners possess some notions about

language learning differently. Despite a lack of research particularly looking at gender

and beliefs, certain research studies have revealed possible patterns of this

relationship (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Daif-Allah, 2012). A 34-item BALLI was employed

in Bernat and Lloyd's study (2007) to capture beliefs about language learning of 155

EFL female students and 107 EFL males. Participants were from different countries

(i.e. China, Korea, Japan, Taiwan, and Thailand). The study showed that both genders

generally yielded similar beliefs about language learning, but, like some other

studies, particular differences were addressed. Females viewed that multilingual

speaking ability made a more impact on language learning than men did. The other

minor difference was that males comparatively seemed to enjoy practicing English

with the natives more than females. The study, nevertheless, suggested that the

findings were different from those of Siebert's since the other study found eight

differences in beliefs. The differences found in Siebert's were in terms of comparing

their own language abilities to their fellow people from their country, how long it

takes to learn a language, emphasis on grammar, pronunciation, and classroom

technology use. Regarding the different findings across research studies, Bernat and

Lloyd addressed three possible explanations. The first explanation concerns learner's

culture. Different cultures of learners can impact on their language learning beliefs.

The researchers gave an example of their study of which Chinese learners were the

majority. With "...a collective-oriented national cultural trait in a learning context"

(Bernat & Lloyd, 2007, p. 88), this possibly results in the differences of findings. Next,

contextual difference is another possible factor since evidence shows that learner

beliefs vary according to *institutional context*. Lastly, other individual factors (e.g.

proficiency, motivation, anxiety, attitude, and self-efficacy) can also affect beliefs about language learning. After all, it might be too early to justify the gender effect on beliefs about language learning, so more studies across populations, contexts, and age should be initiated (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007). The following study which was conducted in the Middle East revealed different findings in regard to gender difference.

A recent study (Daif-Allah, 2012) explored beliefs about language learning and their relationship of 250 English major students in a university. The study, similarly, used the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory to investigate learner beliefs in Saudi context. In regard to the five categories of beliefs in the BALLI, findings showed that both males and females reported holding the same types of beliefs in terms of the difficulty of language learning and the nature of language learning. On the other hand, the other three types of beliefs which are foreign language aptitude, learning and communication strategies, and motivations and expectations were held differently by male and female students. For instance, the study found that females believing in practicing English with native speakers more enjoyably than males. Also, females reported that they liked to practice in language lab and learned through memorization and rote learning. Females believed they were more confident in their abilities to learn English, while males were more reasonable to judge how long it takes to master English. The study implied that issues beyond gender such as the

society and cultures of learners as well as their own personal factors play a role in

shaping their beliefs as well.

In summary, both male and female learners generally possess similar beliefs

about language learning. Some exceptions, however, were clarified in both studies.

Regarding beliefs about communication strategies, women were more likely to

emphasize social interactions, but contradictory findings were found in Bernat and

Lloyd's study as it was reported that men were more likely to enjoy practicing

English with the native speakers. In Daif-Allah's study, some belief categories (i.e.

foreign language aptitude, learning and communication strategies, motivations and

expectations) were found to be held differently by both gender. After all, it is still

premature to conclude that beliefs are influenced by gender, and more studies are

needed to further investigate the phenomenon (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007).

The Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Gender

Gender is one of the factors which influence the use of language learning

strategies. A common pattern found in the literature is that females tend to use

more strategies more frequently. Oxford (1989) explained that the influence of

gender, based on previous studies, could account for stronger social orientation,

verbal skills, and obedience to common rules among females. However, learner's

characteristics might also influence the use of language learning strategies as found in

Wharton (2000). Certain unique preferences between male and female groups were

found in some other studies (Liyanage & Bartlett, 2012; Salahshour et al., 2013).

In Wharton's study (2000), apart from learner proficiency, gender difference was also investigated. As mentioned earlier, participants in the study were bilingual, and that might be the reason why the findings were different—That is, no significant gender difference was found. However, in some particular strategy items, males used relatively more types of strategies more frequently. Wharton discussed that the distinctive characteristics of the participants in the study which entailed different findings might possibly be due to the absence of language majors, previous experiences in language learning, and bilingualism.

In Sri Lankan context, over 900 ESL high school students were investigated (Liyanage and Bartlett, 2012). The study employed the adapted version of Language Learning Strategies Inventory (LLSI), examining three groups of strategies: metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective strategies. It was found that, in general, a relationship between language learning strategies and gender existed; furthermore, females reported using strategies more frequently than males in every category which is consistent with the literature. In metacognitive strategies, female students used more *organizational planning* and *self-management*, while male students employed *self-monitoring*. In regard to cognitive strategies, females reported using more *elaboration, rehearsal, deduction* (in speaking), *note-taking, inferencing*, and *resourcing* (in reading). On the other hand, males were likely to use *repeating* (in listening) *rehearsing* and *translating* (in writing). Lastly, in social-affective strategies, females reported using *cooperation* in out-of-class listening and speaking, whereas

males utilized *asking questions for clarification* strategy. After all, the researchers noted that when regarding individual strategy items, no significant associated was identified.

Salahshour et al. (2013) conducted a study which particularly focuses on how language learning strategies relate to learner gender as well as the proficiency level. They investigated 65 high school students. Participants' proficiency level was measured by the Nelson English Language Test, and language learning strategies was measured by SILL Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL). Similarly, findings showed the same pattern of the relationship between strategies and proficiency— high proficiency participants used more strategies. In regard to learner gender, females reported more frequency of strategy use as compared to males. Salahshour et al. explained that male participants used metacognitive and social strategies the most but memory strategies the least, while females used metacognitive and compensation strategies the most, but, similarly, memory strategies the least. Using T-test, it showed that there was a difference in the use of cognitive strategies in a way that female participants used this type of strategies more than male participants. Nevertheless, the rest of strategy types (i.e. memory, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies)

Table 2.6

Summary of the Results on the Relationship between Strategies and Gender

Variables	Male Group		Female Group		T	Sig.
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		(2-tailed)
Memory Strategies	2.68	.43	2.66	.72	-.19	.85
Cognitive Strategies	2.73	.64	2.96	.64	-2.86	.01
Compensation Strategies	2.82	.25	3.09	.29	-1.86	.12
Metacognitive Strategies	3.1	.55	3.12	.51	.342	.74
Affective Strategies	2.87	.85	2.72	.87	1.51	.19
Social Strategies	2.9	.59	3.06	.68	-1.57	.17
Total	2.85	.14	2.89	.22	143.5	.00

Note: (Source: Salahshour et al., 2013, p. 640).

yielded no significant differences as shown in Table 2.6. Based on the information of

this gender influence, the researchers implied that female participants might be more

aware of what they want and the way they seek opportunities to practice their

language learning, suggesting that teachers may facilitate and encourage male

participants to use more strategies. However, the gender influence still needs more

confirmation from learners in different contexts as to whether social and educational

contexts play a role in guiding male and female learners to think and perform

similarly or differently in their learning. In addition, individual differences such as

learner beliefs are also in need of investigation in order to explore variations among

learners.

In summary, regarding all studies discussed above, it is likely that gender to

some extent associates with the use of language learning strategies. Normally,

females tend to use more strategies more frequently than males. Despite the fact

that the common pattern of strategy use was evident in the literature, it is rather

premature to generalize the findings considering the distinct learner's contexts and

characteristics. This potentially leads to the need of further investigations. Next, the

present study reviews the role of educational context in affecting beliefs about

language learning and language learning strategies.

The Relationship between Beliefs about Language Learning and Educational Context

Even though there is still the need of research particularly looking at how

learners' educational contexts influence their beliefs about language learning, some

studies have implied possible classroom influences on beliefs about language

learning. ÖZ (2007) investigated beliefs about language learning of 470 Turkish EFL

students in secondary education and how their beliefs differed in terms of social and

school contexts. The study employed a structured questionnaire, BALLI, to elicit

learner beliefs. Participants in the study were from three different grade levels which

were tenth grade, eleventh grade, and graduates. All of them were English Majors but

they were from different school programs which included (1) *Foreign Language High School* (FLSH), (2) *Anatolian High School* (AHS), (3) *Anatolian Teacher Preparation High School* (ATPHS), (4) *Private High School*, and (5) *General High School* (GHS). ÖZ noted that only the exception of GHS, the rest of the schools provided a foreign language preparatory education for one year. Through factor analysis with the BALLI, the study came up with five belief factors: 1) Beliefs about social interaction and learning spoken English, 2) Beliefs about structural language learning, 3) Beliefs about quality and adequacy of EFL instruction, 4) Beliefs about difficulty and perceived value of language learning, and 5) Beliefs about foreign language aptitude. Findings in terms of school programs showed that beliefs in factors 1, 2, and 3 yielded statistically significant differences ($p<0.01$). In belief factor 1 concerning beliefs about social interaction and learning spoken English, ATHPS and PHS participants held strong beliefs as compared to AHS learners. According to the researcher, it was concluded that school programs which offered "more intensive EFL instruction" entailed this type of beliefs (ÖZ, 2007). In regard to the factor 2 which was beliefs about structural language learning, FLHS, AHS, and GHS participants believed in learning language structure as compared to those in PHS. In beliefs about quality and adequacy of EFL instruction of the factor 3, participants in PHS relatively strongly held this type of belief more than the rest of the schools at $p<0.01$. After all, based on the findings and implications from this study, it is very likely that different educational settings influence certain types of beliefs about language learning.

In more recent literature, Wesely (2012) showed that some studies attempted to examine the influence of foreign language programs on learner attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs. It is stated that student programs do not always yield positive beliefs as some studies showed negative change or even unchanged beliefs. Regarding Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES), a study by Kennedy et al. (as cited in Wesely, 2012) suggested that the program influenced learner in the long run, and these students in FLES yielded higher level of positive attitudes in terms of school, learning, language, culture, and themselves when compared to other students from different programs. Another study reviewed by Wesely showed strikingly unexpected results. Theoretically, researchers believe that learners who are exposed to L2 community (e.g. ESL contexts) would be more positive in terms of their attitudes and motivation, but Allen's study showed opposite findings. Accordingly, it is suggested that the phenomenon be extensively investigated so that the potential effects from educational context on beliefs can be more generalized.

Even though there is still a lack in empirical research on beliefs about language learning and learning context, these researchers have shed light on the possible contextual influence on beliefs. Therefore, more research should be carried out and examine the relationship of these two variables.

The Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Educational Context

Learning context also plays a role in affecting the use of language learning strategies. Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) investigated 55 ESL learners studying in Intensive English Program (IEP) which helps prepare ESL learners before entering university. Participants were from multicultural backgrounds including Brazil, Germany, Indonesian, Japan, Korea, Malaysian, Taiwan, Thailand, and Togo. The study also employed SILL and Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) as research instruments. The researchers aimed to investigate the language learning strategy use in IEP context as well as (self-rated) proficiency and gender influences on strategy use. Findings showed that learners in IEP used metacognitive and social strategies more frequently. Hong-Nam and Leavell, importantly, claimed that the IEP Program "may be a prime contributor" of metacognitive and social strategies in a way that participants in the program basically held instrumental motivation, and, according to the purpose of IEP learners which was to further their language skills, they were likely to be afraid of failing to study, even pushing themselves forward. In regard to social strategies, it was very much possible the environment of IEP shaped the way they employed social strategies. For example, IEP fosters student-centered atmosphere which also supports independent learning. The program also provided native speakers of English who could help them when they were in need of assistance. That is, English interactions in IEP were then highly encouraged. Findings of this study

suggested that the types of program and instruction can possibly influence the way learners use language learning strategies, implying that the nature of classroom programs can possibly promote certain types of language learning strategies.

In Thai context, a study on Grade 7 students' use of language learning strategies of 30 English program students was conducted (Daosodsai, 2010). The study employed a questionnaire and focus-group interview. The study looked at four types of strategies including strategies for preparing oneself for classroom lessons, strategies for understanding the lessons while studying in class, strategies for improving one's language skills, and strategies for expanding one's general knowledge of English. Students in this English Program moderately reported using most of the strategies. In strategies for preparing oneself for classroom lessons, it was found that students emphasized classroom participation but not likely to prepare new lessons before coming to class. Students also reported doing their assignments often but not asking teachers for clarification. Concerning strategies for understanding the lessons while studying in class, students attempted to think in Thai. However, they denied to talk with their peers during class. It was also found that mostly they paid attention while studying, but they were not likely to join a group study with their classmates. Next, in strategies for improving one's language skills, students reported learning new words from multiple sources the most, but speaking practice through imitation from the natives was used the least. Students also reported frequently making correction when they made mistakes, while they comparatively

less favored speaking with teachers, peers, relatives, and natives. In the last category, expanding one's general knowledge of English, it was found that playing English learning games and using dictionary to expand their vocabulary were used the most, but they tended not to search for information on the Internet or join activities at school. The researcher also found that the frequency of use was different due to learners' learning styles, preferences, activities, and problems in language learning. This study, moreover, supports the literature in a way that strategies are influenced by multiple learner variables which should be taken into consideration.

After all, these research studies imply that students in specific, intensive English program where interactions in English and the availability of the native speakers is higher, students tend to employ certain types of language learning strategies. For example, students in Intensive English Program used more metacognitive and social strategies. However, in the socio-cultural context of Thailand, the use of strategies by English Program students was rather unique. They are likely to use intra-personal strategies such as trying to think in Thai for better understanding, paying attention in class, and learning from multiple sources. On the contrary, inter-personal strategies are less emphasized (e.g. talking with their peers, practicing speaking with people around them, asking teachers for clarification). Thus, it might possibly be presumed that language learning strategies vary according to learner educational context. However, researchers have to keep in mind that socio-

cultural differences across contexts and learners themselves could also come into play.

The Relationship between Gender and Proficiency

The relationship between gender and proficiency have not been the primary focus for researchers, and there has been a lack of the studies investigating the relationship of the two variables. When considering gender and proficiency as factors in research studies, most researchers are likely to discuss the two variables to other factors. For instance, in Green and Oxford (1995), the study investigated the strategy use of 374 university learners and studied the relationship between language learning strategies and gender as well as language learning strategies and proficiency. It was found that more successful learners as well as female students use strategies at higher level. However, the study did not relate gender to proficiency. In another survey study, Salem (2006) attempted to investigate gender and proficiency together with motivation and language learning strategies of 147 undergraduate students. The study, however, found no statistically significant effect of males and females on EFL proficiency. After all, the relationship between gender and proficiency was not established in the present study.

Conclusion

This chapter reveals that second language acquisition researchers have found several variables which are influential and critical in language learning. These variables include beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, and

language learning outcomes in terms of proficiency. Importantly, it has been revealed

that these variables are related. Moreover, a number of studies have shed light on

the role of other variables including gender and educational context.

Many researchers have studied the relationships between these variables, and

it can be summarized into the following relationships: 1) the relationship between

beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies, 2) the relationship

between beliefs about language learning and proficiency, 3) the relationship between

language learning strategies and proficiency, 4) the relationship between beliefs

about language learning and gender, 5) the relationship between language learning

strategies and gender, 6) the relationship between beliefs about language learning

and educational context, and 7) the relationship between language learning

strategies and educational context. Considering these relationships altogether, the

present study, therefore, aimed to investigate the entire relationships by proposing a

hypothesized model of the relationships in Thai context (as shown in Figure 1.1)

Next, chapter 3 illustrates the methodologies of how the present study was

designed and implemented including the population, participants, and research

instruments. The chapter also presents procedures for data collection and data

analysis.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The present study aimed to investigate beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context by means of descriptive statistics and the relationships between the five variables. This chapter describes the population, participants, instrument used in the study, the research instruments validation and reliability, how the processes of data collection were executed and finally how the data were analyzed.

Population and Participants

The population in the study was Thai upper secondary school students in public schools under Bangkok Secondary Educational Service Areas 1 and 2. According to *educational context* variable, there were two programs, Regular and English Programs, of which the language of instruction is different in a way that the Regular Program used Thai as a language of instruction, while English Program, as its name suggests, uses English. Twelfth grade students were particularly selected as the representatives of Thai upper secondary school students since they were in their last year of each program and they possibly have experienced both types of program as much as possible (three years at a minimum). That is, having more experiences in each program contributed to longer exposure to different language of instruction, and that could likely influence participants' beliefs and strategy use.

The number of participants in the present study was calculated from the number of twelfth grade students in Bangkok Secondary Educational Service Area 1 and 2, 19,310 and 19,780 respectively (Office of the Basic Education Commisson, 2013). In the academic year of 2013, the number of twelfth grade students was 39,095 in total.

As the total number of participants in the study is 39,095 which are very close to 40,000, the selection of participants in the study were based on the total number above and calculated sample sizes to be good representatives based on Yamane's formula (1967) with 5% allowable error as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

n = sample size

N = population size

e = allowable error

The representatives of the whole participants, as a result, should be at a minimum of 396.

After calculating the representatives of the present study, the chapter further describes the selection of schools. In order to select the schools, the following criteria were applied:

a) The schools should be under the jurisdiction of Office of the Basic Education Commission—the Bangkok Secondary Educational Service Area Office 1 and 2.

b) The schools must offer both Regular and English Programs for students in upper secondary levels.

Taking into consideration the above criteria, there were seven schools in Bangkok offering English program in upper secondary level in the academic year of 2013 (Office of the Basic Education Commission, 2013). However, one school was excluded from the present study because the school did not offer English program for twelfth grade students. Thus, there are six schools in the study. Based on Table 3.1

The Total No. of Students and Actual No. of Participants from Each School and Program (N = 458)

Schools	Regular Program		English Program	
	Total No.* of Ss.	Actual No. of participants	Total No.* of Ss.	Actual No. of participants
School A	488	33	63	33
School B	69	39	55	35
School C	420	44	25	23
School D	503	43	85	26
School E	208	49	52	31
School F	626	45	133	57
Total	2,314	253	413	205

*Note: *Academic Year of 2013*

nonprobability sampling, one Regular Program class and one English Program class of

each school were selected according to the convenience of the schools, the

department of foreign language, and the teachers.

After collecting the data, the actual number of participants in each school

and program was shown in Table 3.1. The total number of participants in the study

was 458. There were 253 participants from Regular Program and 205 from English

Program.

Instruments

The study employed a questionnaire in order to investigate the five variables,

investigating the quantitative data of beliefs about language learning, language

learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context (see Appendix B and

C). The questionnaire consisted of three sections:

1) Demographic Information

In this first section of the questionnaire, three variables of the study including

gender, proficiency, and educational context were collected through participants'

background information. The school names were also required in this section.

1.1 Gender. *Male* and *Female* are dichotomous choices for gender variable.

1.2 Proficiency. Proficiency was assessed by participants' previous grades of

their fundamental English courses from the last semester. The choices

provided were 4.00, 3.50, 3.00, 2.50, 2.00, 1.50, 1.00, and 0.00.

