

***The Motivation to Learn English of Low proficiency Students in
the Thai Tertiary Context***

Nitchaya Boonma

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his/her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

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Abstract

Compulsory English courses for non-English major university students are now ubiquitous in EFL contexts across the globe, and often present significant challenges for teachers. This thesis reports an intervention study that aimed to increase the motivation to learn English of low proficiency students taking such courses in the Thai context . Based on the principles of Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which holds that learners' motives for studying can become more intrinsic and powerful if teaching is felt to satisfy their basic human needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness, a teaching intervention was designed and applied to a cohort of 354 first year Thai students on a university Remedial English course. To help the students see value in and have positive perceptions of English language learning, students' comments and reactions to the teaching intervention were monitored using questionnaires, feedback sheets and focus groups.

Analysis of the data indicates that there were significant differences between motivation to learn English of students in the intervention and non-intervention groups. Qualitative data from students' feedback and focus groups reinforced the questionnaire results, indicating an increase in students' motivation and showing that students were satisfied with their classroom learning, enjoyed benefits from engaging in the class activities and experienced increases in their confidence and knowledge gained from the class. This study therefore argues that the SDT concept of needs satisfaction is useful for informing teacher's motivational classroom practices, especially with remedial students whose prior experiences of language learning have been demotivating. The thesis draws implications from the study for the design of courses for university students, as well as for ways of researching motivation with such a population.

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Chapter 1 : Introduction and background

'When you plant lettuce, if it does not grow well, you don't blame the lettuce. You look for reasons it is not doing well. It may need fertilizer, or more water, or less sun. You never blame the lettuce. Blaming has no positive effect at all. .. That is my experience. No blame, ..no argument, just understanding. If you understand, and you show that you understand, ..the situation will change.'

(Thich Nhat Hanh, 2010: 78)

1.1 Introduction and Development of the study

The quotation by Hahn (2010) above encapsulates, for me, the essence of language learning motivation study, and influences my desire to develop practices which will inspire and motivate students to flourish. It is true, as Hanh notes above, that we certainly do not blame a plant when it is not blooming. However, we may need to look at the factors why it does not flourish. Growing the plant is the same as facilitating the growth in students' learning. Instead of blaming students for low achievement, the teacher needs to identify students' problems, listen to and understand them, and give necessary support so that they can see value in their learning, and continue to learn in order to gain success in their study. As Hahn suggests, I recognise the need to 'look for the reasons [the students are] not doing well', identify the barriers to their learning, and show them that I 'understand'. Motivation would therefore be a kind of fertilizer, necessary for students' success in language learning, along with the light of exposure to a supportive learning environment, and the nutrients of basic motivational conditions sufficient for their learning to grow.

Before I began my Doctoral study in the UK, I doubted whether I, as a teacher of English, could do anything to improve my students' motivation for learning English. I had been an English teacher at two public universities in Bangkok for almost seven years. The first university is in the heart of Bangkok where I was mainly responsible for the Foundation English courses and ESP courses for the Medical, Dentistry and Nursing students. Later, I moved to the second university which I was employed as an English instructor and a course coordinator for the Foundation English Courses. This university specialises in agricultural sciences and is ranked as one of top three universities in Thailand. However, I was surprised that despite

the university high ranking, the students' English proficiency and their motivation for learning English were a lot different from my initial expectation. Many students seemed to lack motivation and did not seem to appreciate the value of English classes and come to the class regularly. Therefore, I think it is necessary to explore these issues and place this study at my current workplace.

Serving as an English instructor at the second university, I tried my best to accommodate the needs of students in order to make them learn English with a positive attitude and feelings of enjoyment and continue to learn English throughout their undergraduate study. When I started my Doctoral study, I hoped that the theories of motivation would provide insights into how Thai students could learn English better than at present. I am always enthusiastic to expand my knowledge of how I can enhance the students' motivation and make the English class more pleasant so that I can develop the teaching practices that successfully help myself and my colleagues when I go back to Thailand.

However, during my Doctoral study, I have realised that previous studies in language learning motivation are unique, varied in different socio-educational settings, and cannot fully provide explanations to the students' limited motivation in the Thai tertiary context, which is also culturally bound. In Thailand, there has been little research on students' motivation in English language learning other than the study of Noom-ura (2008), the only one to date that focuses on a class of low-achieving university students. Most research in the Thai tertiary context has been directed at the learning strategies of English majors or high-achieving students, while low-achieving or less-able students who actually need special attention seem to be ignored. This study has therefore been initiated by my own curiosity and professional concern for the tertiary level, remedial English language education and a desire to improve language learning conditions for low-achieving students.

This study focuses on the motivation for learning English of students in a university Remedial English course. The purpose of the study is to examine students' motivation for learning English and to identify the elements of a teaching intervention which appear to contribute to an increase in motivation. In this study, I have attempted to bring the students' voices to the forefront through the lens of the Self-determination Theory (SDT). I believe SDT is valid on the basis that the students need to learn in an environment that supports the growth in their basic

psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness, which would enable them to see values in their learning, and continue to learn on their own. The SDT constructs also have more potential to capture the students' motivation, and classroom teaching practices, and it would be valuable to pass on what I discover in this study to my colleagues and other Thai teachers for the development of their motivational classroom teaching practices.

This study begins with a review of existing research and studies, which I feel is relevant to a discussion of L2 motivation in the Thai tertiary context. This review is followed by a description of the research methodology, which is influenced by the literature review, and guided by the research questions. The results of quantitative and qualitative data analysis are then presented, and discussed. Finally, after a discussion of the significant findings, which draws on both sets of data, the concluding remarks will cover the limitations of the study, and implications for future studies.

1.2 Background and Context of the Study

1.2.1 English language teaching in Thailand

In Thailand, Thai is the official language of the country, while English is a medium of interaction in business, IT and tourist sectors. English is viewed by most Thais as a tool to gain access to well-paid jobs, higher levels of education, as well as knowledge and information through international and online media. In line with increasing demands for English, the practical use of English began to receive attention from Thai educational sectors. Reforms of English language teaching and curriculum have been initiated by the Ministry of Education and Ministry of University Affairs in 1999 (Wongsothorn et al., 2002). English has been a compulsory subject in schools from the First Grade. The functional communicative approach, with an emphasis on the four skills, has been introduced in a national syllabus (Prapphal, 2008). However, as 'teaching practices still follow testing practices' (Ibid: 128), the objective of English teaching and learning in most Thai schools is mainly to help students pass the university entrance examination, a national standardized paper-based English test which focuses on grammar and vocabulary (Wongsothorn et al., 2002; Prapphal, 2008).

Thai students are under pressure to pass the university entrance examination. For most Thais, passing the screening process to study in public universities is more prestigious than gaining entry to private universities where the national university entrance examination is not required. Graduates from public universities also tend to have more employment opportunities. Furthermore, students' success does not only bring pride to themselves and their families but also a good reputation to the schools for having a high rate of students' achievement on the university entrance examination. As a result, English teaching and learning in most Thai schools is influenced by the demands of the university entrance examination and is often restricted to practices on grammar and vocabulary exercises (Ibid).

In Thailand, the focus on grammar and vocabulary teaching is seen as a way for both school and university teachers to best manage the job of teaching large classes of around 50 students (e.g. Prapphal, 2008; Todd, 2006; Jimakorn & Singhasiri, 2006). However, this practice, which involves learners memorising grammar structure and vocabulary, has been found to have negative effects on Thai students rather than helping them achieve a high level of English proficiency (Wongsothorn et al., 2002). Most Thais cannot apply what they learn in the English class to life outside the classroom.

Also, it seems that the curriculum of most Thai universities does not prepare students for the demands of communicating in English in workplaces ; a context which requires the practical use of English, especially speaking and listening skills (Khaopa, 2012; Noom-ura, 2008; Prapphal, 2003). According to Wongsothorn et al. (2002), English should no longer be seen as a subject to learn for academic purposes, but for social and practical use. As the tertiary level is the final stage for students to be prepared for their future career and higher education, an English curriculum which fosters collaborative learning, thinking processes and practical use of English is needed at the Thai tertiary level (Ibid). These facts may explain the low-achieving Thai students as they may see little value in attending the university English courses and have little motivation to learn. They also indicate the need to develop a teaching approach, which will raise; students' motivation and achievement (Choosri & Intharaksa, 2011; Noom-ura, 2008; and Prapphal, 2003).

Previous studies (e.g. Prapphal, 2008; Noytim, 2006; Prapphal & Opanon-amata, 2002) have also indicated the low-level of English proficiency of Thai students, which, before they graduate from high school is an average of 34 per cent below the standard of 50 percent, the criterion of acceptance at university level (Wongsothorn et al., 2002). As recently stated in *The Bangkok Post* (2012)'s article, *English skills below ASEAN partners*, Thailand was also ranked as the lowest among the ASEAN countries on the recent regional online survey of English language proficiency by Education First (EF), an international language training company. This implies that English language teaching and learning in Thailand is still in need of improvement (Chongkittavorn, 2012).

1.2.2 English language teaching in the Thai tertiary contexts

After Thai students have entered the university, in general, they are required to take the university Foundation English courses; remedial, beginner, intermediate or high intermediate level. 12 credits or four English Language courses are required for undergraduate students; approximately three credits for foundation courses based on the level of English proficiency gained from the entrance exam, and nine credits for academic English (EAP) and specific English (ESP) courses. The courses are normally taught by both full-time and part-time teachers. However, as commented by Todd (2006), each Thai university has set their own score range to place students into the Foundation courses, according to the numbers of students attending the university each year. Besides, there is 'a lot of variation between the Thai universities, in areas like teachers' qualifications, teaching techniques, course objectives, requirements and expectations (Ibid: 8).

At the university where I am currently employed, each year there are around 5,000 students who need to take the Foundation English courses. To limit numbers of students on the Foundation courses, students who gain more than 70 per cent in the university entrance examination are allowed to pass the Foundation courses, and progress to take academic and specific English courses in their area. While students who gain less than 30 per cent are placed on a non-credited remedial course, before moving to the higher level Foundation English courses.

There are 14 faculties located at the main campus in Bangkok. The university was founded in 1943 with its primary responsibility to serve the needs of the Ministry of Agriculture. Most of its faculties, such as Agriculture, Fisheries, Forestry, Veterinary and Agro-Industry, were established to support its specialization in farming and animal husbandry. As this research intends to focus on the students on a Remedial English course, it is worth setting out the course objectives as stated in the syllabus (See Appendix C, p.186):

To enhance students' knowledge and practice of grammatical points, language functions, vocabularies and four macro skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking).

(A syllabus is written in English.)

As can be seen above, objectives of the course are general in nature. In fact, they are the same as the course syllabus of the higher level of Foundation English courses, which emphasise students' language proficiency. While it is stated clearly in the course description that 'the student centre is focused for the teaching', most of its content tends to focus on 'lectures and explanation for the language points'. However, it is necessary to remark that, for most teachers, the course syllabus is considered only as a guideline, for instance, to cover the course content for the midterm and final exam. Based on my experience as a course coordinator, most teachers have their own style of organising the course content and class. Most of them do not strictly follow the descriptions stated in the course syllabus.

At present, the curriculum of Foundation English courses at most Thai universities reflect a Communicative Language Teaching approach (Saengboon, 2006) including the integration of the four skills (Noom-ura, 2008). Many universities use American or British commercial English textbooks in the class with the hope that the textbooks will bring in the communicative and interactive learning atmosphere which is rarely found in the Thai EFL context. However, most Thai teachers are not familiar with communicative language teaching and tend to teach the class in their own way, which in my experience, means omitting the interactive and communicative activities suggested in the textbook. The class is controlled by the teacher who repeatedly explains grammar points and then distributes grammar exercises. There is little interaction between teachers and students.

At most Thai public universities, there is also an insufficient number of English teachers. Some universities already have a policy to promote large classes as a

solution to the problem (Jimakorn & Singhasiri, 2006). Two or three English classes are sometimes merged into one to deal with the shortage of teachers. For most Thai teachers, a teacher-fronted classroom with grammar translation, and practices on receptive skills such as reading and listening, which are most easily taught and tested in paper-based exams, is still their solution to control a typical class size of around 50 students (Baker, 2008 and Jimakorn & Singhasiri, 2006).

As English is not the students' main area of interest, they can show some negative reactions towards the courses. My own experience is similar to what Noom-ura (2008) describes in her study that students tend to come to class late, work on other subjects, sleep in class or not attend the class. Even though students are aware that they will be required to take the course repeatedly if they cannot meet the course requirement, they often show low engagement in class activities, ignore the class assignments and do little to study out-of-class. Problems exist from semester to semester so long as students cannot pass the university Foundation English courses, and they need to keep retaking the course in the next academic year until they do pass the course requirement. Some students have been stuck on the course for years, remaining with the same course book, course evaluation, and examination, and possibly the same teacher. The increasing number of students on a remedial English course is a problem, which needs urgent attention.

Since they are forced to take the English courses, and since the university English courses have much the same classroom conditions and the same focus on grammar and translation as the English courses in High School, Thai university students tend to take the courses only to meet the degree requirement. In their research on the Thai tertiary students, Nuchnoi (2008) and Ketkham (2003) found that most students feel disillusioned with the university English courses. When they approach graduation from the university, they reported their dissatisfaction with their English proficiency and that the university English courses did not improve their English proficiency (Ibid). Ketkham (2003) also found that some students were advised by their seniors to score less than their real proficiency in the placement test, as they could gain higher scores and good grades from enrolling in the low-level English courses.

The early sections of this chapter show that ELT situations in Thailand are not different from other Asian EFL contexts (e.g. Chen, 2012; Pae, 2008; Chen et al.,

2005) where students learn English because of their concerns about future careers and education. As English is learned as a 'required' foreign language subject (Warden & Lin, 2000: 539) and learners do not have much opportunity to use it outside the classroom, they do not see the real value of their learning and their motivation decreases through time (See Section 2.5). This study aims to come up with a possible set of effective classroom motivational teaching practice, which will enable the learning development of the students, help the students see value and have positive perceptions towards English language learning at the university. According to Dörnyei (1994), there are various motivational teaching strategies that can be deployed to improve the level of students' motivation, attention, participation and volunteering of students in the class. These strategies will have been incorporated into the teaching intervention as classroom activities and their influence on students' motivation to learn English will be examined. This leads to the issue of whether the use of motivational strategies in the Thai context is any better than the traditional practices, which focus on grammar and translation, and whether there is a valid theoretical framework to examine students' motivation, and changes in their motivation. However, the issues will be refined and elaborated later after the review of relevant theory and previous research studies.