1.3 Educational Context. *Educational context* explores two programs of

study which are Regular Program and English Program, and the difference lies

in the medium of instruction. Regular Program uses Thai while students in

English Program are taught in English.

2) Beliefs about Language Learning

To investigate beliefs about language learning of Thai Twelfth grade students,

the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory or BALLI which was developed by

Horwitz was adapted. The study employed the latest version of BALLI (ESL Version

2.0), consisting of 44 items, and Thai version of the questionnaire was distributed to

elicit the variable. As the BALLI is a Likert-scale type of instrument, participants had

to rate the degree of agreement and disagreement of each item by selecting a

number between 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. In the present study, the meaning of each number

was interpreted as follows:

5 means respondents "strongly agree" with the statement

4 means respondents "agree" with the statement

3 means respondents "neither agree nor disagree" with the

     statement

2 means respondent "disagree" with the statement

1 means respondents "strongly disagree" with the statement

In the BALLI (2.0), there were some items that certain words were changed in

order to contextualize their meanings in the following items:

- Item No. 4

Original statement: People from my country are good at learning

foreign languages.

Revised statement: *Thai people are good at learning foreign*

languages.

- Item No. 34

Original statement: I have to spend so much time preparing for big

English tests, that I don't have time to actually learn English.

Revised statement: *I have to spend so much time preparing for big*

English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET, TOEFL), that I don't have time to

actually learn English.

- Item No. 37

Original statement: People in my country feel that it is important to

speak English.

Revised statement: *Thai people feel that it is important to speak*

English.

- Item No. 42

Original statements:

a. State exit tests are good tests of my English ability.

b. Tests like the TOEFL, the IELTS, or the TOEIC are good tests of my

English ability.

Revised statement:

b. *General Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of my English ability.*

In both item 4 and 37, the word "Thai" was used instead of "People" as it clearly simplifies and specifies the meaning of the statements within Thai context, making it easier for participants to understand the statement. To clarify the meaning, some examples of "big English tests" in item 34 were added including General Aptitude Test (GAT), Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET), and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Item 42 provides two choices of statements to be selected. Regarding the rationale for selection, Horwitz (2012) points out that researcher should select either statement *a* or *b*, or one of the statements can be customized to the particular test(s) that students will be taking in the future. Thus, the researcher selected two national tests that the participants are compulsorily going to take: General Aptitude Test (GAT) and Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET).

Based on the BALLI items, there are two unique items that are separated from the others: item 43 and 44. The two items are not basically included within the Likert scales like the rest of the items, but, despite having five choices, they stand separately. Item 43 focuses on the perceived difficulty of English, asking whether English is very difficult, difficult, medium, easy, or very easy, whereas the other item, 44, centers on the length of time ones take to efficiently speak English. The choices

are as follows: less than a year, 1-2 years, 3-5 years, 5-10 years, you can't learn a

language in one hour a day. Therefore, these two unique items were not used in

calculating the model (research question 2) since they merely capture individual

opinions and are not grouped in Likert scales. Rather, they were taken into

consideration when explaining research question 1.

In Table 3.2, it presents the five constructs (categories) of BALLI and items

that belong to each category. Considering the new items added to BALLI 2.0, they

were allocated to the relevant categories in which the meanings fit. As a result, it was

found that the majority of the new items belonged to *Learning and Communication*

Strategies. The rest, however, fell into the category of *Nature of Language Learning*.

Table 3.2

Categories and Statements of Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

Categories	Statements
Foreign Language Aptitude	1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.
	2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.
	4. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.
	9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.
	14. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.
	22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.
	36. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.
	39. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.
	40. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.
The difficulty of Language Learning	3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.
	5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Categories	Statements
	25. It is easier to speak than understand English.
	33. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.
	43. English is: 1) a very difficult language, 2) a difficult language, 3) a language of medium difficulty, 4) an easy language, 5) a very easy language.
	44) If someone spent one hour learning English every day, how long would it take him or her to speak English well? 1) less than a year, 2) 1-2 years, 3) 3-5 years, 4) 5-10 years, 5) You can't learn a language in one hour a day.
The Nature of Language Learning	7. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.
	10. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.
	*12. In order to speak English, you have to think in English.
	15. The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words.
	*17. It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English.
	20. The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar.
	*27. I can learn a lot from non-native English teachers.
	28. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.
	30. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from Thai.
Learning and Communication Strategies	6. It is important to speak English with an excellent accent.
	8. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.
	11. I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet.
	13. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in English.
	*16. It is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning English.
	19. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.
	21. It is important to practice with multi-media.

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Categories	Statements
	*24. I can learn a lot from group activities with other students in my English class.
	*29. It is possible to learn English on your own without a teacher or a class.
	*31. Students and teachers should only speak English during English classes.
	*32. I can find a lot of useful materials to practice English on the Internet.
	*34. I have to spend so much time preparing for big English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET, TOEFL), that I don't have time to actually learn English.
	*35. It is important to speak English like a native speaker.
	41. I feel timid speaking English with other people.
	*42. General Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of my English ability.
Motivations and Expectations	18. If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.
	23. I want to speak English well.
	26. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know English speakers.
	37. Thai people feel that it is important to speak English.
	38. I would like to have English speaking friends.

Note: *New items in BALLI 2.0

3) Language Learning Strategies

To investigate language learning strategies of Thai Twelfth grade students, the

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning or SILL was adapted. SILL is a 50-item

questionnaire divided into six categories. There are three direct strategies: memory

strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, and three indirect strategies:

metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies (see Table 3.5). The

present study employed SILL version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) which is suitable for Thai EFL

context, and the Thai-translated version of SILL was used to elicit language learning

strategies.

SILL consists of a 5-point Likert scale, inquiring the frequency of strategy use

from "lowest" to "highest". The present student changed the meaning of the scales

which was different from the original version. The interpretation of each scale is:

5	means	respondents use the strategy at "the highest" level
4	means	respondents use the strategy at "high" level
3	means	respondents use the strategy at "moderate" level
2	means	respondents use the strategy at "low" level.
1	means	respondents use the strategy at "the lowest" level

Results from SILL indicate what categories of strategies learners report using

from the highest level to the lowest level. The six categories of 50 strategy items on

which SILL 7.0 (for speakers of other languages learning English) is based are as

illustrated in Table 3.3:

Table 3.3

Categories and Statements of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Categories	Statements
Direct Strategy: Memory Strategies	1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
	2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
	3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.
	4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
	5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
	6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
	7. I physically act out new English words.
	8. I review English lessons often.
	9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.
Direct Strategy Cognitive Strategies	10. I say or write new English words several times.
	11. I try to talk like native English speakers
	12. I practice the sounds of English
	13. I use the English words I know in different ways
	14. I start conversations in English.
	15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
	16. I read for pleasure in English.
	17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
	18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Categories	Statements
	19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
	20. I try to find patterns in English.
	21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
	22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
	23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
Direct Strategy: Compensation Strategies	24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
	25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
	26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
	27. I read English without looking up every new word.
	28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
	29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
Indirect Strategies: Metacognitive Strategies	30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
	31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
	32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
	33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
	34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
	35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
	36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
	37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
	38. I think about my progress in learning English.

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Categories	Statements
	44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.
Indirect Strategy: Social Strategies	45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
	46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
	47. I practice English with other students.
	48. I ask for help from English speakers.
	49. I ask questions in English.
	50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Validation of the Translation

Before conducting the research, the researcher translated the questionnaire items into Thai and had a professional translator translated all the texts back to English. Based on the process of back translation, the original texts of the questionnaire were compared to the English translation by two native speakers (one American and one Canadian) in order to check the consistency of the meaning between the translated texts and the original texts. Specific statements from BALLI and SILL that received experts' comments were then revised.

Table 3.4

BALLI Back-translated Statements and Experts' Comments

Original Statements	Back-translated Statements	Expert 1's Comments	Expert 2's Comments
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.	5. I believe that I can learn to speak English well.	*Maybe you can, but you will not.*	

Table 3.4 (Continued)

Original Statements	Back-translated Statements	Expert 1's Comments	Expert 2's Comments
7. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.	7. In speaking English, knowing native speakers' cultures is essential.		*Native Speaking cultures are not equivalent to English speaking cultures.*
11. I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet.	11.I like to practice English pronunciation with people I meet.	*You just want to practice pronunciation?*	*The focus of each statement is different . ie: English vs Pronunciation*
17. It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English.	17. It is better to have a native English teacher.	*Native English, like from England right? or Native speaking?*	
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	22. Women are better at learning English than men.	*Women are better at all foreign languages or just English?*	
27. I can learn a lot from non-native English teachers.	27. I can learn a considerable amount of English from non-native English teachers.		*The first statement refers to general knowledge whereas the second statement refers to English knowledge.*
42. General Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of my English ability.	42. GAT or O-NET tests are effective tests for assessing my language ability.	*The first one just tests English language ability, while the other tests general language ability?*	

Table 3.4 shows the back-translated statements in BALLI as well as

comments from the two native experts, while Table 3.5 illustrates back-translated

statements of SILL, and the experts' opinions were also provided.

Table 3.5

SILL Back-translated Statements and Experts' Comments

Original Statements	Back-translated Statements	Expert 1's Comments	Expert 2's Comments
8. I review English lessons often.	8. I review English lessons constantly.	*Constantly is more than often.*	
16. I read for pleasure in English.	16. I read English fiction.	*You could read many genres for pleasure.*	*Not all people find fiction pleasurable.*
20. I try to find patterns in English.	20. I try to explore the different language styles used in English.	*Patterns and language styles could mean different things.*	*The first statement can refer to grammatical patterns whereas the second statement refers to style.*
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	25. I make gestures when I have no idea what is spoken in English during a conversation.	*The second one here is kinda funny, just someone making gestures when they don't understand.*	*Statement one refers to one person's use of English whereas statement two refers to one person's understanding of English.*
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	27. I read English without searching for the definition of every single word.		*New word should not be the same as every word... hopefully*
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	50. I try to learn the cultures of native speakers.	*Not all English speakers are native-English speakers.*	*English speakers vs Native speakers.*

Using comments from the experts, certain statements which seemed unclear and problematic were identified. Consensus was made among experts in many questionnaire statements, and this indicated that certain back-translated statements should carefully be reconsidered. The researcher thus edited the Thai translation

again based on the comments given in order to ensure that the Thai translation of

the statements represent the original meanings.

Reliability Test

The reliability of the questionnaire was tested with a group of students who

shared the same characteristics to the population in the study. In order to test the

internal consistency of the items of BALLI and SILL, the researcher randomly selected

30 students from Yothinburana School to take part in the pilot study. Cronbach's

Alpha Coefficient was used to evaluate the reliability of the questionnaire. The score

of Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient should be at least at an acceptable level of 0.6.

Table 3.6 illustrates the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of the two questionnaires. Both

are satisfactorily above the acceptable level.

Table 3.6

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of BALLI and SILL (N = 30)

Questionnaires	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
BALLI	42*	.82
SILL	50	.73

*Note: *Two BALLI items (43 and 44) were excluded*

Data Collection Procedures

In order to obtain the data, the researcher contacted all the selected

schools, particularly the academic affair staffs and the heads of the foreign language

department. Before collecting the data, the researcher made sure that the

participants from regular and English program shared the same curriculum in their

previous English core courses. The letters of research collaboration informing about

the topic of the research, the instrument used, and the participants were formally

sent to every school. Schools were informed about the purposes of the research

and, later on, dates and times that the schools are suitable for were set. The

researcher himself visited every school in order to administer the questionnaire and

inform verbally about details of the research. Among the six schools, only one

school was able to arrange its two classes to distribute the questionnaires on the day

of the researcher's first presence. The rest of the schools were not convenient, so

the questionnaires were given to the staffs and later collected by appointments.

Data Analysis

Data analysis in the present study is divided into two types of statistics:

descriptive statistics and structural equation modeling (SEM).

First, descriptive statistics were computed using SPSS in order to answer

research question 1. Beliefs about language learning, proficiency, gender, and

educational context were reported in percentages. For beliefs, the levels of

agreement (strongly agree and agree) and disagreement (strongly disagree and

disagree) were grouped together in order to see the proportion and tendency of the answers. Thus, three groups of responses were reported in percentages: disagree, agree, and neutral. Language learning strategies were reported in mean and standard deviation based on the following criteria (Bowarnkitiwong, 2005).

4.51 – 5.00   means respondents use the strategy at the "highest" level

3.51 – 4.50   means respondents use the strategies at the "high" level

2.51 – 3.50   means respondents use the strategies at the "moderate" level

1.51 – 2.50   means respondents use the strategies at the "low" level

1.00 – 1.50   means respondents use the strategies at the "lowest" level

Next, the hypothesized model of relationships between beliefs about language learning, and language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context was tested by means of structural equation modeling. AMOS Program was used to generate and calculate the model of relationships between the five variables. In structural equation modeling, there are two component of model analyses: 1) measurement model and 2) structural model (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & J, 2006). At this stage, factor analysis on BALLI and SILL was calculated as part of structural equation model (measurement model). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used since the constructs of BALLI and SILL were specified with supporting theories. Thus, the goal of CFA was to "confirm" whether the prespecified constructs could represent the empirical data (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). This, furthermore, could ensure better model fit when analyzing the hypothesized model

(structural model). To justify the model fit, the results of confirmatory factor analysis should basically meet the following criteria (Vanijbancha, 2013):

CMIN/DF	should be less than 2.0
GFI	should be higher than .95
CFI	should be higher than .95
RMSEA	should be less than .05

In addition, the path estimates of factor loadings were checked whether each factor loading was zero (significant) by considering the critical ratios and p-value. C.R. (critical ratios) should be higher than 1.96 and P (p-value) should be less than 0.05.

Next, in order to justify the structural model, it is suggested that TLI, CFI, and RMSEA be fundamentally taken into consideration (Schreiber et al., 2006). Moreover, other indices should be used to assess different aspects of data: CMIN/DF, RMR, GFI, AGFI, NFI, and Hoelter (Vanijbancha, 2013). Therefore, in the present study, the following goodness of fit indices was considered.

CMIN/DF	Should be less than 2
Root Mean Residual (RMR)	Should be close to 0
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	Should be higher than 0.95

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)   Should be close to 0

Hoelter   Should be higher than 200

Next, chapter 4 presents the findings used to answer the two research

questions of the present study.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

In this chapter, findings from the data obtained from the questionnaire are described. These research findings are used to answer the two research questions:

1. What are beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students?

2. What is the model of relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students?

Research Question 1: What are Beliefs about Language Learning, Language Learning Strategies, Proficiency, Gender, and Educational Context of Thai Upper Secondary School Students?

Based on this research question, the present study aimed to investigate beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context among Thai upper secondary school students. Findings from research question 1 would contribute to clearer understanding of the overall descriptive data of the study. Furthermore, results presented in research question 1 can shed light on findings in research question 2 and account for better comprehensibility of the model.

Beliefs about Language Learning

In this section, the findings about five categories of beliefs about language learning are reported: 1) beliefs about foreign language aptitude, 2) beliefs about difficulty of language learning, 3) beliefs about nature of language learning, 4) beliefs about learning and communication strategies, and 5) beliefs about motivations and expectations.

Beliefs about foreign language aptitude

As shown in Table 4.1, Item 40 "Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language" obtained 73.1% of agreement and Item 2 "Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages" obtained 72.7%. Moreover, over fifty percent of the respondents agreed with the following items: Item 36 "People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages" (56.4%) and Item 1 "It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign languages" (51.3%). However, a number of respondents remained neutral on Item 4 "Thai people are good at learning foreign languages" (54.6%), Item 14 "I have a special ability for learning foreign languages" (45%), and Item 22 "Women are better than men at learning foreign languages" (43.7%).

Table 4.1

Percentages of Responses to BALLI Items: Foreign Language Aptitude (N = 458)

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	12.9	35.8	51.3
2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	8.7	18.6	72.7
4. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.	25.1	54.6	20.3
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.	16.3	37.1	46.5
14. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	22.1	45	33
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	35.2	43.7	21.2
36. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.	15.5	28.2	56.4
39. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.	16	35.6	48.4
40. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	7.9	19	73.1

Note. *The scales of 1 - 2 and 4 - 5 were grouped as disagree and agree, respectively*

In brief, the vast majority of Thai upper secondary school students reported that everyone is capable of learning to speak a foreign language, and they also believed that there is a special ability for learning foreign languages in some people. A considerable number of Thai upper secondary school students also believed that people who are good at mathematics and science are not good foreign language learners, and it is easier for children to learn a foreign language. The present study,

however, found an unclear trend of beliefs about Thais as good foreign language

learners, the possession of a special ability to learn a foreign language, and female

superiority in foreign language learning.

Beliefs about the difficulty of language learning

As presented in Table 4.2 it was found that Item 3 "Some languages are

easier to learn than others" (59%) and Item 5 "I believe that I will learn to speak

English very well." (55.9%) obtained the highest agreement. Furthermore, almost fifty

percent of the respondents agreed with Item 25 "It is easier to speak than

understand English" (49.1%). There was no clear trend in Item 33 "It is easier to read

and write English than to speak and understand it" as the respondents showed

varied responses: agree (36%), neutral (38.4%), and disagree (25.5%).

For the multiple-choice items, the following percentages were obtained:

Table 4.2

Percentages of Responses to BALLI Items: the Difficulty of Language Learning

(N = 458)

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.	11.3	29	59
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.	11.4	32.8	55.9
25. It is easier to speak than understand English.	12.5	38.4	49.1
33. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.	25.5	38.4	36

Note. The scales of 1 - 2 and 4 - 5 were grouped as disagree and agree, respectively

Table 4.3

Percentages of Responses to BALLI Multiple-choice Items: the Difficulty of Language

Learning (N = 458)

Statements	Responses
43. English is:	
- a very difficult language	4.1%
- a difficult language	34.7%
- a language of medium difficulty	48.7%
- an easy language	12%
- a very easy language	0.4%
44. If someone spent one hour learning English every day, how long would it take him or her to speak English well?	
- less than a year (20.7%)	20.7%
- 1-2 years (40.2%)	40.2%
- 3-5 years (23.1%)	23.1%
- 5-10 years (10.3%)	10.3%
- You can't learn a language in one hour a day (5.7%)	5.7%

According to Table 4.3, almost half of the respondents viewed English as "a language of medium difficulty" (48.7%), followed by "a difficult language" (34.7%).

For the estimated time to study English, the highest agreement was that it takes 1-2 years to speak English fluently given that someone engages in 1-hour of learning English per day (40.2%), followed by 3-5 years (23.1%), less than a year (20.7%), 5-10 years (10.3%), and impossibility to learn a English in one hour a day (5.7%).

In summary, the findings from beliefs about difficulty of language learning revealed that the majority of Thai upper secondary school viewed English as a language of medium difficulty, and it took one to two years to master English in case of 1-hour daily practice. Furthermore, they believed in the relative difficulty of certain languages and believed that they will learn to speak English very well.