1.3 Organisation of the Study

This study is organised into eight chapters. Chapter 1 has introduced the background and context of the study. Chapter 2 consists of a literature review that addresses four main areas. The first and second parts look at the development of L2 motivation studies, and the relevant literature, which provides the theoretical basis for this study. The third part reviews how L2 motivation theories have been approached in the Thai tertiary context. The final part of the literature review considers the applications of motivational teaching strategies, and how they may be incorporated into the real classroom teaching practice. In Chapter 3, I discuss and explain research methodology, the rationale behind the design of the research study, research instruments and procedures of undertaking the data collection, and data analysis. The following chapters are concerned with a presentation of the findings. Chapter 4 offers an overview of the preliminary results from the two phases of the questionnaire data, with brief explanations and discussions. Chapter 5 offers a qualitative perspective derived from the two phases of focus groups, intended to complement and support the quantitative findings. Chapter 6 describes

in detail the implementation of the teaching intervention, which is the main focus of the study, and students' comments on the teaching intervention. Principal findings based on the three research questions are presented in Chapter 7, followed by a discussion of key findings. In Chapter 8, limitations and contributions of the study, pedagogical and research implications, and final conclusions with regard to the research findings are offered.

Chapter 2 : Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This section reviews existing studies which are relevant to a discussion of English learning motivation in the Thai context. The selection from the vast literature on L2 motivation presented here is based on its relatedness to the topic of this study, and the design of this study and is linked to the later interpretation of the results of the study.

2.2 Trends in the study of L2 motivation

The definition of motivation has been extended over the decades. As defined by many scholars, motivation is an abstract psychological construct underlying people's decision and action. According to Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011), motivation cannot be considered as a cause or an effect of language learning. However, it develops gradually through different stages of the motivational process. It is

‘a complex mental process which involves initial planning and goal setting, intention information, task generation, action implementation, action control and outcome evaluation (Ibid: 6)’.

Motivation develops from a purpose and, then, guides an action. It explains why people decide to undertake a particular activity and how long they will make an effort to participate in the activity (Dörnyei, 2005). To succeed in language learning, motivation is considered crucial. Without sufficient motivation, Dörnyei stresses that ‘even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long term goals (Ibid: 65)’.

Initially, Dörnyei (2005) divides the studies of motivation into three periods. The first period, 1959-1990, is characterised by social psychological aspects of L2 learning in the bilingual Canadian context. The second period, during the 1990s, is shifted to cognitive psychology with the focus on education and classroom settings. The third period, or the ‘process-oriented period’, is characterised by studies during the turn of the new century, focusing on motivational change and demotivation. Recently, Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011) have identified the rise of the current developments of L2 motivation studies or ‘the socio-dynamic period’ (Ibid: 40), characterised by a

concern with the 'complexities of the language learning and language use in the modern globalized world' (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012: 396).

A brief overview of the four periods follows:

2.2.1 The social psychological period

The study of motivation was initiated by social psychologists in Canada, Gardner and Lambert, and the publication, in 1959, of their pioneering work on attitudes and motivation and their impact on L2 learning and L2 achievement (Dörnyei, 2005). Since then, L2 motivation has been regarded as one important factor influencing an L2 learner's success and failure in learning a second language. To Gardner & Lambert (1972), learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects. It does not concern only skills-learning or knowledge-acquiring, but also involves other aspects of social contexts such as learners' attitudes and relationships with members of different linguistic communities.

In 1985, Gardner developed the socio-educational model of second language acquisition which highlights integrative motivation as its main aspect. According to Gardner (1985; as cited in Dörnyei, 2005), the socio-educational model includes three major elements; (1) *Integrativeness*, an integrative orientation with a positive perception of an L2, an L2 community and its members, a desire or an interest to interact with members of the L2 community or become a member of the community; (2) *L2 learners' attitude towards their L2 learning situation*, which includes attitudes toward L2 teachers and the language course, and (3) *Motivation*, which includes L2 learners' effort, desire and positive attitude towards L2 learning.

Although the term, instrumental orientation, was not actually presented when Gardner originally proposed the socio-educational model, when describing L2 learning motivation, the concepts of integrative and instrumental orientation in learning an L2 are used frequently as a dichotomous type of learning motivation. However, the term *instrumental orientation* was actually included as a practical or utilitarian dimension gained from learning an L2 in the Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery (AMBT), a standardized test in the area of L2 motivation research (Dörnyei, 2005).

Within the social psychological tradition, integrativeness seems to be more important than individual intelligence or the ability to gain achievement in L2 learning (Gardner, 2001). Nevertheless, as commented by Noels et al. (2000) and Noels (2001), the concept of integrative orientation is only relevant to specific sociocultural contexts and cannot be viewed as fundamental to sustain the motivational process. Since there are other influential motivational factors, Gardner (2001: 12) notes that 'there is no reason to argue that motivation is driven only by integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situation'. Later Gardner revised his model and categorised motivational factors into four groups (Ibid: 6-7); (1) external influences, such as past learning experiences and cultural backgrounds; (2) individual differences; (3) language learning contexts; and (4) outcomes of the language learning.

2.2.2 *The shift to educational focus*

Studies in this period were influenced by works of educational psychologists with the desire to extend studies of L2 motivation to other language learning contexts, such as the actual classroom practice. According to Dörnyei (1994; 2005), studies in this period are viewed as attempts to complement Gardner's social psychological tradition to make L2 motivation research more applicable to classroom settings. Some studies in this period focus on similar aspects to Gardner's, for instance, learners' attitudes toward language learning situations.

As part of the attempt to provide a framework of L2 learning motivation, Dörnyei (1994) and Williams and Burden (1997) proposed a broad list of L2 learning motivational dimensions and factors. In 1994, Dörnyei developed a general framework of L2 learning motivation, which categorises motivational components into three major dimensions; (1) language level, (2) learner level and (3) learning situation level. However, according to Dörnyei (1998), the framework fails to relate the relationship between components in each dimension. Moreover, Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) comment that various types of motivational components in the framework are not theoretically supported and difficult to apply to empirical research studies.

As an overview of psychology for language teachers, in 1997 Williams and Burden proposed another framework of motivational components related to L2 instruction. According to Dörnyei & Ottó (1998), the framework clearly covers important aspects and issues in L2 motivation studies such as external and contextual factors. The framework categorises motivational factors into two groups; (1) internal factors such as interest or attitude of learners towards their competence and learning activities and (2) external factors caused by significant others such as parents, teachers, peers and learning contexts.

During this period, existing motivation theories in psychology, such as self-determination, were also brought into the area of L2 learning motivation as alternative approaches to capture characteristics of motivation in various language learning contexts. In 1985, Deci and Ryan proposed that intrinsic motivation has the potential to motivate learners to learn successfully. From the self-determination theory (SDT) perspective, L2 learners' motivation is 'maximised' (Pae, 2008: 7) if they are provided with a proper learning environment which supports their three fundamental needs - autonomy, competence and relatedness. According to Deci and Ryan (1985: 245; as cited in Dörnyei, 1994),

'when the educational environment provides optimal challenges, rich sources of stimulation, and a context of autonomy, this motivational wellspring in learning is likely to flourish'.

Self-determination theory has provided useful implications to educational settings. For example, its comprehensive constructs and continuum of motivation which consists of 'graded internalisation of external motives' clearly describe distinct motivational orientations as a process of internalisation and transformation of external motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011: 82), from the lower degree of self-determination to the higher degree of self-regulation. Therefore, its constructs are broad enough to capture various EFL situations, such as in Thailand, which is the context of this study, and useful for the teacher to identify suitable motivational teaching strategies to promote the students' motivation in many different stages, either the motivated students or those with limited motivation. Besides, L2 and SDT theorists believe that the teachers can promote the process of internalisation by satisfying students' senses of basic psychological needs through the classroom teaching practices such as promoting 'students' transportable identities' (Ushioda, 2011b: 205-206) or using an autonomy-supportive communicative style (e.g. Reeve et al., 2004; Reeve, 2002). In this study, the SDT concept of needs satisfaction is

also valuable as a framework for planning the teaching intervention and outlining the teacher's motivational teaching practices in the classroom. Self-determination theory is discussed in more details in Section 2.3.

2.2.3 *The process-oriented period*

With the intention to take the dynamic nature of L2 motivation into account, focuses of this period concern the temporal aspects of motivation, view of motivation as a process and attempts to measure the L2 motivation at a particular point of time during the actual learning process. For example, Dörnyei & Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation attempts to capture the temporal nature of the motivational process by dividing it into three phases: the pre-actional, actional, and post-actional phase. However, Dörnyei (2005) points out limitations of this model that it isolates the actional process from other ongoing activities such as individual or social activities which possibly occur at the same time. Besides, the model shows the L2 motivational development as a one way or linear process and that confirms Ushioda's (2001) view of the limitations of traditional models of L2 motivation studies. Ushioda's works have been crucial in providing an understanding of L2 motivation as a product of the learner's interaction with their social context. Based on her studies, the traditional models tend to focus on predicting the linear causal relationship between L2 motivation and L2 learning behaviours (Ibid). This makes such models unrealistic and unable to capture the dynamic nature of the L2 motivation in the actual language learning situations, which might possibly be influenced by L2 learners' experiences of success and failure in learning L2.

Because of the unstable nature of motivation, new motivational concepts were developed to capture these characteristics. One concept concerning the temporal nature of motivation is demotivation. The concept of demotivation was proposed to describe the phenomenon when the motivation of L2 learners drops after a period of learning (Dörnyei, 2005). Demotivation is often seen as learning failure and an unpleasant classroom experience for teachers. Studies of demotivation have been increasing, in order to understand and find solutions to this phenomenon. Previous studies (e.g. Kikuchi, 2009; Falout and Falout, 2005; Hasegawa, 2004) found that teachers are the most important source of demotivation for students. According to Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008), when students' learning motivation is low, teacher's

motivation to use motivational techniques and prepare motivating classroom activities decreases accordingly. These studies promoted a consideration of demotivation when planning and designing the teaching intervention in this study. A further description of demotivation is presented in section 2.4.

2.2.4 *The current socio-dynamic period*

The shift to the recent developments of L2 motivation studies or socio-dynamic period has been influenced by the notion of English as a global language and the limitations of L2 motivation studies in the process-oriented period, which fail to capture and investigate the dynamic and complexity of the L2 learning process in the globalising contexts. New concepts of English language teaching and learning, such as the World Englishes, were introduced to capture the changing status of worldwide English speakers and the distinct characteristics of English language learners in the contemporary globalised world. A growing number of English language users worldwide consider English as an international language, not a Western or European language as in the past. As mentioned by Strevens (1992: 39),

‘English will be taught mostly by non-native speakers of the language to non-native speakers in order to communicate mainly with non-native speakers’.

L2 motivation studies have been influenced by Gardner’s social psychological tradition e.g. the integrative and instrumental dimensions, the use of quantitative research approach which treats L2 motivation as a set of ‘measurable’ components (Ushioda, 2001: 94) and the pedagogical concerns to develop generalisable models to predict L2 learners’ motivation and propose valid pedagogical strategies for the teachers to enhance learners’ motivation. However, the concept of integrativeness, which focuses on learners’ positive attitude toward the L2 community and desire to identify with its community, has now been considered not sufficient to capture the clear picture of L2 motivation of learners in many EFL contexts (Ushioda, 2011a, 2011b; Yashima, 2009, 2002; Lamb, 2009, 2004). First, it cannot capture and characterise learners’ motivation for learning English e.g. in terms of the learning contexts and how English is learned (Ushioda, 2011a). This is particularly with L2 learning situations in EFL contexts (e.g. Warden and Lin, 2000, in Taiwanese context) where L2 learners are not in daily contact with the L2 community and

learning English has become a required educational basic skill. Besides, it fails to capture the nature of English native speakers and English-speaking communities in the age of globalisation where the status of English has changed to the 'world lingua franca' (Ushioda, 2011a: 199) and people around the world use English to communicate through social and online networks.

New concepts such as bicultural identity of EFL learners (Lamb, 2004) and international posture (Yashima, 2002), introduced to characterize L2 learners in this period, also cast doubt on the value of Gardner's 'integrativeness' as a valid or useful element in L2 motivation. Both these concepts illustrate that L2 learners could have a positive attitude towards the L2 community and gain success in L2 learning without the desire to integrate with the language community or its culture. The concept of bicultural identity is used to describe a sense of belonging of an individual L2 learner to both their L1 community and the global English-speaking community. Based on Lamb's (2004) study of Indonesian students, the students' ideas of an English-speaking community were associated with the ideas resulted from the role of English as a global language, for instance, meeting with westerners, using computers, understanding pop songs, studying or travelling abroad, and pursuing a future career (Ibid). Although L2 learners in some EFL contexts may have limited exposure to English, consumption of global cultures through media such as television or the Internet may create a bicultural identity which motivates EFL learners to learn the language (Ibid).

In more specific EFL contexts such as in Japan, Yashima (2002) introduced the concept of international posture to describe a set of individual variables among Japanese learners. According to her, some young Japanese learners have an international orientation which positively influences their motivation to learn English (Ibid). The international orientation includes an interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to study or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners and their attitude toward different cultures. Considering the increasingly globalised use of English in contemporary times, these concepts are more realistic than Gardner's concept of integrativeness. In addition, there is a shift in focus from L2 learners' identification with 'external reference groups' (Ibid: 202) or a specific community of native English speakers to the learners' own identity, and that links L2 motivation studies with identities, needs and interests of language learners in contemporary globalizing contexts.

According to Norton (2011: 171), teaching a language is effective when 'the teacher recognises the multiple identities of students and develops pedagogical practices that enhance students' investment in the language practices of the classroom'. Norton uses the term *investment* to show the extent to which the L2 learner is committed to learn and decides to engage in an L2 learning activity which they believe to be meaningful to them. The identity of language learners is seen as complex, unique and varied through time and contexts (Ibid). L2 learners do not only have a role as a learner in a language class, but also other different roles in different socio-cultural contexts which also shape their identities, and it is the teacher's responsibility to recognise and link the class activities with the multi-facets of students' identities. Based on this, there is also a need for non-linear and dynamic systems for analysis and investigation of L2 motivation.

With the aims to provide a framework to capture the contemporary nature of L2 motivation in the globalised learning contexts and reconceptualise Gardner's concept of integrativeness, in 2005, Dörnyei proposed a new construct of L2 Motivational Self System as an alternative framework based on existing psychological theories e.g. Markus and Nurius's (1986) possible self-theory and Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory. The framework consists of the three components: Ideal L2 Self, represents the future self-image or 'desire to reduce the discrepancy between actual and ideal selves' that one would like to possess (Dörnyei, 2005:105); Ought to L2 Self, representing what one believes one ought to possess to 'avoid possible negative outcomes' (Ibid:105); and L2 learning experience which 'concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience' (Ibid: 106).