Beliefs about the nature of language learning

As presented in Table 4.4, the findings of the beliefs about the nature of language learning showed that the majority (more than sixty percent) agreed with Item 17 "It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English" (68.6 %) and Item 7 "It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to

Table 4.4

Percentages of Responses to BALLI Items: the Nature of Language Learning (N = 458)

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
7. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.	9.3	26	64.6
10. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.	11.6	32.8	55.7

Table 4.4 (Continued)

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
12. In order to speak English, you have to think in English.	19.9	38.2	41.9
15. The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words.	11.6	29.9	58.5
17. It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English.	8	23.4	68.6
20. The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar.	26.4	38.2	35.3
27. I can learn a lot from non-native English teachers.	18.6	43.2	38.2
28. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.	11.8	33	55.2
30. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from Thai.	23.6	37.6	38.9

Note. The scales of 1 - 2 and 4 - 5 were grouped as disagree and agree, respectively

speak English" (64.6%). More than fifty percent of the respondents also agreed with

item no. 15 "The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary

words" (58.5%), Item 10 "It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country"

(55.7%), and Item 28 "Learning a foreign language is different from learning other

academic subjects" (55.2%). Item 20 "The most important part of learning English is

learning the grammar", Item 27 "I can learn a lot from non-native English teachers",

and Item 30 "The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate

from Thai" showed no clear trend of beliefs.

In short, most Thai upper secondary school students reported believing that it is better to have native-speakers of English as teachers, and they also believed that, in order to speak English, knowing about English-speaking cultures is necessary. Thai upper secondary school students reported that the learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning English, while there was no clear-cut beliefs about learning grammar and translation.

Beliefs about learning and communication strategies

In general, the majority of the respondents agreed with several statements in the category of beliefs about learning and communication strategies (see Table 4.5). First, the vast majority of the respondents (more than seventy percent) agreed with Item 8 "You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly" (75.7%) and Item 16 "It Is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning English" (70.3%), followed by Item 32 "I can find a lot of useful materials to practice English on the Internet" (68.3%), Item 21 "It is important to practice with multi-media" (65.3%), and Item 6 "It is important to speak English with an excellent accent" (63.3%). Moreover, more than half of the respondents agreed with the

Table 4.5

Percentages of Responses to BALLI Items: Learning and Communication Strategies

(N = 458)

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
6. It is important to speak English with an excellent accent.	12.7	24	63.3
8. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	7.8	16.4	75.7
11. I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet.	17.2	42.1	40.7
13. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in English.	13.9	33	53
16. It is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning English.	5.9	23.8	70.3
19. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	59.8	31.4	8.7
21. It is important to practice with multi-media.	8.7	26	65.3
24. I can learn a lot from group activities with other students in my English class.	10.5	37.8	51.8
29. It is possible to learn English on your own without a teacher or a class.	16.6	29.5	53.9
31. Students and teachers should only speak English during English classes.	14	30.8	55.3
32. I can find a lot of useful materials to practice English on the Internet.	7.2	24.5	68.3
34. I have to spend so much time preparing for big English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET, TOEFL), that I don't have time to actually learn English.	42.8	34.5	22.7

Note. The scales of 1 - 2 and 4 - 5 were grouped as disagree and agree, respectively

Table 4.5 (Continued)

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
35. It is important to speak English like a native speaker.	13.7	32.3	54
41. I feel timid speaking English with other people.	30.4	31.2	38.4
42. General Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of my English ability.	42.8	38.2	19

Note. The scales of 1 - 2 and 4 - 5 were grouped as disagree and agree, respectively

following items: Item 31 "Students and teachers should only speak English during

English classes" (55.3%), Item 35 "It is important to speak English like a native

speakers" (54%), Item 29 "It is possible to learn English on your own without a

teacher or a class" (53.9%), Item 13 "It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in

English" (53%), and Item 24 "I can learn a lot from group activities with other

students in my English class" (51.8%), respectively. For Item 19 "If beginning students

are permitted to make error in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly

later on", the majority (59.8%) disagreed with the statement. In regard to the issue

about English tests, it revealed that the respondents (42.8%) disagreed with Item 34

"I have to spend so much time preparing for big English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET,

TOEFL), that I don't have time to actually learn English" and Item 42 "General

Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of

my English ability".

In summary, the vast majority of Thai upper secondary school students

believed that one should not say anything in English until he/she can say it correctly,

and they thought that it is a good idea to practice speaking with other English

learners. They also believed that it is important to practice English with multi-media

and to speak English with an excellent accent. However, the majority of them

disagreed that it will be difficult for beginners to speak correctly later on if they are

permitted to make errors.

Beliefs about motivations and expectations

In regard to the category of beliefs about motivations and expectations (see

Table 4.6), the majority of the respondents agreed with all statements. The vast

majority endorsed Item 23 "I want to speak English well" (77.1%), followed by Item

18 "If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good

job" (76.7%). In addition, a large number of the respondents (more than sixty

percent) agreed with the rest of the items as follows: Item 38 "I would like to have

English speaking friends" (67.5%), Item 37 "Thai people feel that it is important to

speak English" (65.1%), and Item 26 "I would like to learn English so that I can get to

know English speakers" (61.8%), respectively.

Table 4.6

Percentages of Responses to BALLI Items: Motivations and Expectations (N = 458)

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
18. If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.	6.5	16.8	76.7
23. I want to speak English well.	6.4	16.6	77.1
26. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know English speakers.	8.1	30.1	61.8
37. Thai people feel that it is important to speak English.	12.2	22.7	65.1
38. I would like to have English speaking friends.	7.7	24.9	67.5

Note. The scales of 1 - 2 and 4 - 5 were grouped as disagree and agree, respectively

In brief, the present study found that Thai upper secondary school students had high motivation to speak English well, and they also believed that if they master the speaking skill, they will have better career opportunities.

Language Learning Strategies

The average scores of items in Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) are presented. There is a total of 50 items of SILL in six categories including memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. As presented in Table 4.7, all the six categories of language learning strategies were used at the moderate level.

Table 4.7

Averages of Responses to SILL categories (N = 458)

	Categories	*M*	S.D.	Level
Direct strategies	Memory strategies	3.14	0.62	Moderate
	Cognitive strategies	3.23	0.60	Moderate
	Compensation strategies	3.30	0.67	Moderate
Indirect strategies	Metacognitive strategies	3.36	0.65	Moderate
	Affective strategies	3.03	0.72	Moderate
	Social strategies	3.36	0.73	Moderate

However, among the six categories, metacognitive and social strategies obtained the highest mean score (*M* = 3.36), while affective strategies obtained the lowest mean score (*M* = 3.03).

Memory Strategies

In memory strategies (see Table 4.8), findings showed that all strategy items were used at the moderate level. Considering the mean scores, memory strategies obtaining the highest mean score were Item 3 "I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word" and Item 4 "I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used" (*M* = 3.33). However, Item 7 "I physically act out new

Table 4.8

Averages of Responses to SILL Items: Memory Strategies (N = 458)

Statements	*M*	S.D.	Level
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	3.15	.91	Moderate
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	3.29	.92	Moderate
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.	3.33	.98	Moderate
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	3.33	.98	Moderate
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	3.16	1.04	Moderate
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	3.00	1.03	Moderate
7. I physically act out new English words.	2.85	1.05	Moderate
8. I review English lessons often.	3.05	1.00	Moderate
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	3.18	1.11	Moderate

English words" obtained the lowest mean score (*M* = 2.85).

Cognitive strategies

As shown in Table 4.9, most strategy items were used at the moderate level except Item 15 which was used at the high level. When comparing the mean scores,

Table 4.9

Averages of Responses to SILL Items: Cognitive Strategies (N = 458)

Statements	*M*	S.D.	Level
10. I say or write new English words several times.	3.07	.95	Moderate
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.	3.48	1.01	Moderate
12. I practice the sounds of English.	3.43	.99	Moderate
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.	3.31	9.17	Moderate
14. I start conversations in English.	3.17	.98	Moderate
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	3.61	1.06	High
16. I read for pleasure in English.	3.21	1.07	Moderate
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	3.01	1.08	Moderate
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	3.28	1.06	Moderate
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.04	1.04	Moderate
20. I try to find patterns in English.	3.16	1.00	Moderate
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3.38	.97	Moderate
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.	3.30	1.08	Moderate
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	2.90	1.02	Moderate

Item 15 "I watch English language TV show spoken in English or go to movies spoken

in English" (*M* = 3.61) obtained the highest mean score. Nevertheless, it was found

that Item 23 "I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English"

obtained the lowest mean score (*M* = 2.90).

Compensation strategies

As presented in Table 4.10, findings of compensation strategies showed the

moderate use of most strategy items except Item 25 which was used at the high

level. In regard to the mean scores, Item 25 "When I can't think of a word during a

conversation in English, I use gestures" (*M* = 3.52) obtained the highest mean score,

Table 4.10

Averages of Responses to SILL Items: Compensation Strategies (N = 458)

Statements	*M*	S.D.	Level
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guess.	3.48	.98	Moderate
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	3.52	1.07	High
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	2.69	1.14	Moderate
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	3.34	1.03	Moderate

Table 4.10 (Continued)

Statements	*M*	S.D.	Level
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	3.39	.96	Moderate
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	3.43	1.02	Moderate

while Item 26 "I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English" (*M* = 2.69) obtained the lowest mean score.

Metacognitive strategies

Regarding metacognitive strategies (see Table 4.11), the present study found that most strategy items were used at the moderate level except Item 32 which was used at the high level. Comparing the mean scores, the highest mean score of strategies was Item 32 "I pay attention when someone is speaking English" (*M* =

Table 4.11

Averages of Responses to SILL Items: Metacognitive Strategies (N = 458)

Statements	*M*	S.D.	Level
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	3.41	.96	Moderate
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	3.41	.95	Moderate

Table 4.11 (Continued)

Statements	*M*	S.D.	Level
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	3.60	.91	High
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	3.50	.91	Moderate
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	3.08	1.02	Moderate
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	3.13	1.05	Moderate
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	3.26	.98	Moderate
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	3.41	1.04	Moderate
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	3.46	1.05	Moderate

3.60). However, Item 35 "I look for People I can talk to in English" obtained the

lowest mean score (*M* = 3.13).

Affective strategies

In the category of affective strategies (see Table 4.12), all strategy items were

used at the moderate level. Looking at the mean scores, the highest mean score of

strategies was Item 40 "I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of

making a mistake" (*M* = 3.40). However, Item 43 "I write down my feelings in a

language learning diary" (*M* = 2.63) obtained the lowest mean score.

Table 4.12

Averages of Responses to SILL Items: Affective Strategies (N = 458)

Statements	*M*	S.D.	Level
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	3.34	1.03	Moderate
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	3.40	1.06	Moderate
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	2.98	1.10	Moderate
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	3.04	1.44	Moderate
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	2.63	1.21	Moderate
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2.89	1.10	Moderate

Social strategies

In the category of social strategies (see Tale 4.13), Item 45, 46, 47, and 49 were used at the moderate level, while Item 48 and 50 were used at the high level. Taken into consideration the mean scores, Item 50 "I try to learn about the culture of English speakers" (*M* = 3.62) obtained the highest mean scores. However, item 49 "I ask questions in English" (*M* = 3.13) obtained the lowest mean score.

Table 4.13

Averages of Responses to SILL Items: Social Strategies (N = 458)

Statements	M	S.D.	Level
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	3.44	1.01	Moderate
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	3.26	1.08	Moderate
47. I practice English with other students.	3.24	.99	Moderate
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	3.53	1.02	High
49. I ask questions in English.	3.13	1.07	Moderate
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	3.62	1.08	High

In conclusion, generally the present study found that Thai upper secondary school students used all types of strategies in the moderate level. However, when considering the mean scores of each category, metacognitive strategies and social strategies obtained the highest mean scores, while affective strategies obtained the lowest mean score.

Proficiency

Thai upper secondary school students' proficiency was obtained from the grade obtained from the previous English core courses. Based on the proficiency was presented in Figure 4.1, the majority of Thai upper secondary school students obtained good grades. The largest group of students obtained 4.00 (26%), followed by 3.00 (24.5%), 3.50 (19.7%), 2.00 (13.1%), 2.50 (11.4%), 1.50 (2.8%), and 1.00 (2.6%). The present study also explored the number of students between regular and English program in terms of their proficiency levels (see Table 4.14). Furthermore, the proficiency levels are divided into high and low proficiency groups. Thai upper secondary school students who obtained the grade between 3.50 to 4.00 were put into high proficiency group (N = 209), while those who obtained the grade between 1.00 to 1.50 were considered as low proficiency group (N =25).
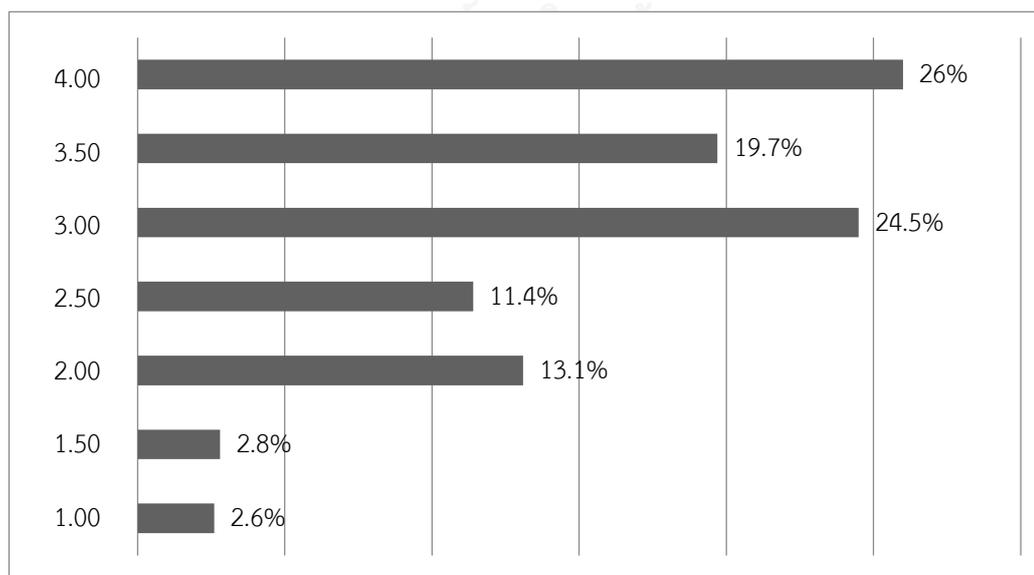
Figure 4.1. Percentages of Proficiency Levels (N = 458)

Table 4.14

No. of Students in regular/English program by proficiency levels

Grades	Regular Program	English Program	Total
4.00	55	64	119
3.50	58	32	90
3.00	66	46	112
2.50	22	30	52
2.00	33	27	60
1.50	7	6	13
1.00	6	6	12

Gender

The present study explored two groups of gender between males and females. The number of female students exceeded the number of male students as the proportion of gender was higher in female group (62.4%), while the rest were male students (37.6%). Comparing between regular and English program, there were 48.3% of male students and 57.8% of female students in regular program, while there were 51.7% of male students and 42.7% of female students in English program.

Educational Context

Regarding educational context, the two different programs, regular and English programs differ in terms of the medium of instruction which consequently affects the exposure to the English language between the two programs. The regular program uses Thai as a medium of instruction except English subjects, while English program uses English as a medium of instruction except Thai and Social Study.

Research Question 2: What is The Model of Relationships between Beliefs about Language Learning, Language Learning Strategies, Proficiency, Gender, and Educational Context of Thai Upper Secondary School Students?

To answer the research question, results from multivariate data analysis by means of structural equation modeling (SEM) were reported. As a first step before analyzing SEM, factor analysis on beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies was performed for a better fit in SEM model since there are a lot of categories of beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies. To elaborate, confirmatory factor analysis was analyzed here in order to ensure the constructs at the level of measurement model. After that, at the level of structural model, the results of the model of relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context was illustrated.

This following section describes how confirmatory factor analysis was performed on both beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies. Findings of both were presented.

Confirmatory factor analysis of beliefs about language learning

Beliefs about language learning consist of five categories. Hence, there were five observed variables, and the CFA results were presented in Figure 4.2. Based on Figure 4.2, the five observed variables namely *difficulty of language learning*, *foreign language aptitude*, *nature of language learning*, *learning and communication strategies*, and *motivations and expectations* were represented by rectangles. After
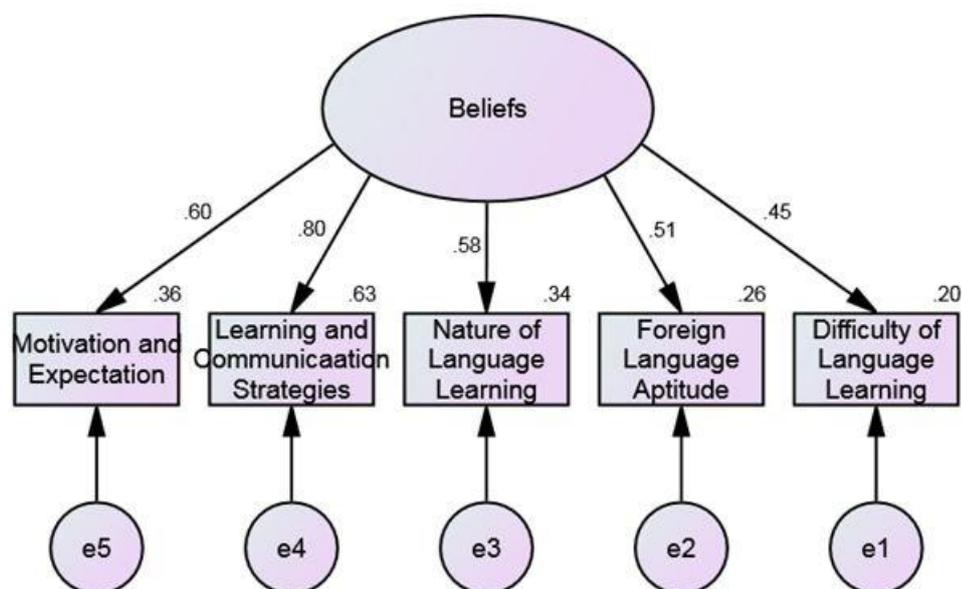
Figure 4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of Beliefs about Language Learning

analyzing the data, beliefs about language learning received the following model fit results: CMIN/DF = 2.64, GFI = .98, CFI = .98, and RMSEA = .06. Considering these results, only CMIN/DF did not meet the criteria (< 2.0). Next, both GFI and CFI passed the minimum criteria, obtaining more than .95. Finally, RMSEA slightly did not achieve the model fit (< .05).

To justify beliefs CFA, the path estimates of all factor loadings were checked. Based on Table 4.15, factor loadings were high and significant as C.R. was higher than 1.96 and P = ***, meaning that P is very close to zero. Therefore, it was concluded that the overall fit of the model was satisfactory at a significance level of 0.05.