Dörnyei's framework of L2 Motivational Self System focuses on various aspects of L2 learners' identity and possibilities, so that even the teachers in diverse EFL contexts can guide and inspire their students to construct the Ideal L2 Self in order to achieve a higher level of L2 proficiency. However, the framework might not be easily applied to the remedial students, the participants of this study who seemed to enter the course with a negative attitude and low motivation for learning English. In this regard, the self-determination theory is a more relevant theoretical framework for this study. First, the SDT construct enables the teacher to explore the students' motivation and subsequent changes in their motivation, and that

enables the teacher to identify suitable L2 learning activities to support students' motivational development. Second, the remedial students have a long history of failure and negative experiences in learning English, and tend to feel obliged to come to class. SDT concept of basic psychological needs is also useful, especially for the teachers to plan and design learning activities that support satisfaction of the students' psychological needs. For example, they may need to be provided with some basic motivational preconditions, or opportunities to learn in a supportive learning atmosphere, which possibly foster the internalisation of their extrinsic motivation and that would make them see value in learning English and start coming to the class with the more self-determined form of motivation. Further details of the self-determination theory is presented in the Section 2.3 below

2.3 Self-determination theory (SDT)

The Self-determination Theory (SDT) posits that humans could regulate their own behaviour and tend to perform or engage in activities that fulfill basic psychological needs. Drawing on the concept of needs used by SDT theorists e.g. Niemiec & Ryan (2009); Noels (2009); Reeve et al. (2004); Ryan & Deci (2002), intrinsic motivation can be initiated and sustained by satisfying individuals' basic human needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness, which is important to personal growth and well-being.

- **Autonomy** refers to the feeling that a person decides to initiate or willingly engage in an activity which they feel of value and interest.
- **Competence** refers to the feeling of confidence that a person is able to effectively exercise and develop their capacities in performing an activity within optimal challenges.
- **Relatedness** refers to the feeling of security that a person is accepted and valued as a member of the community.

The more learners perceive that their basic psychological needs are supported, the more internalised their reason for performing or engaging in an activity.

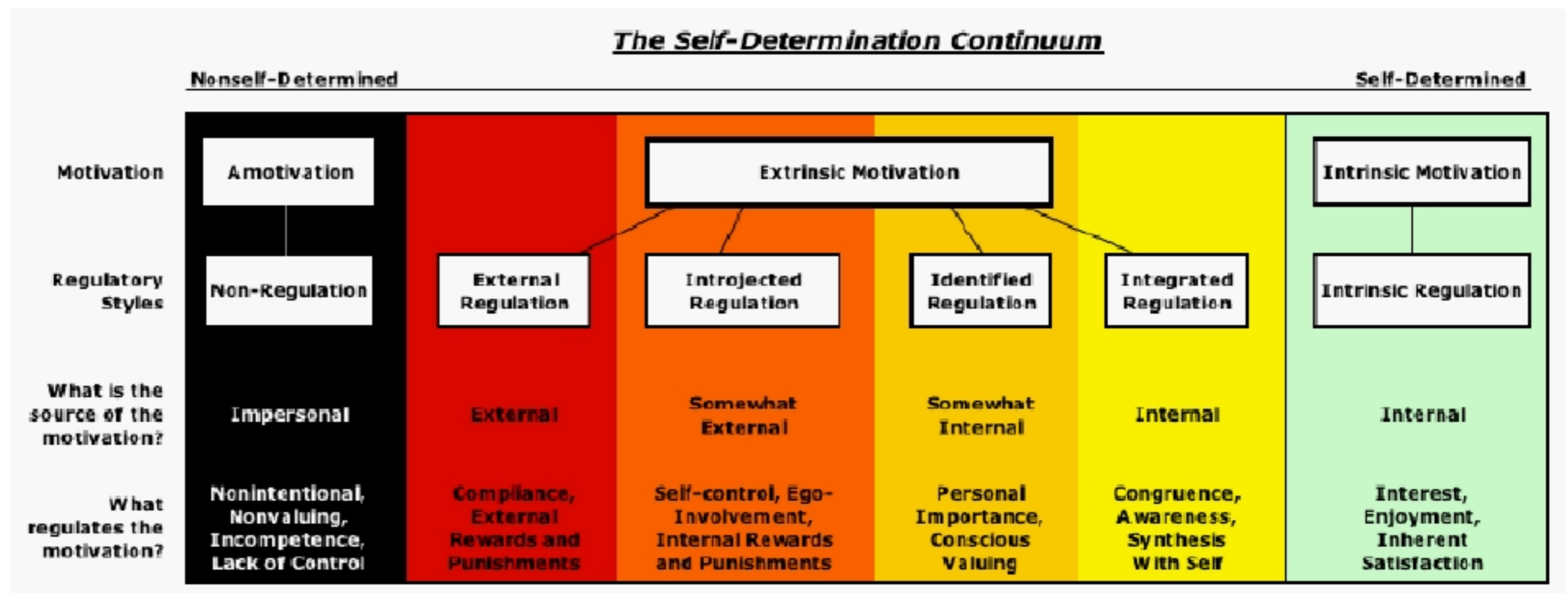


Figure 2.3-1 Self-determination continuum (Davies, 2009)

As seen in Figure 2.3-1, three types of the self-determined forms of motivation are ordered on SDT continuum, from amotivation through four subtypes of extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation. In many SDT studies, e.g. Ryan & Deci (2002) and Noels (2001), intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are emphasised as the main elements of SDT. Intrinsic motivation is when one approaches an activity on one's own with personal interest or enjoyment, while extrinsic motivation is seen as controlled motivation governed by external forces or conditions such as rewards, punishments or social pressure. Although the detrimental effects of extrinsic rewards were indicated by some early research e.g. Deci et al. (2001) as possibly undermining one's intrinsic interest, Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011: 129) argue that extrinsic rewards can now be seen as 'complementary' to intrinsic interest through the developmental process of internalisation, depending on what the rewards are and how the rewards are given or presented to learners.

The SDT continuum shows a developmental process of internalisation of extrinsic motivation from the lowest to the highest degree of self-determination of a person (Reeve et al., 2004 and Ryan & Deci, 2002), which is necessary to sustain one's learning motivation especially for doing activities that are not interesting or enjoyable (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Ryan & Deci (2000) comment that a person can be motivated to initiate or perform an activity with any particular type of motives based on their prior experiences, situational or contextual factors. Besides, a person may not be motivated to behave or perform an activity by only one reason or goal, but rather several reasons or goals, which are relevant to each other, may be endorsed to help them achieve or gain success in performing an activity (Noels, 2001; 2009).

Within SDT, **amotivation** is considered as a separate type of motivation, where an intention to act is absent (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It is when a person does not value an activity or its outcome, or feels a sense of incompetence and helplessness to perform an activity, which makes him/ her decide not to engage in the activity or act passively.

Extrinsic motivation is classified into four levels of reasons or goals for learning.

(1) *External regulation*, when a reason to behave or perform an activity is controlled by external sources, which is separate from the behaviour or activity itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000), for example, personal desires to receive rewards, tangible incentives or to avoid negative consequences such as punishment.

(2) *Introjected regulation*, when a person feels obliged or pressured to behave or perform an activity to meet others' demands, norms or expectations. As defined by Vallerand & Ratelle (2002), this type of regulation becomes involved with a personal sense of self. Therefore, as explained by Niemiec & Ryan (2009: 137); Reeve & Ryan (2004: 38) and Ryan & Deci (2000: 62), a reason to behave is to maintain or enhance a person's ego or self esteem e.g. to receive social recognition, feel pride or worth, reduce or avoid feelings of guilt.

(3) *Identified regulation*, when a person decides to behave or perform an activity because he/ she sees its value or considers it as highly important, relevant or useful to help achieve their other personal goals.