Table 4.15

Path Estimates of Beliefs about Language Learning

	Indicator		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Difficulty	<---	Beliefs	1.000			
Foreign	<---	Beliefs	.797	.113	7.050	***
Nature	<---	Beliefs	1.029	.137	7.497	***
Learning	<---	Beliefs	1.114	.138	8.102	***
Motivation	<---	Beliefs	1.605	.211	7.597	***

Confirmatory factor analysis of language learning strategies

Like beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies were

investigated by means of confirmatory factor analysis since SILL 7.0 was adopted and

its original categories were maintained. Language Learning Strategies in the present

study comprise six constructs as follows: *memory strategies, cognitive strategies,*

compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and *social*

strategies. Accordingly, there were six observed variables as shown in Fig. 4.3.

At first, the factor analysis of strategies did not achieve the minimum fit. The

modification indices were consequently reconsidered. In order to modify the model,

the modification indices suggested the measurement errors which are represented by

round shapes should be allowed to correlate. Based on Figure 4.3, the following

measurement errors were modified: E1 and E2, E2 and E3, and E5 and E6. The
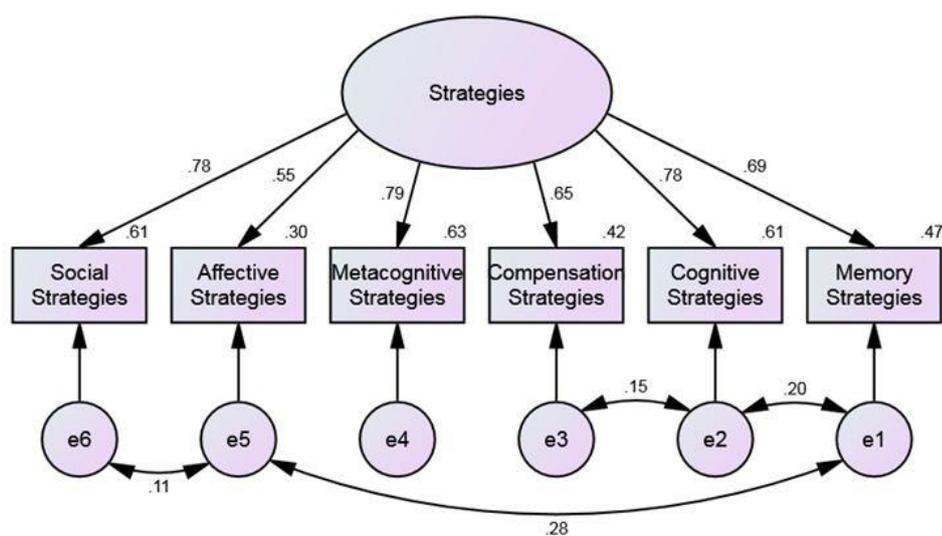
Figure 4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model of Language Learning Strategies

revised model was found to have better fit with CMIN/DF = 1.70, GFI = .99, CFI = .99,

and RMSEA = .03. Considering these indices, the minimum criteria were achieved as

CMIN/DF was less than 2.0, GFI and CFI were higher than .95, and RMSEA was less

than .05.

To ensure the model fit, the factor loadings were examined by considering

the path estimates. Table 4.16 illustrates that, like beliefs about language learning,

C.R. was all higher than 1.96 and P = *** which mean the critical ratios were

statistically significant.

On the next stage, results of confirmatory factor analysis on beliefs about

language learning and language learning strategies, as measurement models, were

taken to be further analyzed in structural equation model which is a structural

model.

Table 4.16

Path Estimates of Language Learning Strategies

	Indicator		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Memory	<---	Strategies	1.000			
Cognitive	<---	Strategies	1.098	.069	15.844	***
Compensation	<---	Strategies	1.026	.086	11.895	***
Metacognitive	<---	Strategies	1.224	.087	14.135	***
Affective	<---	Strategies	.948	.081	11.639	***

Structural Equation Modeling

Considering the hypothesized model of the present study, the relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context were drawn using AMOS Program. The following criteria were used in order to justify the model fit:

CMIN/DF	Should be less than 2
Root Mean Residual (RMR)	Should be close to 0
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	Should be higher than 0.95
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	Should be close to 0
Hoelter	Should be higher than 200

Considering the relationships according to the research hypothesized model, the relationship between beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies is represented by a two-headed arrow, suggesting an interrelationship between the two variables. In AMOS, however, the two-headed arrow cannot be drawn as beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies are both unobserved variables. Hence, a non-recursive relationship was used to be calculated

in AMOS instead, representing by two one-headed arrows from beliefs to strategies and from strategies to beliefs.

As mentioned earlier about the non-recursive relationship between beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies, AMOS could not calculate or generate the model results with both one-headed arrows between beliefs and strategies. The researcher's attempt, consequently, was to draw a single arrow from beliefs to strategies and vice versa one at a time in order to see which direction obtained more factor loadings. Consequently, two models were compared and justified by considering factor loadings (standardized regression weights), the fit indices, and the Chi-square (X^2). As a result, despite the equivalent factor loadings and fit indices, the selected final model (see Figure. 4.4) received relatively lower Chi-square ($X^2 = 95.679$), meaning a better fit.

Based on the model shown in Figure 4.4, the relationship from language learning strategies to beliefs about language learning was assessed. The relationship received the factor loading of - 0.05, suggesting an insignificant negative effect. In terms of the goodness of fit, the model fit indices were satisfactory given that the following criteria were achieved:

CMIN/DF = 1.42

Root Mean Residual (RMR) = 0.011

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.972

Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	= 0.957
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	= 0.947
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	= 0.977
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	= 0.983
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	= 0.031
Hoelter	= 417

Regarding the fit indices, the relative chi-square of the model is not higher than 2 which is acceptable (CMIN/DF = 1.428). Next, RMR (Root Mean Residual) and RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) are both close to zero: 0.011 and

Figure 4.4. Results for the structural equation model and standardized factor loadings (N = 458) CMIN/DF = 1.42, P = 0.012, CFI = 0.983, RMSEA = 0.031, GFI = 0.972, AGFI = 0.957, and Hoelter = 417.

0.031 respectively. Some other indices namely GFI (Goodness of Fit Index), AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index), NFI (Normed Fit Index), TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index), and CFI (Comparative Fit Index) exceed 0.95, except NFI (0.947) which is still very close to 0.95. Lastly, the satisfactory fit is achieved as the sample size is adequately large for the actual data because Hoelter is higher than 200 (Hoelter = 417).

To verify significant relationships, details of the estimates presented in Table 4.17 are considered statistically significant by considering C.R. (> 1.96) and P (< 0.05). Therefore, there are two estimates which meet the criteria: the effect of beliefs about language learning on educational context (program) (C.R. = 4.301, P = ***) and the effect of beliefs about language learning on proficiency (grade) (C.R. = 4.337, P = ***).

Table 4.17

Path Estimates of the Structural Equation Model

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Beliefs	<---	Gender	.030	.024	1.265	.206
Beliefs	<---	Edu Context	.113	.026	4.301	***
Proficiency	<---	Beliefs	.938	.216	4.337	***
Strategies	<---	Gender	-.003	.045	-.068	.945
Strategies	<---	Edu Context	-.006	.045	-.142	.887
Strategies	<---	Proficiency	.017	.028	.598	.550
Strategies	<---	Beliefs	-.098	.122	-.801	.423

Note: See full table on Appendix E.

After the significant effects were identified, the extent to which one variable affects another is assessed by looking at direct effects (see Table 4.18). The model identifies two positive significant relationships. Educational context (Program) has a positive direct effect on beliefs about language learning (P = 0.257), and beliefs about language learning have a positive direct effect on proficiency (Grade) (P = 0.258). Other insignificant effects were as follows: the effect of gender on beliefs (P = 0.066), the effect of gender on strategies (P = - 0.003), the effect of educational

Table 4.18

Standardized Direct Effects of the Structural Equation Model

	Edu Context	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Beliefs	.257	.066	.000	.000	.000
Proficiency	.000	.000	.258	.000	.000
Strategies	-.008	-.003	-.050	.032	.000
Social	.000	.000	.000	.000	.783
Affective	.000	.000	.000	.000	.548
Metacognitive	.000	.000	.000	.000	.795
Compensation	.000	.000	.000	.000	.647
Cognitive	.000	.000	.000	.000	.782
Memory	.000	.000	.000	.000	.687
Motivation	.000	.000	.607	.000	.000
Learning	.000	.000	.814	.000	.000
Nature	.000	.000	.571	.000	.000
Foreign	.000	.000	.496	.000	.000
Difficulty	.000	.000	.418	.000	.000

context on strategies (P = - 0.008), the effect of proficiency on strategies (P = - 0.032), and the effect of beliefs on strategies (P = - 0.050).

In brief, the present study found that the educational context or the difference in the medium of instruction (Thai and English) in Regular and English Program had a direct effect on beliefs about language learning of Thai upper secondary school students. Their beliefs about language learning, in turn, were found to yield a direct effect on their proficiency. Other relationships were not significant.

Apart from the identification of the direct effects, structural equation modeling explores indirect effects where one variable affects another through a mediating variable (Schreiber et al., 2006); however, it should be noted that, unlike direct effects which causal relationship is specified, indirect effects cannot be considered as casual without further investigation (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, n.d.).

As presented in Table 4.19, all indirect effects were below 0.10, except indirect effects from educational context (program) on all subcategories of beliefs about language learning. The indirect effect of educational context on beliefs about difficulty of language learning was at 0.107. The indirect effect of educational context on beliefs about foreign language aptitude was at 0.127. The indirect effect of educational context on beliefs about nature of language learning was at 0.147. The indirect effect of educational context on beliefs about learning and communication

strategies was at 0.209. The indirect effect of educational context on beliefs about

motivations and expectations was at 0.156.

In brief, indirect effects that are comparatively prominent were from the

educational context of Thai upper secondary school students to all categories of

beliefs about language learning. Among these indirect effects from educational

context, the strongest effect was on beliefs about learning and communication

strategies, while the least indirect effect was on beliefs about difficulty of language

learning.

Table 4.19

Standardized Indirect Effects of the Structural Equation Model

	Edu Context	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Beliefs	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Proficiency	.066	.017	.000	.000	.000
Strategies	-.011	-.003	.008	.000	.000
Social	-.014	-.005	-.033	.025	.000
Affective	-.010	-.003	-.023	.017	.000
Metacognitive	-.015	-.005	-.033	.025	.000
Compensation	-.012	-.004	-.027	.020	.000
Cognitive	-.014	-.005	-.033	.025	.000
Memory	-.013	-.004	-.029	.022	.000
Motivation	.156	.040	.000	.000	.000
Learning	.209	.054	.000	.000	.000
Nature	.147	.038	.000	.000	.000
Foreign	.127	.033	.000	.000	.000
Difficulty	.107	.028	.000	.000	.000

Considering the direct effects found in the present study, it can be seen that educational context has both direct and indirect effects on beliefs about language learning. However, indirect effect of educational context on proficiency through beliefs as a mediating variable was not very strong.

Based on the findings from the structural equation modeling, Figure 4.5 shows the final model with two significant relationship represented by solid lines: 1) the relationship between educational context and beliefs about language learning and the relationship between beliefs about language learning and proficiency. In addition, five insignificant relationships are represented by dashed lines as follows: 1) the
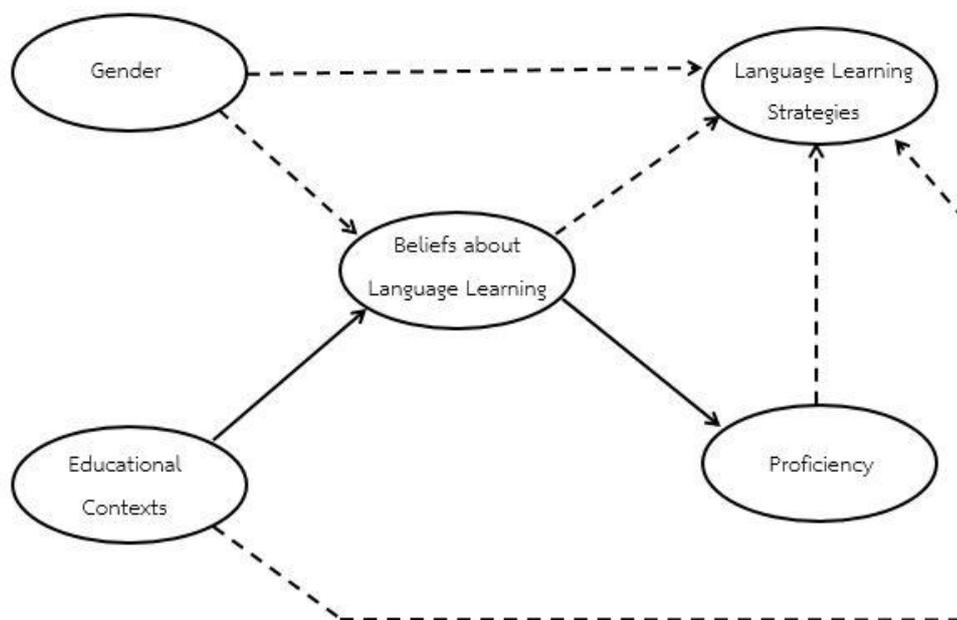
Figure 4.5. The final model of relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context

relationship between gender and beliefs about language learning, 2) the relationship

between gender and language learning strategies, 3) the relationship between beliefs

about language learning and language learning strategies, 4) the relationship between

proficiency and language learning strategies, and 5) the relationship between

educational context and language learning strategies.

Next, Chapter 5 reports the summary of the findings with the researcher's

explanations. The chapter also includes the limitations of the study, implications for

English language teaching, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter summarizes the overall research study and discusses the findings

from chapter 4. The chapter also includes limitations of the study, pedagogical

implications, and suggestions for further study.

Summary of the Study

The present study aimed to investigate beliefs about language learning,

language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context as well as

to propose the model of relationships between these five variables. 458 twelfth

grade students from six schools which had similar educational context under Bangkok

Secondary Educational Service Area 1 and 2 participated in the study. The

questionnaire consisting of three parts including the demographic information which

consists of proficiency (the students' GPAs), gender (male and female), and

educational context (Regular and English programs). The modified Thai versions of

Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) and Strategy Inventory for

Language Learning (SILL) was used to elicit Thai upper secondary school students'

beliefs about language learning (i.e. foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language

learning, nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and

motivations and expectations), language learning strategies (i.e. memory strategies,

cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective

strategies, and social strategies).

Regarding the two research questions of the present study, different statistics was used in order to obtain the findings. First, descriptive statistics including percentage, mean, and standard deviation was used to analyze data from research question 1. Second, by means of structural equation modeling, the hypothesized model was tested based on the following hypothesis of the study: *The hypothesized model is fitted with the empirical data.* The Major findings are summarized as follows:

Research Question 1: What are beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students?

First of all, the data from the demographic information revealed that the majority of Thai upper secondary school students who obtained the GPA of 3.50 to 4.00 were in high proficiency group. Those who obtained the GPA of 1.00 to 1.50 were in low proficiency group. Regarding gender, the majority (about sixty percent) were female students. The number of students from each program was quite comparable (about fifty percent).

Beliefs about Language Learning

Beliefs about foreign language aptitude. In the present study, most of the respondents believed that everyone is able to learn to speak a foreign language. They also believed that a special ability for foreign language learning exists. However,

it was found that the majority were neutral whether they themselves possessed such special ability and were neutral that Thai people are good at language learning. The respondents also believed that it is easier for young learners to learn a foreign language, but no consensus of female superiority was made in the present study.

Beliefs about difficulty of language learning. It was found that most of Thai upper secondary school students viewed English as a rather moderately difficult language. In addition, it was found that the majority of the students believed it takes only one or two years to learn to speak English with only one-hour daily practice. They, moreover, believed that they can learn to speak English well.

Beliefs about nature of language learning. In this category of beliefs, the vast majority of Thai upper secondary school students believed that it is important to learn the cultures of English speakers in order to speak English. The majority of the students also agreed that learning in English-speaking countries are important. They also agreed that vocabulary is important but remain neutral about grammar and translation.

Beliefs about learning and communication strategies. The present study found that the majority of Thai upper secondary school students agreed that it is important to speak English with excellent accent. Furthermore, they emphasized multi-media practice. They believed that if ones still cannot speak English, he/she should not say it.

Beliefs about motivations and expectations. The beliefs about motivations and expectations were agreed by the vast majority of the respondents as they wanted to speak English well, believed that good English speaking skills will result in better job opportunities.

Language Learning Strategies

In general, findings revealed that Thai upper secondary school students reported using all categories of language learning strategies in the moderate level. However, when comparing the mean scores between the six categories, it was found that the metacognitive strategies and social strategies obtained highest mean scores (M = 3.36). Affective strategies, meanwhile, obtained the lowest mean score (M = 3.03).

Memory strategies. It was found that, all items of memory strategies were used at the moderate level. Based on the highest mean score of memory strategy item, Thai upper secondary school students reported connecting the sound and the image of the vocabulary and created the mental picture of the situation of the new word they are learning. On the contrary, the statement "I physically act out new English words" obtained the lowest mean score.

Cognitive strategies. In this strategy category, Thai upper secondary school students reported using most cognitive strategies at the moderate level. However, regarding the mean scores, watching English TV programs and movies obtained the highest mean score. Among all cognitive strategy items, the lowest mean score of

cognitive strategy item was making summaries of what they learn as well as writing notes in English.

Compensation strategies. It was found that the use of most compensation strategies by Thai upper secondary school students was mostly at the moderate level, except guessing when encountering unfamiliar words which was at the high level and obtained the highest mean score. Nevertheless, creating a new word to be used instead of the right one obtained the lowest mean score.

Metacognitive strategies. For most metacognitive strategy items, Thai upper secondary school reported the moderate level of use except paying attention whenever someone is speaking English which was at the high level and obtained the highest mean score. However, item no. 34 "I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English" obtained the lowest mean score.

Affective strategies. Findings revealed that Thai upper secondary school students used all affective strategy items at the moderate level. Considering the mean scores, "I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake obtained the highest mean score. According to the lowest mean score, the students reported writing down how they feel in the language learning diary.

Social strategies. It was found that most social strategies were used at the moderate level. Only two strategy items which are trying to learn the culture of English speakers and asking English speakers when they need help were used at the high level. When looking at the mean scores, Item 50 "I try to learn about the

culture of English speakers" obtained the highest mean score. Nevertheless, Item 49

"I ask questions in English" obtained the lowest mean score.

**Research Question 2: What is the model of relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school students?**

Findings from the structural equation modeling revealed that two relationships were statistically significant. First, educational context had a direct effect on beliefs about language learning. Second, beliefs about language learning were found to influence proficiency. The other hypothesized relationships were not statistically significant: 1) educational context and strategies, 2) gender and beliefs, 3) gender and strategies, 4) proficiency and strategies, and 5) beliefs and strategies.

Discussions

In this section, the findings about Thai upper secondary school students' patterns of beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies and the two the significant relationships between educational contexts and beliefs about language learning and between beliefs about language learning and proficiency are discussed in light of previous studies. Also, other insignificant relationships as presented above were discussed.

Beliefs about Language Learning of Thai Upper Secondary School Students

Regarding the participants' beliefs about foreign language aptitude, the concept of special ability for foreign language learning exist for some people. These

patterns of beliefs have been found in other studies of Thai learners including non-

English major undergraduates and graduates (Jones & Gardner, 2009), freshmen

(Fujiwara, 2011). These beliefs were also found in Chinese non-English major

graduates in Tang and Tien (2014). Apart from language learners, it was found that

pre-service EFL teachers had these beliefs as well (Vibulphol, 2004). When

concerning their own possession of this gifted ability, the beliefs vary slightly. The

majority of learners in the present study (see also Fujiwara, 2011; Tang & Tian, 2014)

did not think they hold this innate advantage; however, half of the pre-service

teachers in Vibulphol (2004) and a considerable number of Thai university students

in Jones and Gardner (2009) reported having the ability. It seems clear that learners

across contexts and levels possess the same aptitude about language learning as

they believe in the special ability to learn a language.

Despite the fact that some learners might be aware of the absence of such

ability, still they believed everyone has the potential to learn to speak a foreign

language which possibly leads to a positive viewpoint of learning a language.

However, the foreign language aptitude of the nationality group (Thai) yields notable

consideration. Even though some studies did not address this particular belief (Jones

& Gardners, 2009; Tang & Tien, 2014), Thai learners in Vibulphol (2004) and Fujiwara

(2011) showed neutrality to believe that Thais are good foreign language learners

which is consistent with the present study. According to Horwitz (1988), if they view

that a certain group of people, in this case Thai people, are not potential successful

foreign language learners, the beliefs about foreign language aptitude can yield

negative results in foreign language learning. Thus, they might feel that they, as

members of that group, may not succeed in language learning either. This can,

consequently, impede their long-term study.

In regard to the potentially successful characteristics of language learners in

terms of age, gender, and academic orientations (math/science and language), the

participants believed it is easier for in younger age, language-oriented people to learn

a foreign language, while the issue of gender difference showed an unclear trend. A

consistent pattern is identified as certain studies showed a clear trend in the beliefs

that young learners are better than adults, while there is no consensus of female

superiority. It is also evident that most learners (Fujiwara, 2011; Tang & Tien, 2014)

and pre-service teachers (Vibulphol, 2004) did not think math or science people are

not good at languages. The reported belief of child superiority, thus, goes with the

popular notion that children as language learners have several advantages over

adults (Brown, 2000). Brown, however, argues that this popular belief conceals the

fact that children take a lot of "cognitive and affective effort" (p. 87) in language

acquisition. Also, Brown suggests that adults themselves possess a lot of beneficial

qualifications such as adult's remarkable thinking process in classroom context. Since

no gender difference consensus was made, it is reasonable to assume that Thai

upper secondary school students believed that both males and females can be

potentially successful learners. In spite of the common trend of beliefs in female

better performance in Brown (2006) and Ellis (1994) studies. Ellis pointed out that several studies have found conflicting outcomes, underlining the inconclusive trend. After all, it is viable that viewing neither gender as more superior is beneficial to language learning. Next, the belief about the unique system of language learning possibly accounts for the belief that math or science people will not do well in languages. Drawing a comparison between the reported beliefs supports this explanation as the majority of Thai students in the present study endorsed their belief that foreign language learning is unique from other subjects.

Considering the difficulty of the English language, Thai upper secondary school students in the present study, Thai graduate students (Jones & Gardner, 2009), Thai first-year undergraduates (Fujiwara, 2011) as well as Thai pre-service teachers (Vibulphol, 2004) viewed English as a moderately difficult language. However, Thai undergraduates in Jones and Gardner thought English is rather easy, while most Chinese EFL graduates in Tang and Tien viewed English as a difficult language. Horwitz (1988) suggested that viewing a target language as a language of medium difficulty is positive to language learning as she asserts that believing a language as rather easy can confuse learners when their learning is at some point delayed. In regard to the estimation of the amount of time to learn English, findings varied as Thai upper secondary school students in the present study as well as freshmen in Fujiwara (2011) seemed to underestimate the acquisition period to within a few years. Nevertheless, Thai learners in Vibulphol (2004) and Jones and Gardner (2009)

showed different findings. Both undergraduates and graduates in Jones and Gardner thought five years is the minimum. Similarly, the concept of the estimated time to master a foreign language can be detrimental if they believed that it takes a large amount of time to acquire a foreign language (Horwitz, 1988). It can be seen that all levels of Thai learners held a realistic belief about English difficulty but underestimated the appropriate amount of time except for more experienced group like pre-service teachers during their practice teaching courses (Vibulphol, 2004) and graduate students in Jones and Gardner (2009) who might have more reasonable judgement on the length of language acquisition. The results, therefore, significantly serves as a pivotal point of consideration for teachers to rectify judgement of this improbable estimation.

The participants' beliefs of the nature of language learning supported the learning of the cultures of the English-speakers and vocabulary, but there was no clear trend in grammar and translation learning. According to Thai and Chinese learners' views of nature of language learning (Jones & Gardner, 2009; Fujiwara, 2011, Tang & Tien, 2014) and Thai pre-service teachers (Vibulphol, 2004), it is obvious that their emphasis is largely on culture learning and vocabulary. However, learning how to translate was not endorsed by the learners as no consensus was made in some studies (Jones & Gardner, 2009; Fujiwara, 2011), while disagreement was found in Vibulphol (2004) and Tang and Tien (2014). In terms of grammar, it seems that the belief pattern might have changed. In recent years, the present study as well as

Fujiwara (2011) and Tang and Tien (2014) found uncertainty of learning grammar, while learners and pre-service teachers in earlier years (Jones & Gardner, 2009; Vibulphol, 2004) still supported the idea. This different trend of belief about grammar might be accounted for the growing significance of English as a tool in EFL contexts, the increasing awareness of the communicative competence, job requirements, and the new learning goals and objectives ascribed in the 2008 Basic Education Core Curriculum. As suggested by Horwitz, these particular statements of nature of language learning can be a predictor of how students are likely to exert themselves to different priorities. In this case, Thai upper secondary school students, are possibly inclined to spend time memorizing vocabulary words. However, they will not likely devote most of their time merely to remember grammar rules or translating from Thai to English.

In regard to beliefs about learning and communication strategies, Thai students in the present study as well as Jones and Gardner (2009) clearly put emphasis on having an excellent accent. This shows that Thai students may prefer to study with teachers who have good accent, particularly the native speakers of English and try to practice English with good accent. For some students who might not acquire their desired accents, it is important for them to note that people's accents are normally unique and varied. If they rely too much on accent, it might at some point be discouraging for some students when they do not sound like native speakers even if they might have acquired proper accuracy and fluency as an EFL

learner. Thus, in some cases, it is not crucially necessary to acquire an excellent accent considering their goals of language learning and the growing significance of English as an international language. Next, despite using different terms such as cassettes or tapes (Tang & Tien, 2014; Vibulphol, 2004) and audio visuals (Fujiwara, 2011), the beliefs about practicing with various tools are still prevalent. It is therefore apparent that in the age of information technology, Thai upper secondary school students are aware of such availability and are quite active to find ways to improve their language learning by means of online and other learning tools. Moreover, their positively-held belief about classroom communication can lead them to real communicative use of English, especially if communication is the primary goal of the course where English is the main classroom language (Davies & Pearse, 2000).

Controversy over making errors in spoken English is found across the studies, and the present study found conflicting beliefs of Thai upper secondary school student in a way that beginners are allowed to make errors but we should not speak English until we can speak it correctly. The belief that people should not speak English until they can accurately speak it, no clear-cut pattern is found across the studies. Thai upper secondary school students as well as first-year students in Fujiwara (2011) and EFL graduate students in Tang & Tien (2014) supported the idea that one should wait for his/her spoken English to be grammatically correct before speaking English. However, the other two studies showed disagreement (Jones & Gardner, 2009; Vibulphol, 2004). Regarding beginners of English, pre-service teachers

in Vibulphol (2004) showed no consensus and freshmen in Fujiwara (2011) disagreed

with the belief. Thus, it is possible that learners from across levels are still skeptical

about the early stage of learning and permission of errors. Based on this conception

of language errors, it seems that a number of learners still hold mistaken beliefs. In

second language acquisition, errors are common and are part of L2 acquisition and

development, and researchers, in fact, have been studying about errors which have

been proved to be predictable (Ellis, 1985) and beneficial to language learning (Ellis,

1997; Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). A possible explanation for the conflicting beliefs of

Thai upper secondary school students would be that in case of beginners, it might

be more flexible for this level of learners to make errors, while, as they may still

emphasize language accuracy, they may feel that learners in general should not

make mistakes which can be, in fact, against the natural process of language learning.

In regard to beliefs about motivations and expectations, the vast majority of

learners endorsed the beliefs to speak English well. In turn, being able to speak good

English, they believed the opportunities for a good job are increased. This shows that

Thai learners across levels (Jones & Gardner, 2009; Fujiwara, 2011) as well as Chinese

students (Tang & Tien, 2014) and Thai learners in teacher education (Vibulphol, 2004)

realize the role of the English language and how it can positively affect their future

careers where people with a good command of English are in great demand.

Consequently, as suggested by Lightbrown and Spada (2006), if learners feel that it is

important to use a language in both social and occupational aspects, they would

appreciate the communicative facet of language and then be inspired to master the

language they are learning.

Language Learning Strategies of Thai Upper Secondary School Students

In general, all categories of language learning strategies were reported at the

moderate level of use by Thai upper secondary school students in this study.

However, when considering the mean scores, the present study found that

metacognitive and social strategies obtained the highest mean scores, while affective

strategies obtained the lowest mean score.

Concerning metacognitive strategies, some researchers have proved that the

use of these strategies are critical (Oxford, 1990) and successful learners are likely to

be a keen user of these strategies (Ellis, 1997). Oxford contends that language

learners usually experience new complicated aspects of language and in order to

refocus their learning, metacognitive strategies play a significant role in assisting them.

Furthermore, Wang et al. (2009) suggested that metacognitive strategies should be

highlighted as they yield positive impact on learner's self-efficacy. Thai upper

secondary school students used a number of metacognitive strategies at a moderate

level, but paying attention to someone who is speaking English, figuring out what

better learners are and how to become like ones, and monitoring their learning

progress obtained the highest mean scores in SILL. Only planning their time to learn

English, however, obtained the lowest mean score. The use of metacognitive

strategies is also found in a study of Thai university students (Khamkhien, 2010) and

showed similar SILL score in high motivation group. In other contexts, paying

attention strategy was also highlighted by Asian learners in New Zealand (Griffths,

2003) and Korean EFL undergraduates (Park, 2010). Based on these evidence across

all studies, it can be seen that learners use metacognitive strategies a lot especially

being attentive whenever someone is speaking English. On the other hand, due to

the fact that Thai upper secondary school students reported scheduling their study

at the lowest level, similar finding was found in Griffiths (2003). It could likely be that

the students might overlook the importance of effective planning and managing their

own time to complete a language task.

In regard to social strategies, Thai upper secondary school students

emphasized the cultural aspect of English speakers. Moreover, they also reported

they ask English speakers when they are in need of assistance at the high level.

However, asking questions in English, despite the moderate level of use, obtained

the lowest mean score. The emphasis on English-speaking cultures was also

endorsed by advanced students in New Zealand (Griffiths, 2003). In Thai context,

despite the fact that other studies do not mentions specific strategies, the mean

score of the overall use of social strategies by Thai university students in Khamkhien

(2010) is very close to the present study. Cross-checked with the reported beliefs in

cultural learning of Thai upper secondary school students in the present study, it can

be assumed that most Thai students realize that to be a successful language learner,

only focusing on linguistic knowledge may be simply inadequate. Rather, culture is

another important element, and they might have seen the connection between language and culture. Some reported social strategies by Thai upper secondary school students seem to be contradictory. Since they admitted that they like to ask English speakers for help, they, however, asked questions in English less than other social strategies. Consequently, with less use of the strategy, it is possible that Thai students' conversational interaction and understanding will be somewhat limited. According to Oxford (1990), asking questions can yield several positive outcomes such as getting their messages across, gaining more information from the person they converse with, and indirectly receiving feedback.

Lastly, the pattern of language learning strategies used by Thai upper secondary school students reveals that, among all strategy categories, affective strategies obtained the lowest mean score even though in general they were used at the moderate level. Similar findings were found in Salem (2006) as affective strategies were the least used strategies by undergraduates. The pattern, however, is quite different from some other studies. Memory strategies (Khamkhien, 2010) and memory as well as cognitive strategies (Magno, 2010)were found to be the least used strategies. Thus, across contexts and different groups of learners, the use of strategies vary to a certain extent. It should, however, be noted that Thai upper secondary school students reported using certain affective strategies at higher level than some others. For example, they heartened themselves to speak up despite being afraid of errors, followed by trying to be relaxed every time they are apprehensive about

using English. Comparing to other studies, Griffiths (2003) found similar results as her

advanced learners employed these affective strategies most frequently. These

particular ways of dealing with emotional discouragement could likely be considered

as a sign of a good language learner. According to Griffiths, her findings suggest that

students with high proficiency tend to be well aware of their feelings and can cope

with the problems on their own. The study of Korean EFL learners also found that

even effective learners can be worried but only to a certain extent; consequently,

these learners tried to be relaxed and concentrate on the task (Park, 2010). In regard

to the affective strategy used in the lowest level, a pattern of strategy of Thai upper

secondary school students emerges. They reported articulating what they feel in the

diary and expressing their feelings about learning English to someone at the lowest

level. Compared to other studies, only Griffiths particularly mentioned the same

unfavorable pattern as her advanced students were comparatively less enthusiastic

about writing down their feelings or talking to someone. Hence, when it comes to

emotional difficulties, many students would prefer self-encouragement rather than

using written forms. To support the unfavorable preference in writing, findings from

chapter 4 revealed that Thai upper secondary school students did not relatively

prefer note-taking or making summaries in English as their cognitive strategies.

The Model of Relationships between Beliefs about Language Learning, Language Learning Strategies, Proficiency, Gender, and Educational Context

Proposed in the research hypothesized model, the present study ultimate goal was to investigate the whole complex relationships between beliefs about language learning, language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context based on theoretical framework and empirical findings form the literature. According to the final model analyzed by structural equation modeling, two significant relationships between educational contexts and beliefs about language learning and between beliefs about language learning and proficiency were identified in the model, while other relationships were insignificant.

Taking into consideration the effect of educational context on learners' beliefs, the model suggests educational contexts, regular and English programs, influence the learner's beliefs about language learning. Certain studies have also found the effect of educational context on beliefs about language learning. ÖZ (2007) found that learners who had higher exposure to English in the educational program are likely to possess beliefs about social interaction and spoken language. A study by Kennedy et al. (as cited in Wesely, 2012) also conveys a long-term effect of school programs as they found students in FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary School) Program possess higher positive attitudes about their school, language aptitude, learning motivation, and self-morale. Individual learner differences are shaped by contextual influences to a certain extent, and that beliefs were included

as part of attitudes, according to Dole and Sinatra (1994), asserted this possible

relationship. Furthermore, the framework of hierarchical formation of learner's beliefs

by Gabillon (2005), as presented in chapter 2, importantly affirms the influence of

learner's educational context on their beliefs about the target language. Thus, based

on Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008), learning contexts can be a predictor of

learner's motivational, attitudinal, and emotional convictions. Therefore, with the

different amount of exposure to English in class, the present study identified

different patterns of beliefs between Regular and English Program students in a way

that English program students tended to hold beliefs that are facilitative to their

language learning (see Appendix F). For example, the English program students

tended to hold beliefs that nurture autonomous learning than the Regular program

students. They believed it is important to practice through various means and

multiple sources, and they could be able to retrieve online resources by themselves.

Their emphasis was on speaking skills such as being good at speaking English and

motivated to master it well because they believed these can promote career

opportunities. They also believed that English should be learned in an ESL

environment.

Another statistically significant relationship suggests that beliefs about

language learning affect student's language proficiency. That is, there is possibility

that their notions, thoughts, or ideas about foreign language learning, which are

persistent in nature (Wenden, 1999) but changeable over time, can be a potential

determinant of their overall language abilities. According to previous research studies,

it is, in fact, rather obvious that beliefs essentially impact learner's achievement in

language learning. Positive beliefs have been proved to result in positive learning

behaviors (Gabillon, 2005; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). This likely supports the finding

from the present study of which a number of facilitative beliefs were identified and

mostly endorsed by high proficiency group of Thai upper secondary school students

(see Appendix F). For instance, in foreign language aptitude, a higher number of high

proficiency students believed everyone has the potential to learn a foreign language

despite believing that only some individual has the gifted ability in language learning.

They believed that it is easier for children to learn a foreign language. For beliefs

about the difficulty of language learning, they did not think English as a moderately

difficult, while the majority of low proficiency group viewed English as an easy

language. In regard to the nature of language learning, high proficiency students

emphasized the cultures of the natives, language learning in ESL countries, native

speakers as teachers, and believed that foreign language learning is different from

other subject areas. However, a higher number of low proficiency group endorsed

the importance of vocabulary learning. Considering beliefs about learning and

communication strategies, high proficiency group believed that excellent accent is

important an emphasized group practice with other English students. The beliefs

about motivations and expectations revealed that high proficiency students believed

that having good speaking skills can lead to better job opportunities, and they also

wanted to speak English well. Thus, the beliefs of Thai upper secondary school students from high proficiency group and findings from the previous studies support this relationship. Thai students who had certain positive beliefs about their target language, as mentioned above, will likely be proficient language learners as the facilitative beliefs can affect good behaviors and finally result in better language proficiency.

In regard to insignificant relationships, the present study found that gender difference insignificantly related to both beliefs and strategies. First of all, statistically speaking, it should be noted that structural equation modeling (SEM) is a multivariate statistics analyzing the effects of multiple variables in a holistic way. Unlike other multivariate analyses which, according to Hair et al. (2010), "...can examine only a single relationship at a time." (p. 629), SEM instead looks at the entire relationships and analyze multiple variables at the same time. Thus, considering this unique capability of SEM, it is feasible to assume that when calculating the whole model of relationships, the difference in terms of gender unveils no impact on the two variables. Apart from statistical consideration, it is also noteworthy that previous studies on gender effects showed inconsistent findings of beliefs (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Daif-Allah, 2012). Bernat and Lloyd suggested that possible reasons behind varied findings among gender studies are learner's diverse cultures, their educational context, proficiency, and certain individual factors which additionally come into play. In terms of language learning strategies, despite the trend of female's more frequent

use of strategies, when taken into account other factors (e.g. contexts and individual

characteristics), it is still premature to generalize the trend (Liyanage & Bartlett, 2012;

Salahshour et al., 2013; Wharton, 2000). Hence, it is viable that these insignificant

connections were identified given that SEM analysis was employed and other

influential variables such as proficiency and learning contexts, which are another two

variables of the present study, were taken into consideration.