(4) *Integrated regulation*, when a reason to behave or perform a particular activity has been synthesised (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009: 138) and is accepted and fully integrated with other personal goals, beliefs, interests or needs. Noels (2009) adds that the behaviour or action needs to match or fit in with the person's other values, and expresses who that person is. As defined by Ryan & Deci (2000: 62), it is the most autonomous and self-determined form of extrinsically motivated behaviour, in which one's identified regulation has been assimilated with other personal existing values or needs. However, as commented by Noels (2001; as cited in Pae, 2008: 8), this type of regulation is 'difficult to distinguish from the identified regulation'. Moreover, Katsuhisa & Masahide (2006: 41) and Noels (2001: 48) remark that the regulation is assumed to be found only in 'advanced' learners. Therefore, the integrated regulation is not mentioned widely in most educational or L2 studies as those studies tend to focus on novice learners or children (Ibid).

Intrinsic motivation is classified into three subtypes of orientations, which include an individual's choice to perform or engage in L2 learning activity: (1) to satisfy a person's 'curiosity' (Dörnyei, & Ushioda, 2011: 23) or; to develop and gain new experiences or knowledge; (2) to achieve a goal or gain accomplishment, or (3) to experience a sense of challenge and excitement in performing a task.

In educational contexts (e.g. chemistry, maths, medical studies, physical education), there have been a number of studies which applied the SDT components and its concept of psychological needs-satisfaction, and have proved its usefulness and validity across different learning contexts (See e.g. Stroet et al., 2013; Guay et al., 2008; Reeve, 2002 for a review of literature). From SDT perspectives, the concept of supporting learners' basic psychological needs and motivational development has yielded useful implications for the design of instructional contexts. SDT theorists also believe that the design of the instructional context, which follows these SDT principles, can possibly initiate learners' motivation and facilitate the developmental and transformational process of their motivation, from the extrinsic to the more intrinsic form of motivation.

Reeve (2002) reviewed previous empirical research during two decades (1970s-1990s) to explore the applicability of SDT and proposes SDT as a valuable framework in educational settings. Findings of his study confirm the significant importance of the relationship between students and teacher, and the benefits of autonomy-supportive teaching on students' motivational development and learning success. His sets of recommendations for the teacher to put SDT into practices have also provided a significant contribution to the SDT literature on autonomy-supportive teaching practice (See Reeve, 2002; 2006 for more details). He points out that learners' motivation depends on the teacher's motivating style, which can range from highly controlling to highly autonomy-supportive. However, students benefit most when the teacher's role is a facilitator who can identify their needs and provide a learning environment and activities to nurture their needs. As the learning contexts that provide students with choice, challenge, social interaction and involvement could make students' extrinsic motivation more internalised (Deci et al., 1996), Reeve encourages the teacher to support students' sense of self-determination by using non-controlling language; acknowledging and accepting students' negative expressions and complaints; explaining value and rationale,

especially for uninteresting learning activities, and providing supports, opportunities and time for students' enquiries and independent work (Ibid).

Teacher-asked questions about an autonomy-supportive motivating style			
Pre-lesson reflection	Motivating students	Solving problems	Post-lesson reflection
Q1: What is the goal of autonomy-supportive teaching? Q2: How is autonomy-supportive teaching unique? Q3: Does autonomy support mean permissiveness?	Q4: How would I encourage students' initial engagement in learning activities? Q5: How could I help students maintain their engagement?	Q6: What would I say? How might I talk? Q7: How would I solve motivational and behavioral problems?	Q8: How do I know if I provided instruction in an autonomy-supportive way?
↓	↓	↓	↓
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Take the students' perspective • Display patience to allow time for learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nurture inner motivational resources • Provide explanatory rationales 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rely on noncontrolling language • Acknowledge and accept negative effect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Take the students' perspective • Welcome students' thoughts, feelings, goals, and behaviors • Support students' motivational development
Recommended autonomy-supportive instructional strategies			

Figure 2.3-2: Framework of autonomy-supportive instructional strategies (Reeve & Halusic, 2009: 147)

As can be seen from Figure 2.3-2 above, Reeve & Halusic (2009) propose an autonomy-supportive instructional framework for a teacher to support learners' motivational development process (Ibid: 174). The framework consists of four stages for monitoring and evaluating the motivational teaching practice in the class. Some suggested motivational strategies were, for example, prioritising learners' perspectives, being patient acknowledging and accepting learners' negative expressions or complaints, and providing rationales for uninteresting activities. Although teachers cannot use the motivational strategies to create autonomous or immediate intrinsic motivation in their students, they can facilitate and support students' developmental process by designing learning activities or choosing techniques that match students' interests or provide challenges and enjoyment.

In line with Reeve's investigation, Stroet et al. (2013) explore the effects of need-supportive teaching that is applicable to SDT in educational studies (during 1990-

2011) on early adolescents' motivation and engagement in school. Their study looks at the empirical research, such as experimental, interview and longitudinal studies, that focuses on need-supportive teaching and students' motivational development and engagement. Findings of their study confirm the importance of the three dimensions (autonomy, competence and relatedness) of need supportive teaching, as well as autonomy-supportive teaching practice and, students' perceptions of their learning environment and teachers' behaviour on the motivational development.

However, it is worth noting that the sense of autonomy, in the view of SDT theorists, is different from autonomous or independent learning in the area of language learning, where it means 'learners' freedom to have control over or take responsibility for their own learning' (Benson, 2006: 29). As noted earlier in this section, the notion of autonomy as one important element of the three basic psychological needs within SDT involves a personal sense of volition or personal endorsement of one's own actions, i.e. to perform or engage in an activity because one personally wants to although one might not actually enjoy the activity itself. In addition, SDT theorists e.g. Kusrkar et al. (2011) and Reeve & Halusic (2009), have now argued that intrinsic motivation, when one decides to initiate or engage in a learning activity from one's own interest, pleasure and enjoyment, can also be considered as a product of autonomy-supportive teaching practices.

Guay et al. (2008) review SDT studies in educational contexts that focus on relationships between types of learners' motivation, behaviour and outcomes. Findings of their study provide support for Vallerand et al.'s (1989) Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) and Ryan & Connell's (1989) Self-Regulation Questionnaire Academic (SRQ-A) as valid frameworks to assess SDT constructs in educational contexts (Ibid). The researchers emphasise SDT constructs of different types of motivation as useful for understanding students' performances in school, significant influences of persons in learners' social contexts, e.g. parents and teachers, on the learners' motivational development, and advantages of self-motivation for learning development (Ibid). In addition, their study calls for a need for more quantitative investigation on, for example, the interrelationship, between autonomous and control motivation, autonomous motivation as immunity against teachers' controlling practices, motivation and achievement or influences of friends

on students' motivation, and more intervention studies on applications of teachers' supportive teaching practices.

In L2 learning, studies by Noels and her colleagues (Noels, 2001; Noels et al., 1999; 2000) have extended the principles of SDT to the study of language learning motivation. The researchers underline learners' positive perceptions of L2 learning as crucial for learners to make efforts and gain achievements in L2 learning. Noels et al. (2000) also proposed the Language Learning Orientation Scale as a valid theoretical framework to determine L2 learning orientations from the SDT perspectives. The scale is adapted from Kruidenier & Clément's (1986) four orientations of travel, friendship, knowledge and instrumental orientations; Vallerand et al.'s (1989) Academic Motivation Scale; Harter's (1982) Perception of Competence and Ryan & Connell's (1989) Freedom of Choice (Ibid). As commented by Pae (2008) and Carreira (2005), Noels and her colleagues' application of SDT has developed from general constructs, which enable the framework to capture other EFL contexts, such as in Korea or Japan, where L2 learners have limited daily contact with the target language and its community. The benefits of using the SDT framework are also confirmed by Dörnyei (2001a), who points out that the SDT constructs and SDT continuum enables the researcher to conduct a valid assessment of L2 learners' motivation and their motivational development. Noels et al.'s (2000) Language Learning Orientation Scale shows the utility values of using SDT and its constructs to understand motivation of L2 learners, their learning behaviours and influences of environmental factors on their motivation. It includes many types of factors governing individual behaviours and their L2 learning motivation, ranging from amotivation, or a lack of motivation, to extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, motivational orientations caused by external and internal factors.

In line with a number of SDT studies in other educational contexts, growing numbers of SDT applications in L2 motivation studies (e.g. Noels, 2009; Noels et al., 1999) have further suggested that people in the learner's social context, such as teacher or family members, are important to promote L2 learners' self-determination in L2 learning. Noels et al. (2000; 1999) conducted the study with undergraduate students who studied French as a second language to examine how students' perceptions of their teachers' communicative styles influenced their self-determination. Teachers who gave informative feedback were seen as autonomy-

supportive. This in turn positively predicted students' feelings of autonomy and competence in L2 learning and led to a more self-determined form of students' motivation. However, teachers who failed to provide supports were seen as controlling and demotivating students.

In EFL settings where English is mostly learned in academic or formal classroom contexts, the role of the teacher is more important than in other educational contexts. The SDT concept of psychological need satisfaction is also useful for the teachers to identify suitable classroom motivational teaching practices which support students' motivational development. As emphasised by Niemiec & Ryan (2009: 133), a teacher's support of students' basic psychological needs 'facilitates students' autonomous self-regulation for learning, academic performance and well-being'. With more satisfying learning experiences and greater academic achievement, students tend to be more motivated to engage even in less interesting tasks and academic activities (Ibid). As can be seen from the study of Filak & Sheldon (2003) in America, the researchers examined the psychological needs satisfaction of American college students. The three basic needs were found to be important predictors for positive evaluations of the course and teacher. Competence was the strongest predictor, followed by autonomy, to predict a positive evaluation of the course and teacher, while relatedness was reported to relate only to students' positive evaluation of the teacher (Ibid).

Increasing numbers of SDT studies and their applications in EFL contexts have also confirmed the validity and applicability of SDT concepts and motivational teaching practices derived from SDT. Jang et al. (2009) conducted a series of studies to test the generalisability of SDT basic needs theory with South Korean high school students, and the basic psychological needs satisfaction was found to be associated with students' positive school functioning. The researchers also found that 'competence and achievement related activities' which were more significant among Korean students than other 'social or relationship embedded activities' (Ibid: 658) were influenced by Confucianism and Korean culture that highly values educational success and achievement. Similarly, Otoshi & Heffernan (2011) examined the three SDT basic psychological needs and motivation for learning English of the English-major and non-English-major Japanese college students. Findings of their study reveal that competence was the only significant determinant of intrinsic motivation for both groups of students, while relatedness

was significant only for the English-major students, and autonomy did not have any influence.

Following the SDT principles suggested by Noels et al. (2000; 1999), Rahnama et al. (2013) conducted a survey with Iranian university students and confirmed the effects of the teachers' classroom behaviours on students' self-determination and learning outcomes. The researchers suggest that teachers who are responsive to students' needs and treat them equally, promoting the internalisation of students' positive attitudes, values and goals, make the learning more intrinsically motivating than teachers who are authoritarian and punish students. Their study also supports Pae (2008), who stresses that an essential role of EFL teachers is to promote learners' intrinsic motivation by providing more choices, informative feedback and a friendly learning environment. Besides, the study sheds light on Wen & Clément (2003) and Littlewood (2000; 1999) who suggest that supporting the sense of relatedness among Asian learners would probably yield positive outcomes for students' language learning. However, the researchers suggest that the Asian traditions, which give higher status to the teacher in the class, can possibly minimise negative impacts of the teacher's controlling teaching practices on the students' motivation than in Western contexts (Ibid).

With the aims to provide practical guidance for the tertiary teachers in EFL contexts, Fukuda et al. (2011) conducted an intervention study with first year Japanese students during a semester of the required English course. The researchers proposed the use of a Guided Autonomous Syllabus (GAS) design and 'Can-Do-Booster' journal (Ibid: 75) to train students' autonomy skills and develop their motivation. The researchers emphasised the importance of 'student-teacher relatedness' (Ibid: 71) for enhancing students' intrinsic motivation in the Japanese context and confirmed the benefits of using GAS. It is not only considered as maximising the autonomy-supportive learning atmosphere and communication between students and teacher, but also minimising impacts of institutional constraints such as insufficient learning opportunities, classroom facilities or large class size in traditional EFL classroom contexts such as Japan.

Hiromori (2006) investigates possibilities to motivate first year Japanese university students in the English writing class, during a 12 week period, through 'creative writing activities with a student self-monitoring technique', which are believed to

support the students' three basic psychological needs. Effects of the intervention were examined through the pre- and post-intervention questionnaires to examine changes in the students' language learning motivation, and the three psychological needs served as indicators for students' motivational development. There are five stages in implementing this technique through a cycle of in-class activities and assignments considered as 'a process of writing to an authentic audience' (Ibid: 6). In-class activities consist of (1) Writing task; (2) Teacher feedback; (3) Peer review, while assignments are activities that support the main activities such as resubmission. Interactive activities during the process of writing also serve as a means of communication between the teacher and students. The writing process not only increases the teacher's understanding of students' problems and needs, but also the students can ask only for the feedback they want to receive (Ibid). Findings show that the role of the three psychological needs varied depending on the level of students' motivation. While less motivated students required supports on their sense of competence and relatedness, highly motivated students needed only satisfaction for their sense of competence. Besides, for the already motivated students, collaborative work is not necessary and 'can function negatively' on their motivational development (Ibid: 11).

The applications of SDT have also proved to be valid and valuable in the Spanish class for undergraduate university students in America where the Spanish is learned as a foreign language. Jones et al. (2009) proposed six examples of classroom activities based on the SDT concept of three basic needs satisfaction. According to them (Ibid: 174), learners are

'not born with activities that they like or dislike, but rather that their environment can be intentionally constructed in a manner that can increase or decrease their chances of enjoying an activity.'

Therefore,

'teachers' social interactions with students and the activities that they provide to them can either support or diminish students' intrinsic motivation. (Ibid: 174)'

In their study, the effectiveness of activities was tested through the post-activity questionnaires and class observations. Their findings confirmed that the SDT was a valid framework for designing activities that would make the class enjoyable and interesting.

Given the above evidence, SDT seems to be an appropriate theoretical framework for this study. First, it considers different types of motivation as a process of internalisation from extrinsic motivation to the more self-determined forms of motivation. As improving students' motivation to learn English is one aim of this study, SDT will be used as a main framework for capturing and understanding the students' motivation and changes in their motivation in the design and implementation of the 14 week period of the intervention programme. It will also inform the design of the questionnaire, focus groups and teaching intervention. Second, as the SDT concept of needs supportive teaching practices is central to this study, another aim is to help teachers effectively apply the SDT concept of needs into practice. This study provides some examples of classroom teaching practices that can be used in different EFL contexts. It is also hoped that this study could inspire EFL teachers to see the essence of students' needs supportive teaching and that providing supportive learning environment is essential to students' motivational development.