The effect from educational context on language learning strategies yielded

no statistically significant relationship. Unlike the contextual influence on beliefs

about language learning, this lack of impact apparently accounts for the empirical

findings elicited from Thai upper secondary school students of which the pattern of

strategy use between regular and English program groups were in a moderate use

and not remarkably different. Moreover, due to SEM special calculation as

mentioned earlier, the contextual influence on language learning strategies possibly

was not strong when compared to beliefs about language learning. Similarly, since

the effect of student's language proficiency on their strategy use was not identified, a

probable explanation would be due to the structural equation modeling which

calculated the effect of proficiency on language learning strategies along with other

possible effects from and on the rest of the model.

Finally, regarding the entire effects of all variables in the present study,

beliefs' effect on language learning strategy use, however, was not statistically

significant. As previously mentioned in chapter 4, the present study found a non-

recursive insignificant relationship presented by one-headed arrow from beliefs about

language learning to language learning strategies which differed from the

hypothesized model where both variables correlate to each other (two-headed

arrow). Although the result was distinctive to the hypothesized relationship, it is likely

common to obtain different outcome when referring back to pertinent theoretical

framework. According to Ellis (1994), his individual learner differences framework

proposes a two-way relationship between beliefs about language learning, as one of

the learner individual differences, and learner strategies, suggesting that it is possible

for the directions to be in either way. Also, the unique way of calculation by SEM can

be accounted for the absence of the relationship.

Limitations of the Study

The present study notes certain limitations as follows.

Since all participants were selected according to the purposive sampling of

the schools which offer two programs of study, the number of participants in the

present study who obtained high GPAs heavily outnumbered participants from lower

grade group. This possibly limits the representatives of proficiency group.

Furthermore, the criteria of regular and English programs were based on the

regulations announced by the Ministry of Education. It is possible that students in

some schools might have experienced different exposure to the English language.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the present study suggest the following teaching implications.

First of all, regarding findings from beliefs about language learning, language teachers should convince and encourage students that if they believe everyone is capable of learning a language, they all, as Thais, also have the potential to learn a foreign language in order to foster positive aptitude in language learning. This is crucial since Horwitz (1988) asserts that if they view a particular group as inferior to others, especially in case that the students are part of that group, it can hinder their learning attainment in the long run. Teachers then should encourage students' self-efficacy and self-esteem to regain their confidence. Next, teachers should talk and explain to students about the natural process of language learning since a lot of Thai upper secondary school students seem to underestimate the length of time to master English. According to the emphasis on English-speaking cultures, teachers should introduce and integrate cultural content in their English classes, for their students can learn not only the language itself but the cultures of the people using the English language. Based on the findings from beliefs about learning and communication strategies, it is important for teachers to give students confidence to speak English regardless of possible errors. In terms of speaking and pronunciation, Thai upper secondary school students should be encouraged to speak clear, good English rather than focusing merely on accent. In response to the focus on accent. Schools should also provide English classes with native English speakers. Moreover, non-native teachers should consider improving their English pronunciation.

Second, Thai upper secondary school students' strategy use implies that teachers should include visual aids in English classes. For planning and self-evaluating, teachers should try to encourage their students to plan their time so that they can properly manage time to finish a language task, and students should become aware of their learning progress and know how much their English has been improved. Students should also be encouraged to use more affective strategies during the task.

Third, the structural equation model of relationships of Thai upper secondary school students suggests that the programs of study yield potential effects on beliefs of Thai students in a way that English Program students potentially hold positive beliefs. Thus, the present study suggests that students in regular program should be engaged in English interaction as much as possible, for this exposure to the English environment can positively enhance their beliefs related to autonomous learning and spoken English.

Furthermore, the model yields implication that if students' beliefs about language learning are facilitative to their learning, it can result in better learning outcome in terms of proficiency. Particularly, since high proficiency students are the ones who have better notions about language learning, teachers should identify detrimental beliefs and help adjust those beliefs in order to enhance student's language proficiency.

Suggestions for Further Study

This study has taken a step in the investigation of the relationships between beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies, proficiency, gender, and educational context of Thai upper secondary school. As further investigation will be of importance, the present study provides the following suggestions for future research.

First, this study focused on twelfth grade students in Bangkok as participants, it is suggested that students from different regions be included in future studies in order to cover a variety of Thai upper secondary school students throughout Thailand.

Second, to achieve the comprehensive investigation of beliefs and the model of relationships, more studies should consider taking students from various levels apart from upper secondary school students. Students in lower secondary school or tertiary education, for example, can be further studied and compared as to whether the findings are different across levels. In regard to research methods, qualitative data analysis such as interviews can yield in-depth findings and help explain certain contradictory findings that might have been found. Data triangulation from both quantitative and qualitative analyses can consequently reveal better understanding of the findings.

Third, future studies should explore the relationships between educational contexts and beliefs about language learning and between beliefs about language

learning and proficiency in order to further study the patterns and gain new insights

from the two relationships.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Grade Level Indicators for Grade 10-12 Students

(Ministry of Education, 2008)

Strand 1: Language for Communication

Standard F1.1:   **Understanding of and capacity to interpret what has been heard and read from various types of media, and ability to express opinions with proper reasoning**

1. Observe instructions in manuals for various types of work, clarifications, explanations and descriptions heard and read.

2. Accurately read aloud texts, news, advertisement, poems and skits by observing the principles of reading.

3. Explain and write sentences and texts related to various forms of non-text information, as well as specify and write various forms of non-text information related to sentences and texts heard or read.

4. Identifying the main idea, analyse the essence, interpret and express opinions from listening to and reading feature articles and entertainment articles, as well as provide justifications and examples for illustration.

Strand 1: Language for Communication

Standard F1.2:   Endowment with language communication skills for

exchange of data and information; efficient expression of

feelings and opinions

1. Converse and write to exchange data about themselves and

various matters around them, experiences, situations,

news/incidents and issues of interest to society, and

communicate the data continuously and appropriately.

2. Choose and use requests and give instructions, clarifications

and explanations fluently.

3. Speak and write to express needs and offer, accept and

refuse to give help in simulated or real situations.

4. Speak and write appropriately to ask for and give data,

describe, explain, compare and express opinions about

matters/ issues/news and situations heard and read.

5. Speak and write to describe their own feelings and opinions

about various matters, activities, experiences and news/

incidents with proper reasoning.

Strand 1: Language for Communication

Standard F1.3:   **Ability to present data, information, concepts and views**

about various matters through speaking and writing

1. Speak and write to present data themselves/experiences,

news/incidents, matters and various issues of interest to

society.

2. Speak and write to summarise the main idea/theme

identified from analysis of matters, activities, news, incidents

and situations in accordance with their interests.

3. Speak and write to express opinions about activities,

experiences and incidents in the local area, society and the

world, as well as provide justifications and examples for

illustration.

Strand 2: Language and Culture

Standard F2.1:   **Appreciation of the relationship between language and**

culture of native speakers and capacity for use of language

appropriate to occasions and places

1. Choose the language, tone of voice, gestures and manners

appropriate to various persons, occasions and places by

observing social manners and culture of native speakers.

2. Explain/discuss the lifestyles, thoughts, beliefs and origins of customs and traditions of native speakers.

3. Participate in, give advice and organise language and cultural activities appropriately.

Strand 2: Language and Culture

Standard F2.2: **Appreciation of similarities and differences between language and culture of native and Thai speakers, and capacity for accurate and appropriate use of language**

1. Explain/compare differences between the structures of sentences, texts, idioms, sayings, proverbs and poems in foreign languages and Thai language.

2. Analyse/discuss similarities and differences between the lifestyles, beliefs and culture of native speakers and those of Thais, and apply them appropriately.

Strand 3: Language and Relationship with Other Learning Areas

Standard F3.1:   Usage of foreign languages to link knowledge with other

learning areas, as foundation for further development and

to seek knowledge and widen one's world view

1. Research/search for, make records, summarise and express

opinions about the data related to other learning areas, and

present them through speaking and writing.

Strand 4: Language and Relationship with Community and the World

Standard F4.1:   Ability to use foreign languages in various situations in

school, community and society

1. Use language for communication in real situations/simulated

situations in the classroom, school, community and society.

Strand 4: Language and Relationship with Community and the World

Standard F4.2:   Usage of foreign languages as basic tools for further

education, livelihood and exchange of learning with the

world community

1. Use foreign languages to search for and collect various data.

2. Use foreign languages in conducting research, collecting,

analysing and summarising knowledge/various data from the

media and different learning sources for further education and

livelihood.

3. Disseminate/convey to the public data and news about the

school, community and the local area/the nation in foreign

languages.

Appendix B

Questionnaire

(English version)

Section 1: Demographic Information

School: _____ Mattayomsuksa 6

Gender: ⬜ Male ⬜ Female

Programs: ⬜ Regular Program ⬜ English Program

Grade of your English course from previous semester:

⬜ 4.00

⬜ 3.50

⬜ 3.00

⬜ 2.50

⬜ 2.00

⬜ 1.50

⬜ 1.00

⬜ 0.00

Section 2: Beliefs about Language Learning

2.1) Direction: The statements below are beliefs that some people have about learning English. After reading each statement, mark "✔" under the column (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which indicates your opinion about the statement.

Each level of opinion means the followings:

1 = strongly disagree   **2** = disagree   **3** = neutral   **4** = agree   **5** = strongly agree

Statements	Opinion				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.					
2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.					
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.					
4. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.					
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.					
6. It is important to speak English with an excellent accent.					
7. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.					
8. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.					
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.					
10. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.					

Each level of opinion means the followings:

1 = strongly disagree **2** = disagree **3** = neutral **4** = agree **5** = strongly agree

Statements	Opinion				
	1	2	3	4	5
11. I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet.					
12. In order to speak English, you have to think in English.					
13. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in English.					
14. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.					
15. The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words.					
16. It is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning English.					
17. It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English.					
18. If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.					
19. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.					
20. The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar.					
21. It is important to practice with multi-media.					
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.					
23. I want to speak English well.					

Each level of opinion means the followings:

1 = strongly disagree   **2** = disagree   **3** = neutral   **4** = agree   **5** = strongly agree

Statements	Opinion				
	1	2	3	4	5
24. I can learn a lot from group activities with other students in my English class.					
25. It is easier to speak than understand English.					
26. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know English speakers.					
27. I can learn a lot from non-native English teachers.					
28. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.					
29. It is possible to learn English on your own without a teacher or a class.					
30. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from Thai.					
31. Students and teachers should only speak English during English classes.					
32. I can find a lot of useful materials to practice English on the Internet.					
33. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.					

Each level of opinion means the followings:

1 = strongly disagree **2** = disagree **3** = neutral **4** = agree **5** = strongly agree

Statements	Opinion				
	1	2	3	4	5
34. I have to spend so much time preparing for big English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET, TOEFL), that I don't have time to actually learn English.					
35. It is important to speak English like a native speaker.					
36. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.					
37. Thai people feel that it is important to speak English.					
38. I would like to have English speaking friends.					
39. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.					
40. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.					
41. I feel timid speaking English with other people.					
42. General Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of my English ability.					

2.2) Directions: Please read each statement and mark ✔ by the choice that

indicates your opinions about the statements.

1. English is:

	a very difficult language
	a difficult language
	a language of medium difficulty
	an easy language
	a very easy language

2. If someone spent one hour learning English every day, how long would it

take him or her to speak English well?

	less than a year
	1-2 years
	3-5 years
	5-10 years
	You can't learn a language in one hour a day

Section 3: Language Learning Strategies

Direction: The statements below are strategies that some people have used in

learning English. After reading each statement, mark "✔" under the column (1, 2, 3,

4, or 5) which indicates your opinion about the statement.

Each level of opinion means the followings:

1 = use at the lowest level

2 = use at the low level

3 = use at the moderate level

4 = use at the high level

5 = use at the highest level

Statements	Opinion				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.					
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.					
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
7. I physically act out new English words.					
8. I review English lessons often.					
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.					

Each level of opinion means the followings:

1 = use at the lowest level

2 = use at the low level

3 = use at the moderate level

4 = use at the high level

5 = use at the highest level

Statements	Opinion				
	1	2	3	4	5
10. I say or write new English words several times.					
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.					
12. I practice the sounds of English.					
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.					
14. I start conversations in English.					
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.					
16. I read for pleasure in English.					
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.					
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.					
19. I look for words in Thai that are similar to new words in English.					
20. I try to find patterns in English.					
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.					
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.					
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guess.					

Each level of opinion means the followings:

1 = use at the lowest level

2 = use at the low level

3 = use at the moderate level

4 = use at the high level

5 = use at the highest level

Statements	Opinion				
	1	2	3	4	5
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.					
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					
27. I read English without looking up every new word.					
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.					
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.					
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.					
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.					
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.					
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.					
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.					
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.					
38. I think about my progress in learning English.					

Each level of opinion means the followings:

1 = use at the lowest level

2 = use at the low level

3 = use at the moderate level

4 = use at the high level

5 = use at the highest level

Statements	Opinion				
	1	2	3	4	5
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.					
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.					
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.					
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.					
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.					
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.					
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.					
47. I practice English with other students.					
48. I ask for help from English speakers.					
49. I ask questions in English.					
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.					

Thank you for your participation in the survey

Appendix C

Questionnaire

(Thai version)

แบบสอบถาม

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

คำชี้แจง โปรดเติมข้อมูลในช่องว่างให้สมบูรณ์ และทำเครื่องหมาย ✔ ลงในช่องสี่เหลี่ยม

1. โรงเรียน _____ชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6

2. เพศ ☐ ชาย ☐ หญิง

3. โปรแกรม ☐ โปรแกรมภาษาไทย ☐ โปรแกรมภาษาอังกฤษ
(Regular Program) (English Program)

4. เกรดวิชาภาษาอังกฤษพื้นฐานจากภาคการศึกษาปลาย ปีการศึกษา 2556

☐ 4.00

☐ 3.50

☐ 3.00

☐ 2.50

☐ 2.00

☐ 1.50

☐ 1.00

☐ 0.00

ตอนที่ 2 ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษา (Beliefs about Language Learning)

คำชี้แจง ข้อความต่อไปนี้เป็นความเชื่อต่างๆที่เกี่ยวกับการเรียนภาษา โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✔ ลงใน
ช่องหมายเลข 1, 2, 3, 4 และ 5 ซึ่งแต่ละระดับความคิดเห็นมีความหมายดังนี้

1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง   2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย 3 = ไม่แน่ใจ   4 = เห็นด้วย   5 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

ข้อความ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. เด็กเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศได้ดีกว่าผู้ใหญ่					
2. คนบางคนมีความสามารถพิเศษในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ					
3. ภาษาบางภาษาเรียนได้ง่ายกว่าภาษาอื่นๆ					
4. คนไทยเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศได้ดี					
5. ฉันเชื่อว่าฉันสามารถเรียนเพื่อที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี					
6. การพูดภาษาอังกฤษด้วยสำเนียงที่ดีเยี่ยมเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญ					
7. ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ การรู้จักวัฒนธรรมของคนที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสิ่งที่จำเป็น					
8. เราไม่ควรพูดภาษาอังกฤษจนกว่าเราจะพูดได้อย่างถูกต้องจริงๆ					
9. คนที่สามารถใช้ภาษาต่างประเทศได้อย่างน้อยหนึ่งภาษา จะเรียนภาษาอื่นได้ง่ายขึ้น					
10. วิธีที่ดีที่สุดในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ คือการได้เรียนในประเทศที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ					
11. ฉันชอบการฝึกภาษาอังกฤษกับคนที่ฉันได้พบ					
12. ถ้าจะพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ เราต้องคิดเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
13. ฉันคิดว่าไม่เป็นไร หากจะเดาความหมายของคำภาษาอังกฤษที่ฉันไม่รู้					
14. ฉันมีความสามารถพิเศษในการเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ					
15. สิ่งที่สำคัญที่สุดในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษคือการเรียนคำศัพท์					
16. การฝึกพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับคนที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสิ่งที่ดี					
17. การมีเจ้าของภาษาเป็นครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษ เป็นสิ่งที่ดีกว่า					
18. ถ้าฉันสามารถเรียนพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้เป็นอย่างดี ฉันจะมีโอกาสได้งานที่ดีมากขึ้น					
19. หากปล่อยให้ผู้ที่เริ่มเรียนภาษาอังกฤษใช้ภาษาแบบผิดๆ ในภายหลังคนเหล่านั้นจะพูด ภาษาอังกฤษอย่างถูกต้องได้ยากขึ้น					
20. สิ่งที่สำคัญที่สุดในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษคือการเรียนไวยากรณ์					

1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง   **2** = ไม่เห็นด้วย **3** = ไม่แน่ใจ   **4** = เห็นด้วย   **5** = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

ข้อความ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	1	2	3	4	5
21. การฝึกฝนภาษาอังกฤษโดยการใช้สื่อที่หลากหลายเป็นเรื่องสำคัญ					
22. ผู้หญิงเรียนภาษาได้ดีกว่าผู้ชาย					
23. ฉันอยากพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี					
24. ฉันสามารถเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างมากจากการทำกิจกรรมเป็นกลุ่มกับเพื่อนๆในวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ					
25. การพูดภาษาอังกฤษง่ายกว่าการทำความเข้าใจภาษาอังกฤษ					
26. ฉันอยากเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อที่จะได้ทำความรู้จักกับคนที่พูดภาษาอังกฤษ					
27. ฉันสามารถเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างมากจากครูภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษา					
28. การเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศแตกต่างจากการเรียนวิชาอื่นๆ					
29. การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษด้วยตนเองโดยไม่มีครูหรือชั้นเรียนเป็นเรื่องที่เป็นไปได้					
30. สิ่งที่สำคัญที่สุดในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษคือการเรียนวิธีการแปลจากภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
31. ในขณะที่เรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ นักเรียนและครูควรที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษเท่านั้น					
32. ฉันสามารถหาสื่อการเรียนที่เป็นประโยชน์ในการฝึกภาษาอังกฤษได้จำนวนมากจากอินเทอร์เน็ต					
33. การอ่านและการเขียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษง่ายกว่าการพูดและทำความเข้าใจภาษาอังกฤษ					
34. ฉันต้องใช้เวลาอย่างมากในการเตรียมตัวสอบภาษาอังกฤษ (เช่น GAT, O-NET, TOEFL) จนฉันไม่มีเวลาที่จะเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
35. การพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้เหมือนเจ้าของภาษาเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญ					
36. คนที่เก่งคณิตศาสตร์หรือวิทยาศาสตร์จะเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศได้ไม่ดี					
37. คนไทยรู้สึกว่าการพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้เป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญ					
38. ฉันอยากมีเพื่อนที่พูดภาษาอังกฤษ					
39. คนที่สามารถพูดได้หลายภาษาเป็นคนฉลาด					
40. ทุกคนสามารถเรียนที่จะพูดภาษาต่างประเทศได้					
41. ฉันรู้สึกอายที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับคนอื่นๆ					
42. ข้อสอบ GAT หรือ O-NET เป็นข้อสอบที่ดีเพื่อใช้วัดความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษของฉัน					

คำชี้แจง โปรดอ่านข้อความต่อไปนี้และทำเครื่องหมาย ✔ ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นมากที่สุด

43. ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาที่

☐ ยากมาก

☐ ยาก

☐ ปานกลาง

☐ ง่าย

☐ ง่ายมาก

44. หากคนคนหนึ่งใช้เวลาเรียนภาษาอังกฤษทุกวัน วันละ 1 ชั่วโมง เขาจะใช้เวลานานเท่าใด จึงจะสามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี

☐ ไม่ถึง 1 ปี

☐ 1 - 2 ปี

☐ 3 - 5 ปี

☐ 5 - 10 ปี

☐ ไม่มีใครสามารถเรียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ ถ้าเรียนเพียงวันละ 1 ชั่วโมง

ตอนที่ 3 กลวิธีการเรียนภาษา (Language Learning Strategies)

คำชี้แจง ข้อความต่อไปนี้เป็นกลวิธีต่างๆในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✔ ลงในช่อง หมายเลข 1, 2, 3, 4 และ 5 ซึ่งแต่ละระดับความคิดเห็นมีความหมายดังนี้

1 = น้อยที่สุด   2 = น้อย   3 = ปานกลาง   4 = มาก   5 = มากที่สุด

ข้อความ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. ฉันนึกถึงความเชื่อมโยงระหว่างความรู้เดิมกับความรู้ใหม่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
2. ฉันใช้คำภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ๆ ในประโยคเพื่อช่วยให้ฉันจำคำเหล่านั้นได้					
3. ฉันเชื่อมโยงเสียงของคำภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ๆ กับภาพของคำคำนั้น เพื่อช่วยให้ฉันจำได้					
4. ฉันจำคำใหม่ในภาษาอังกฤษโดยการสร้างภาพในใจของสถานการณ์ที่ใช้คำคำนั้น					
5. ฉันใช้คำที่มีเสียงสัมผัสกันเพื่อจำคำภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ๆ					
6. ฉันใช้แผ่นภาพคำศัพท์เพื่อช่วยจำคำภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ๆ					
7. ฉันแสดงคำภาษาอังกฤษใหม่ๆ ออกมาเป็นท่าทาง					
8. ฉันทบทวนบทเรียนภาษาอังกฤษอยู่เสมอ					
9. ฉันจำคำหรือวลีใหม่ๆ ในภาษาอังกฤษโดยนึกถึงตำแหน่งของคำเหล่านั้นบนหน้ากระดาษ แผ่นกระดาน หรือสัญลักษณ์บนถนน					
10. ฉันพูดหรือเขียนคำใหม่ในภาษาอังกฤษหลายๆ ครั้ง					
11. ฉันพยายามพูดภาษาอังกฤษให้เหมือนเจ้าของภาษา					
12. ฉันฝึกออกเสียงภาษาอังกฤษ					
13. ฉันใช้คำภาษาอังกฤษที่ฉันรู้ในหลากหลายรูปแบบ					
14. ฉันเริ่มบทสนทนาเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
15. ฉันดูรายการโทรทัศน์หรือภาพยนตร์ที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ					
16. ฉันอ่านหนังสืออ่านเล่นเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
17. ฉันจดบันทึก เขียนข้อความ จดหมายหรือรายงานเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
18. ฉันอ่านบทความภาษาอังกฤษแบบคร่าวๆ ในตอนแรก (อ่านบทความผ่านๆ อย่างรวดเร็ว) แล้วกลับมาอ่านอย่างละเอียดอีกครั้ง					
19. ฉันหาคำในภาษาไทยที่มีลักษณะคล้ายกับคำใหม่ในภาษาอังกฤษ					
20. ฉันพยายามหารูปแบบโครงสร้างต่างๆ ที่ใช้ในภาษาอังกฤษ					
21. ฉันพยายามหาความหมายของคำภาษาอังกฤษโดยการแบ่งคำเป็นส่วนๆตามที่ฉันเข้าใจ					
22. ฉันพยายามที่จะไม่แปลคำต่อคำ					

ระดับความคิดเห็นมีความหมายดังนี้

1 = น้อยที่สุด   2 = น้อย   3 = ปานกลาง   4 = มาก   5 = มากที่สุด

ข้อความ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	1	2	3	4	5
23. ฉันสรุปข้อมูลที่ฉันได้ยินหรืออ่านเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
24. ฉันลองเดาเพื่อที่จะทำความเข้าใจคำภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่คุ้นเคย					
25. เวลาที่ฉันนึกคำภาษาอังกฤษไม่ออกระหว่างการสนทนาเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ฉันใช้การแสดงท่าทางเพื่อช่วยในการสนทนา					
26. ถ้าฉันไม่รู้คำที่ถูกต้องในภาษาอังกฤษ ฉันจะสร้างคำใหม่ขึ้นมาเอง					
27. ฉันอ่านภาษาอังกฤษโดยที่ไม่ได้หาความหมายของคำใหม่ทุกคำ					
28. ฉันลองเดาว่าสิ่งที่ผู้พูดอีกคนกำลังจะพูดเป็นภาษาอังกฤษคืออะไร					
29. ถ้าฉันนึกคำภาษาอังกฤษไม่ออก ฉันจะใช้คำหรือวลีที่มีความหมายเหมือนกัน					
30. ฉันพยายามหาวิธีที่จะใช้ภาษาอังกฤษให้ได้มากที่สุด					
31. ฉันสังเกตข้อผิดพลาดในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษของฉัน และนำข้อผิดพลาดเหล่านั้นมาพัฒนาให้ดีขึ้น					
32. ฉันตั้งใจฟังเมื่อมีคนกำลังพูดภาษาอังกฤษ					
33. ฉันพยายามหาวิธีว่าการจะเป็นผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษที่ดีขึ้นต้องทำอย่างไร					
34. ฉันจัดตารางเวลาเพื่อที่ฉันจะได้มีเวลาเพียงพอในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
35. ฉันมองหาคนที่ฉันสามารถคุยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้					
36. ฉันหาโอกาสในการอ่านภาษาอังกฤษให้ได้มากที่สุดเท่าที่จะทำได้					
37. ฉันมีเป้าหมายที่ชัดเจนที่จะพัฒนาทักษะภาษาอังกฤษของฉัน					
38. ฉันคิดไตร่ตรองถึงความก้าวหน้าในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของฉัน					
39. ฉันพยายามผ่อนคลายเวลาที่ฉันรู้สึกกลัวที่จะใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ					
40. ฉันให้กำลังใจตัวเองเวลาพูดภาษาอังกฤษ ถึงแม้ว่าฉันกลัวที่จะพูดแบบผิดๆ ก็ตาม					
41. ฉันให้รางวัลตัวเองเวลาที่ฉันใช้ภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี					
42. ฉันสังเกตได้ว่าฉันรู้สึกเครียดหรือประหม่าเวลาที่ฉันเรียนหรือใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ					
43. ฉันเขียนความรู้สึกของฉันลงในไดอารี่ที่ใช้เรียนภาษา					
44. ฉันพูดคุยกับคนอื่นๆ เกี่ยวกับความรู้สึกเวลาที่ฉันเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
45. ถ้าฉันไม่เข้าใจบางอย่างในภาษาอังกฤษ ฉันขอให้ผู้พูดอีกคนพูดให้ช้าลงหรือพูดซ้ำอีกครั้ง					
46. ฉันขอให้คนที่สามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ ช่วยแก้คำผิดให้ขณะที่ฉันคุยด้วย					

ระดับความคิดเห็นมีความหมายดังนี้

1 = น้อยที่สุด   **2** = น้อย   **3** = ปานกลาง   **4** = มาก   **5** = มากที่สุด

ข้อความ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	1	2	3	4	5
47. ฉันฝึกภาษาอังกฤษร่วมกับนักเรียนคนอื่นๆ					
48. ฉันขอความช่วยเหลือจากคนที่พูดภาษาอังกฤษได้					
49. ฉันถามคำถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
50. ฉันพยายามเรียนรู้วัฒนธรรมของคนที่พูดภาษาอังกฤษ					

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

ขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถาม

Appendix D

Back Translation Evaluation Form

The statements below are questionnaire items from the original version (first column) and the back translated version (second column). Please mark "✔" under the column "Valid" or "Invalid" in order to justify the meaning of the back translated texts. You can give comments where necessary.

Original texts	Back translated texts	Valid	Invalid	Comments
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	1. Children are better at learning foreign languages than adults.			
2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	2. Some people have the gift of foreign-language learning.			
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.	3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.			
4. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.	4. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.			
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.	5. I believe that I can learn to speak English well.			
6. It is important to speak English with an excellent accent.	6. Speaking English with an excellent accent is necessary.			
7. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.	7. In speaking English, knowing native speakers' cultures is essential.			
8. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	8. We should not speak English until we can speak it properly.			
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.	9. A person who can speak at least one foreign language can learn other languages more easily.			
10. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.	10. The best way to learn English is to learn it in the English-speaking countries.			

Part I: Beliefs about Language Learning (44 items)

Original texts	Back translated texts	Valid	Invalid	Comments
11. I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet.	11. I like to practice English pronunciation with people I meet.			
12. In order to speak English, you have to think in English.	12. To be capable of speaking English, we must think in English.			
13. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in English.	13. I think it is okay to guess the meaning of English words which I don't know.			
14. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	14. I have the gift of foreign-language learning.			
15. The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words.	15. Vocabulary is the most important part of learning English.			
16. It is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning English.	16. To practice spoken English with English learners is good.			
17. It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English.	17. It is better to have a native English teacher.			
18. If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.	18. If I can learn spoken English well, I will have better career opportunities.			
19. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	19. If you let English beginners misuse the language, it will subsequently be harder for them to speak it right.			
20. The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar.	20. Grammar is the most important part of learning English.			
21. It is important to practice with multi-media.	21. To practice English by using multiple forms of media is important.			
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	22. Women are better at learning English than men.			

Original texts	Back translated texts	Valid	Invalid	Comments
23. I want to speak English well.	23. I want to speak English well.			
24. I can learn a lot from group activities with other students in my English class.	24. I can learn a considerable amount of English through group activities with friends during English classes.			
25. It is easier to speak than understand English.	25. To speak English is easier than to understand it.			
26. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know English speakers.	26. I want to learn English so that I can befriend English speakers.			
27. I can learn a lot from non-native English teachers.	27. I can learn a considerable amount of English from non-native English teachers.			
28. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.	28. Learning foreign languages is different than learning other subjects.			
29. It is possible to learn English on your own without a teacher or a class.	29. It is possible to learn English by yourself without a teacher or a class.			
30. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from Thai.	30. To learn how to translate Thai into English is the most important part of learning English.			
31. Students and teachers should only speak English during English classes.	31. Students and teachers should only speak English during English class.			
32. I can find a lot of useful materials to practice English on the Internet.	32. I can find a lot of helpful material for practicing English on the internet.			
33. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.	33. To read and write in English is easier than to speak and understand it.			
34. I have to spend so much time preparing for big English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET, TOEFL), that I don't have time to actually learn English.	34. I have to spend so much time to prepare for English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET, TOEFL) that I have no time to learn English.			

Original texts	Back translated texts	Valid	Invalid	Comments
35. It is important to speak English like a native speaker.	35. It is essential to speak English like a native speaker.			
36. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.	36. Math-skilled or Science-skilled people are not good at learning foreign language.			
37. Thai people feel that it is important to speak English.	37. Thai people deem it is necessary to be able to speak English.			
38. I would like to have English speaking friends.	38. I want to have a friend who speaks English.			
39. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.	39. Multi-lingual people are clever.			
40. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	40. Everybody can learn to speak foreign languages.			
41. I feel timid speaking English with other people.	41. I am shy of speaking English with others.			
42. General Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of my English ability.	42. GAT or O-NET tests are effective tests for assessing my language ability.			
43. English is: - a very difficult language - a difficult language - a language of medium difficulty - an easy language - a very easy language	43. English is a language which is: - Very difficult - Difficult - Moderately - Easy - Very easy			
44. If someone spent one hour learning English every day, how long would it take him or her to speak English well? - less than a year - 1-2 years - 3-5 years - 5-10 years - You can't learn a language in one hour a day	44. Supposed one spends an hour a day every day, how long does it take for him to be capable of speaking English well? - less than a year - 1-2 years - 3-5 years - 5-10 years - No one can learn English by doing it for only an hour a day			

Part II: Language Learning Strategies (50 items)

Original texts	Back translated texts	Valid	Invalid	Comments
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	1. I build bridges between old and new knowledge in English.			
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	2. I put new English words into sentences to help me memorize them.			
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	3. I link the sounds of new English words with the illustrations of each word to help me memorize them.			
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	4. I memorize new English words by picturing in my mind the possible situations in which they might be used.			
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	5. I use rhymes to memorize new English words.			
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	6. I use flashcards to help me memorize new English words.			
7. I physically act out new English words.	7. I express new English words with actions.			
8. I review English lessons often.	8. I review English lessons constantly.			
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	9. I remember new English words and expressions by recalling their positions on pages, boards, or road signs.			
10. I say or write new English words several times.	10. I speak or write new words in English repeatedly.			
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.	11. I try to speak English like a native speaker.			
12. I practice the sounds of English.	12. I practice English pronunciation.			
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.	13. I apply the English words I know in various ways.			
14. I start conversations in English.	14. I start conversations in English.			

Original texts	Back translated texts	Valid	Invalid	Comments
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	15. I watch TV shows and movies in English.			
16. I read for pleasure in English.	16. I read English fiction.			
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	17. I write down notes, messages, letters and reports in English.			
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	18. When I read an article in English, I skim through it quickly at first, and then go back to read it thoroughly.			
19. I look for words in Thai that are similar to new words in English.	19. I find Thai words which have some similar characteristics to new English words.			
20. I try to find patterns in English.	20. I try to explore the different language styles used in English.			
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	21. I try to discover the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts according to my understanding.			
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.	22. I try not to translate word by word.			
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	23. I summarize the information I've heard or read in English.			
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guess.	24. When I come across unfamiliar English words, I try to guess the meaning.			
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	25. I make gestures when I have no idea what is spoken in English during a conversation.			
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	26. I make up new words when I don't know the right words to use in English.			
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	27. I read English without searching for the definition of every single word.			

Original texts	Back translated texts	Valid	Invalid	Comments
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	28. I try guessing what the other speaker is going to say in English.			
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	29. If I cannot recognize an English word, I will use another word or expression with the same meaning.			
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	30. I try to explore English language usage as much as possible.			
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	31. I observe my mistakes in using English, and improve on them.			
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.			
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	33. I try to find out how to be a better English learner.			
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	34. I make a schedule so that I will have sufficient time to learn English.			
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	35. I look for people whom I can converse with in English.			
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	36. I look for chances to read in English as often as I can.			
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	37. I set clear goals in improving my English skills.			
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	38. I think about my advancement in learning English.			
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	39. I try to relax when I fear to use English.			
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	40. I encourage myself when speaking English although I am afraid of saying it wrong.			
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	41. I reward myself when I use English well.			

Original texts	Back translated texts	Valid	Invalid	Comments
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	42. I can see that I am stressed or nervous when I am learning or using English.			
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	43. I write my feelings in a diary used for learning languages.			
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	44. I talk to others regarding how I feel while learning English.			
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	45. If I don't understand something in English, I ask my conversation partner to speak more slowly or repeat what he/she said.			
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	46. I ask people with spoken English skill to correct the mistakes I make when speaking.			
47. I practice English with other students.	47. I practice English with other students.			
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	48. I ask for assistance from a person with good English speaking skills.			
49. I ask questions in English.	49. I ask questions in English.			
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	50. I try to learn the cultures of native speakers.			

Appendix E

AMOS Results

Notes for Model (Default model)

Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

Number of distinct sample moments: 105

Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 38

Degrees of freedom (105 - 38): 67

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 95.679

Degrees of freedom = 67

Probability level = .012

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	38	95.679	67	.012	1.428
Saturated model	105	.000	0		
Independence model	14	1789.228	91	.000	19.662

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.011	.972	.957	.620
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.094	.544	.474	.472

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.947	.927	.983	.977	.983
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.736	.697	.724
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	28.679	6.671	58.698
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1698.228	1564.504	1839.335

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.209	.063	.015	.128
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	3.915	3.716	3.423	4.025

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.031	.015	.044	.994
Independence model	.202	.194	.210	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	171.679	174.258	328.500	366.500
Saturated model	210.000	217.127	643.321	748.321
Independence model	1817.228	1818.178	1875.004	1889.004

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	.376	.328	.441	.381
Saturated model	.460	.460	.460	.475
Independence model	3.976	3.684	4.285	3.979

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	417	463
Independence model	30	33

Estimates (Group number 1 – Default model)

Scalar Estimates (Group number 1 – Default model)

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Beliefs	<---	Gender	.030	.024	1.265	.206	par_12
Beliefs	<---	Edu Con	.113	.026	4.301	***	par_13
Proficiency	<---	Beliefs	.938	.216	4.337	***	par_15
Strategies	<---	Gender	-.003	.045	-.068	.945	par_11
Strategies	<---	Edu Con	-.006	.045	-.142	.887	par_14
Strategies	<---	Proficiency	.017	.028	.598	.550	par_16
Strategies	<---	Beliefs	-.098	.122	-.801	.423	par_17
Difficulty	<---	Beliefs	1.000				
Foreign	<---	Beliefs	.820	.113	7.235	***	par_1
Nature	<---	Beliefs	1.074	.152	7.068	***	par_2
Learning	<---	Beliefs	1.217	.160	7.613	***	par_3
Motivation	<---	Beliefs	1.726	.238	7.241	***	par_4
Memory	<---	Strategies	1.000				
Cognitive	<---	Strategies	1.098	.069	15.830	***	par_5
Compensation	<---	Strategies	1.027	.086	11.889	***	par_6
Meta	<---	Strategies	1.226	.087	14.121	***	par_7
Affective	<---	Strategies	.950	.082	11.643	***	par_8
Social	<---	Strategies	1.355	.097	13.943	***	par_9

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
Beliefs	<---	Gender	.066
Beliefs	<---	Edu Con	.257
Proficiency	<---	Beliefs	.258
Strategies	<---	Gender	-.003
Strategies	<---	Edu Con	-.008
Strategies	<---	Proficiency	.032
Strategies	<---	Beliefs	-.050
Difficulty	<---	Beliefs	.418
Foreign	<---	Beliefs	.496
Nature	<---	Beliefs	.571
Learning	<---	Beliefs	.814
Motivation	<---	Beliefs	.607
Memory	<---	Strategies	.687
Cognitive	<---	Strategies	.782
Compensation	<---	Strategies	.647
Meta	<---	Strategies	.795
Affective	<---	Strategies	.548
Social	<---	Strategies	.783

Covariances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Gender	<-->	Edu Con	-.021	.011	-1.880	.060	par_10
e14	<-->	e15	.032	.016	1.973	.048	par_18
e10	<-->	e14	.079	.015	5.326	***	par_19
e11	<-->	e12	.030	.012	2.539	.011	par_20
e10	<-->	e11	.033	.010	3.273	.001	par_21
e4	<-->	e5	.022	.008	2.841	.004	par_22

Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
Gender	<-->	Edu Con	-.088
e14	<-->	e15	.113
e10	<-->	e14	.281
e11	<-->	e12	.154
e10	<-->	e11	.198
e4	<-->	e5	.149

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Gender	.235	.016	15.116	***	par_23
Edu Con	.248	.016	15.116	***	par_24
z1	.045	.011	4.083	***	par_25
z3	.589	.040	14.816	***	par_26
z2	.182	.024	7.699	***	par_27
e4	.226	.016	14.119	***	par_28
e5	.099	.007	13.598	***	par_29
e6	.114	.009	12.902	***	par_30
e7	.036	.005	6.589	***	par_31
e8	.245	.020	12.384	***	par_32
e10	.203	.016	12.457	***	par_33
e11	.140	.013	10.350	***	par_34
e12	.267	.021	12.852	***	par_35
e14	.384	.028	13.642	***	par_36
e15	.210	.020	10.688	***	par_37
e13	.160	.015	10.422	***	par_38

Squared Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
Beliefs	.067
Proficiency	.067
Strategies	.003
Social	.614
Affective	.300
Meta	.632
Compensation	.419
Cognitive	.611
Memory	.473
Motivation	.368
Learning	.663
Nature	.326
Foreign	.246
Difficulty	.175

Matrices (Group number 1 - Default model)

Total Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Edu Con	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Beliefs	.113	.030	.000	.000	.000
Proficiency	.106	.028	.938	.000	.000
Strategies	-.016	-.006	-.082	.017	.000
Social	-.021	-.007	-.111	.023	1.355
Affective	-.015	-.005	-.078	.016	.950
Meta	-.019	-.007	-.100	.021	1.226
Compensation	-.016	-.006	-.084	.017	1.027
Cognitive	-.017	-.006	-.090	.019	1.098

	Edu Con	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Memory	-.016	-.006	-.082	.017	1.000
Motivation	.195	.052	1.726	.000	.000
Learning	.137	.036	1.217	.000	.000
Nature	.121	.032	1.074	.000	.000
Foreign	.093	.025	.820	.000	.000
Difficulty	.113	.030	1.000	.000	.000

Standardized Total Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Edu Con	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Beliefs	.257	.066	.000	.000	.000
Proficiency	.066	.017	.258	.000	.000
Strategies	-.018	-.006	-.042	.032	.000
Social	-.014	-.005	-.033	.025	.783
Affective	-.010	-.003	-.023	.017	.548
Meta	-.015	-.005	-.033	.025	.795
Compensation	-.012	-.004	-.027	.020	.647
Cognitive	-.014	-.005	-.033	.025	.782
Memory	-.013	-.004	-.029	.022	.687
Motivation	.156	.040	.607	.000	.000
Learning	.209	.054	.814	.000	.000
Nature	.147	.038	.571	.000	.000
Foreign	.127	.033	.496	.000	.000
Difficulty	.107	.028	.418	.000	.000

Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Edu Con	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Beliefs	.113	.030	.000	.000	.000
Proficiency	.000	.000	.938	.000	.000
Strategies	-.006	-.003	-.098	.017	.000
Social	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.355
Affective	.000	.000	.000	.000	.950
Meta	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.226
Compensation	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.027
Cognitive	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.098
Memory	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.000
Motivation	.000	.000	1.726	.000	.000
Learning	.000	.000	1.217	.000	.000
Nature	.000	.000	1.074	.000	.000
Foreign	.000	.000	.820	.000	.000
Difficulty	.000	.000	1.000	.000	.000

Standardized Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Edu Con	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Beliefs	.257	.066	.000	.000	.000
Proficiency	.000	.000	.258	.000	.000
Strategies	-.008	-.003	-.050	.032	.000
Social	.000	.000	.000	.000	.783
Affective	.000	.000	.000	.000	.548
Meta	.000	.000	.000	.000	.795
Compensation	.000	.000	.000	.000	.647
Cognitive	.000	.000	.000	.000	.782
Memory	.000	.000	.000	.000	.687
Motivation	.000	.000	.607	.000	.000
Learning	.000	.000	.814	.000	.000
Nature	.000	.000	.571	.000	.000
Foreign	.000	.000	.496	.000	.000
Difficulty	.000	.000	.418	.000	.000

Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Edu Con	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Beliefs	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Proficiency	.106	.028	.000	.000	.000
Strategies	-.009	-.002	.016	.000	.000
Social	-.021	-.007	-.111	.023	.000
Affective	-.015	-.005	-.078	.016	.000
Meta	-.019	-.007	-.100	.021	.000
Compensation	-.016	-.006	-.084	.017	.000
Cognitive	-.017	-.006	-.090	.019	.000
Memory	-.016	-.006	-.082	.017	.000
Motivation	.195	.052	.000	.000	.000
Learning	.137	.036	.000	.000	.000
Nature	.121	.032	.000	.000	.000
Foreign	.093	.025	.000	.000	.000
Difficulty	.113	.030	.000	.000	.000

Standardized Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Edu Con	Gender	Beliefs	Proficiency	Strategies
Beliefs	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Proficiency	.066	.017	.000	.000	.000
Strategies	-.011	-.003	.008	.000	.000
Social	-.014	-.005	-.033	.025	.000
Affective	-.010	-.003	-.023	.017	.000
Meta	-.015	-.005	-.033	.025	.000
Compensation	-.012	-.004	-.027	.020	.000
Cognitive	-.014	-.005	-.033	.025	.000
Memory	-.013	-.004	-.029	.022	.000
Motivation	.156	.040	.000	.000	.000
Learning	.209	.054	.000	.000	.000
Nature	.147	.038	.000	.000	.000
Foreign	.127	.033	.000	.000	.000
Difficulty	.107	.028	.000	.000	.000

Appendix F

Results of Beliefs about Language Learning between

Regular and English Program

Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.			
Regular Program	12.1	39.3	48.6
English Program	13.8	31.8	54.5
2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.			
Regular Program	9.3	21.9	68.9
English Program	8	14.7	77.3
4. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.			
Regular Program			
English Program	27.2	52.2	20.7
	22.8	57.3	19.9
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.			
Regular Program	18.6	34	47.3
English Program	13.7	40.8	45.5
14. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.			
Regular Program	25.6	44.1	30.4
English Program	18	46	36
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.			
Regular Program	36	44.5	19.4
English Program	34.1	42.7	23.2

36. People who are good at mathematics or science			
are not good at learning foreign languages.			
Regular Program			
English Program	18.2	29.6	52.3
	12.3	26.5	61.1
39. People who speak more than one language are			
very intelligent.			
Regular Program	15.4	37.2	47.3
English Program	15.5	33.6	49.8
40. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.			
Regular Program			
English Program	8.1	20.2	71.1
	7.6	17.5	74.9

Beliefs about Difficulty of Language Learning

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.			
Regular Program	14.2	30	55.9
English Program	8	28	63.9
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.			
Regular Program			
English Program	13.7	38.1	48.2
	8.5	26.5	64.9
25. It is easier to speak than understand English.			
Regular Program	15	36.8	48.2
English Program	9.5	40.3	50.2
33. It is easier to read and write English than to speak			
and understand it.			
Regular Program	21.1	40.5	38.5
English Program	30.9	36	33.1

Beliefs about Difficulty of Language Learning (Multiple-choice items)

Statements	Regular Program	English Program
43. English is:		
1) a very difficult language	5.3	2.8
2) a difficult language	38.1	30.8
3) a language of medium difficulty	44.5	53.6
4) an easy language	11.7	12.3
5) a very easy language	0.4	0.5
44. If someone spend one hour learning English every day, how long would it take him or her to speak English well?		
1) less than a year		
2) 1-2 years	20.2	21.3
3) 3-5 years	43.7	36
4) 5-10 years	23.9	22.3
5) You can't learn a language in one hour a day	8.5	12.3
	3.6	8.1

Beliefs about Nature of Language Learning

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
7. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.			
Regular Program	10.1	26.3	63.6
English Program	8.6	25.6	65.9
10. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.			
Regular Program	12.1	39.7	48.2
English Program	10.9	24.6	64.4
12. In order to speak English, you have to think in English.			

Regular Program	20.2	41.7	38.1
English Program	19.4	34.1	46.4
15. The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words.			
Regular Program	9.7	31.2	59.1
English Program	13.7	28.4	57.8
17. It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English.			
Regular Program	12.1	25.5	62.4
English Program	3.3	20.9	75.8
20. The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar.			
Regular Program	31.6	37.2	31.2
English Program	20.3	39.3	40.3
27. I can learn a lot from non-native English teachers.			
Regular Program	19.5	43.3	37.2
English Program	17.5	43.1	39.3
28. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.			
Regular Program	14.9	31.2	53.9
English Program	8	35.1	56.8
30. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from Thai.			
Regular Program	19.8	38.5	41.7
English Program	27.9	36.5	35.6

Beliefs about Learning and Communication Strategies

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
6. It is important to speak English with an excellent accent.			
Regular Program	17	25.5	57.4
English Program	7.6	22.3	70.1

8. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.			
Regular Program	8.9	18.6	72.5
English Program	6.6	13.7	79.6
11. I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet.			
Regular Program			
English Program	19.4	41.3	39.3
	14.7	43.1	42.2
13. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in English.			
Regular Program	16.2	36.4	47.4
English Program	11.4	28.9	59.7
16. It is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning English.			
Regular Program	6.5	28.7	64.8
English Program	5.2	18	76.7
19. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.			
Regular Program	55.1	35.6	9.3
English Program	65.4	26.5	8
21. It is important to practice with multi-media.			
Regular Program	11.7	27.1	61.1
English Program	5.2	24.6	70.1
24. I can learn a lot from group activities with other students in my English class.			
Regular Program	12.5	40.1	47.3
English Program	8	35.1	56.9
29. It is possible to learn English on your own without a teacher or a class.			
Regular Program	15	36.4	48.6
English Program	18.5	21.3	60.2
31. Students and teachers should only speak English during English classes.			
Regular Program	16.2	31.2	52.6

English Program	11.4	30.3	58.3
32. I can find a lot of useful materials to practice English on the Internet.			
Regular Program	9.7	25.5	64.7
English Program	4.3	23.2	72.6
34. I have to spend so much time preparing for big English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET, TOEFL), that I don't have time to actually learn English.			
Regular Program	49	33.6	17.5
English Program	35.5	35.5	28.9
35. It is important to speak English like a native speaker.			
Regular Program	13.7	33.2	53
English Program	13.7	31.3	55
41. I feel timid speaking English with other people.			
Regular Program	34.8	32.8	32.4
English Program	25.1	29.4	45.5
42. General Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of my English ability.			
Regular Program	38.4	43.3	18.2
English Program	47.9	32.2	19.9

Beliefs about Motivations and Expectations

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
18. If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.			
Regular Program	8.9	219	69.3
English Program	3.8	10.9	85.3
23. I want to speak English well.			
Regular Program	8.1	19.8	72.1
English Program	4.3	12.8	82.9

26. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know English speakers.			
Regular Program	10.9	27.5	61.5
English Program	4.7	33.2	62.1
37. Thai people feel that it is important to speak English.			
Regular Program	12.9	21.1	66
English Program	11.4	24.6	64
38. I would like to have English speaking friends.			
Regular Program	6.9	27.1	66
English Program	8.5	22.3	69.2

Note: Regular Program (*N* = 253) English Program (*N* = 205)

Appendix G

Results of Beliefs about Language Learning between

High and Low Proficiency Group

Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.			
High Proficiency	10.6	26.8	62.7
Low Proficiency	20	36	44
2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.			
High Proficiency	6.3	12.9	80.9
Low Proficiency	12	28	60
4. Thai people are good at learning foreign languages.			
High Proficiency			
Low Proficiency	23.9	58.4	17.7
	40	32	28
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.			
High Proficiency	16.3	38.8	45.4
Low Proficiency	28	28	44
14. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.			
High Proficiency	19.1	48.3	32.6
Low Proficiency	16	36	48
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.			
High Proficiency	36.9	37.8	25.3
Low Proficiency	20	56	24

36. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.			
High Proficiency			
Low Proficiency	14.8	24.9	60.3
	0	36	64
39. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.			
High Proficiency	18.2	32.5	49.3
Low Proficiency	24	44	32
40. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.			
High Proficiency			
Low Proficiency	5.7	16.7	77.5
	20	36	44

Beliefs about Difficulty of Language Learning

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.			
High Proficiency	7.6	23.4	68.9
Low Proficiency	20	44	36
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.			
High Proficiency			
Low Proficiency	9.1	23.4	67.5
	26	44	26
25. It is easier to speak than understand English.			
High Proficiency	14.8	34.4	50.7
Low Proficiency	4	56	40
33. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.			
High Proficiency	29.7	37.8	32.5
Low Proficiency	24	52	24

Beliefs about Difficulty of Language Learning (Multiple-choice items)

Statements	Regular Program	English Program
43. English is:		
1) a very difficult language	1	0
2) a difficult language	13.9	8
3) a language of medium difficulty	53.6	28
4) an easy language	30.6	48
5) a very easy language	1	16
44. If someone spend one hour learning English every day,		
how long would it take him or her to speak English well?		
1) less than a year		
2) 1-2 years	23	24
3) 3-5 years	35	36
4) 5-10 years	22	24
5) You can't learn a language in one hour a day	12	8
	7	8

Beliefs about Nature of Language Learning

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
7. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English.			
High Proficiency	7.6	26.3	66
Low Proficiency	16	56	28
10. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.			
High Proficiency	9.1	30.1	60.8
Low Proficiency	20	32	48
12. In order to speak English, you have to think in English.			
High Proficiency	15.7	38.8	45.5
Low Proficiency	8	40	52

15. The most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words.			
High Proficiency	17.7	32.5	49.9
Low Proficiency	0	36	64
17. It is better to have teachers who are native-speakers of English.			
High Proficiency	4.3	19.6	76.1
Low Proficiency	20	36	44
20. The most important part of learning English is learning the grammar.			
High Proficiency	30.1	40.2	29.7
Low Proficiency	24	40	36
27. I can learn a lot from non-native English teachers.			
High Proficiency			
Low Proficiency	21.5	40.7	37.8
	28	36	38
28. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.			
High Proficiency	9.1	30.1	60.8
Low Proficiency	24	40	36
30. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from Thai.			
High Proficiency	32.5	40.2	27.2
Low Proficiency	16	52	32

Beliefs about Learning and Communication Strategies

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
6. It is important to speak English with an excellent accent.			
High Proficiency	10.5	23	66.5
Low Proficiency	20	28	52
8. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.			
High Proficiency	7.7	12.4	79.9
Low Proficiency	0	24	76
11. I enjoy practicing English with the people I meet. High Proficiency			
Low Proficiency	17.2	39.7	43.1
	8	44	48
13. It's ok to guess if you don't know a word in English.			
High Proficiency	11.9	28.2	59.8
Low Proficiency	8	28	64
16. It is a good idea to practice speaking with other people who are learning English.			
High Proficiency	4.3	22.3	73.2
Low Proficiency	16	28	56
19. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.			
High Proficiency	66.5	27.8	5.8
Low Proficiency	48	36	16
21. It is important to practice with multi-media.			
High Proficiency	6.2	21.1	72.7
Low Proficiency	24	52	24
24. I can learn a lot from group activities with other students in my English class.			
High Proficiency	11	39.2	49.8

Low Proficiency	24	36	40
29. It is possible to learn English on your own without a teacher or a class.			
High Proficiency	16.8	24.9	58.4
Low Proficiency	32	28	40
31. Students and teachers should only speak English during English classes.			
High Proficiency	12.9	29.2	57.9
Low Proficiency	20	36	44
32. I can find a lot of useful materials to practice English on the Internet.			
High Proficiency	4.8	20.1	75.1
Low Proficiency	20	28	52
34. I have to spend so much time preparing for big English tests (e.g. GAT, O-NET, TOEFL), that I don't have time to actually learn English.			
High Proficiency	37.3	37.8	24.9
Low Proficiency	68	20	10
35. It is important to speak English like a native speaker.			
High Proficiency	17.7	29.2	53.1
Low Proficiency	8	28	64
41. I feel timid speaking English with other people.			
High Proficiency	28.2	29.7	42.1
Low Proficiency	28	28	44
42. General Aptitude Test (GAT) or Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) are good tests of my English ability.			
High Proficiency	48.8	31.1	20.1
Low Proficiency	60	36	4

Beliefs about Motivations and Expectations

Statements	Levels of Agreement		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
18. If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.			
High Proficiency	3.8	10	86.1
Low Proficiency	12	44	44
23. I want to speak English well.			
High Proficiency	4.7	9.6	85.7
Low Proficiency	16	12	72
26. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know English speakers.			
High Proficiency	9.1	30.1	60.8
Low Proficiency	16	32	52
37. Thai people feel that it is important to speak English.			
High Proficiency	11	22	67
Low Proficiency	16	24	60
38. I would like to have English speaking friends.			
High Proficiency	7.7	23	69.4
Low Proficiency	8	32	60

Note: High Proficiency Group (*N* =209) Low Proficiency Group (*N* = 25)

VITA

Mr. Sirawit Apairach was born on the 22nd December 1989 in Kamphaeng Phet Province. He received his Bachelor of Arts (English) with first-class honors from Naresuan University. During his undergraduate years, he worked as a private English tutor, and, in his final semester, he attended the Professional Training Course as a trainee teacher at Kamphaengphet Pittayakom School. In the year of 2012, he pursued a master's degree in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) at the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University. In the program, he received the Teaching Assistant Scholarship by the Graduate School of Chulalongkorn University. In 2014, he presented his research entitled "Understanding the Complex Relationships between Beliefs about Language Learning, Language Learning Strategies, Proficiency, Gender, and Educational Contexts" at the 1st CULI-LITU International Conference in Bangkok, Thailand. At the present, he is a candidate for a part-time teaching position at Chulalongkorn University Language Institute. In the future, he is looking forward to opening a language school in Kamphaeng Phet, his hometown.