As confirmed by findings of previous studies in EFL contexts, the SDT concept of psychological need satisfaction is applicable, and useful to explain students' history of learning English, and learning situations in the Thai EFL classroom contexts. With the hypothesis that students' demotivational state could be improved if their basic needs are met, using the SDT framework in this study will not only help me examine English learning motivation of the Thai tertiary students and monitor my own teaching practices, but also identify suitable teaching strategies and learning activities that match with students' needs and interests to support their motivational development.

Although the role of the teacher to support students' basic needs and their sense of self-determination is important in SDT, previous studies have reported a mismatch or conflict between a teacher's and students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the teacher's teaching styles and strategies used in the classroom. As this issue is related to the concept of demotivation and the use of classroom motivational teaching strategies, the two concepts are further explored in Section 2.4 and 2.6 below.

2.4 Demotivation in EFL contexts

Over decades, there has been an increasing interest in learners' demotivation, which shows that it is common for L2 learners to lose their interest and motivation during the L2 learning process (e.g. Falout et al., 2009; Kikuchi & Sakai, 2009; Falout & Falout, 2005). According to Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011: 138), the demotivated learner is 'someone who was once motivated, but has lost his/ her commitment/ interest for some reasons'. In this sense, the pressure to meet the course requirements to further their study in the higher level of English courses could decrease the motivation to learn English of the participants in this study who are in the Remedial English course, the lowest level of university English courses. However, from SDT perspectives, the temporary state of demotivation can possibly be improved by the need-supportive teaching practices. Based on this, understanding of students' demotivation and factors causing demotivation is one aspect of this study which needs to be taken into consideration when designing and implementing the teaching intervention.

Compared with the SDT concept of amotivation, or a lack of motivation, Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011: 139) define demotivation as a temporal state, where an initial intention, interest or commitment to continue to perform an ongoing activity is reduced, diminished or terminated by specific negative forces or discouraging situations e.g. public humiliation, poor test results or conflicts with peers. However, the two concepts are similar phenomena commonly found in the classroom contexts. In their survey with Japanese EFL teachers, Sakui & Cowie (2012) have combined the two concepts and proposed the term, unmotivation, which they believe is more effective to capture the state of learners' lack and loss of motivation, which would also enable the researchers to explain and communicate with their teacher participants easily (Ibid: 205).

In the past decades, demotivation has been explored mostly in the area of instructional communication (Kikuchi & Sakai, 2009), for example (as cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), Gorham & Christophel's (1992) study on demotivators in lectures at North American universities, and Zhang's (2007) study which focuses on university lectures in four different countries - China, Germany, Japan, and USA. In L2 learning, the state of demotivation is considered as another side of motivation which negatively affects the L2 learning process and outcome (Dörnyei & Ushioda,

2011). According to Falout et al. (2009), when L2 learners are demotivated, L2 learning becomes more difficult, less pleasant and that makes L2 learning achievement more difficult. More importantly, the state of demotivation can lead to amotivation, the complete lack of motivation, and that calls for a need for both L2 researchers and educators to find solutions for this issue (Ibid).

Several attempts, particularly in the Japanese EFL context, have been made to categorise demotivating factors. L2 researchers e.g. Falout et al. (2009); Kikuchi (2009); Sakai & Kikuchi (2009) and Trang & Baldauf (2007), examined and reviewed demotivating factors in previous L2 studies worldwide and in their own Japanese and Vietnamese educational contexts. Their findings were consistent with previous studies (e.g. Ushioda, 1998; Dörnyei, 1998; 2001) that teachers-related factors, such as their behaviours and teaching styles, were mostly found as having a strong impact on students' demotivation, described by Sakai and Kikuchi (2009: 59) as 'accounting for 40%' of the total findings of previous studies. In their study, the teacher and other teacher-related factors is also ranked as the first among other five demotivation factors, followed by characteristics of classes, experiences of failure, class environment, class materials and lack of interest (Ibid: 61):

- (1) Teachers: Teachers' attitude, teaching competence, language proficiency, personality and teaching style.
- (2) Characteristics of classes: Course contents and pace, focus on difficult grammar or vocabulary, monotonous and boring lessons, a focus on university entrance exams and the memorisation of the language.
- (3) Experiences of failure: Disappointment due to test scores, lack of acceptance by teachers and others, and feeling unable to memorise vocabulary and idioms.
- (4) Class environment: Attitude of classmates, compulsory nature of English study, friends' attitudes, inactive classes, inappropriate level of the lessons and inadequate use of school facilities such as not using audio-visual materials.
- (5) Class materials: Not suitable or uninteresting materials (e.g. too many reference books and/or handouts)
- (6) Lack of interest: Sense that English used at school is not practical and not necessary, little admiration toward English-speaking people.

Johnson & Johnson (2010) also point out the learners' negative perceptions of the national education system, their perception of the importance of foreign language learning, and some Japanese cultural specific characteristics such as modesty norms and fears of making mistakes in public, as other possible major causes for

demotivation (Ibid). In addition, Sakai & Kikuchi (2009) comment that learners' demotivation can be caused by external or internal factors, for example, teachers, classroom or learning environment, failure or lack of interest. While some factors have temporary effects, some could have permanent effects on learners' motivation (Ibid).

Previous studies on demotivation probably show failure of ELT practices and some problematic issues resulting from institutional constraints as major causes of learners' demotivation in EFL contexts. As can be confirmed by Kaivananpanah & Ghasemi's (2011) study in the Iranian EFL context, most studies are based in Japan, but their findings are not Japanese specific and could probably be found in most Asian EFL classroom contexts where L2 learners do not see practical values for learning the English language. The researchers mention the grammar-based content, lack of interesting teaching and learning materials and classroom facilities as main sources of demotivation for Iranian university students (Ibid). According to Johnson & Johnson (2010), factors such as the dominance of the grammar translation approach and university entrance exam preparation, which requires memorisation of textbooks, are the 'trauma' of English language learning among Japanese EFL learners (Ibid: 46). These factors not only decrease students' self-esteem, but also increase their negative self-appraisal and that they probably retain throughout their student lives (Falout et al., 2009).

In Asian EFL contexts, the status of English as a 'basic educational skill' probably makes 'English skills become more common' (Graddol, 2006: as cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011: 155). Moreover, there are other powerful Asian languages in the region such as Chinese, Japanese and Korean which learners can learn at school and university as alternatives to English. For instance, in Thailand (Fujiwara, 2012: 172),

'Chinese has been always the most popular language and generally attracts nearly half of the total student population. Japanese is usually selected by about one-fourth of the students. Another quarter selects one of the two European languages: French or German.'

According to Masuntisuk (2009: 1), the status of Chinese has also become 'as important as English', which had the 'largest number of test-takers' in Thailand in 2009 followed by Japanese. Given the Thai examples, the changing status of

English as a common global language will probably reduce the motivation of Asian EFL learners for studying English.

Different attitudes towards learning between teacher and students are considered as one of the demotivation factors. Chambers (1993; as cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) found that students and teachers view causes of demotivation differently. While students blamed teachers' behaviours and the classroom facilities as reasons for causing demotivation, for teachers, causes of demotivation are not from themselves but others, such as psychological, attitudinal, social, geographical or historical reasons. His findings are consistent with those of e.g. Sakui & Cowie (2012) and Falout et al. (2009) whose findings revealed that the teacher tended to blame external or contextual factors, such as institutional systems or student attitudes and personalities, as limiting their ability to improve students' motivation.

The previous studies (e.g. Sakui & Cowie, 2012; Kaivananpanah & Ghasemi, 2011; Kikuchi, 2009; Millrood, 2001) not only help the teachers to understand the common nature of learners' demotivation in the classroom, but they also present arguments why teachers need to have a realistic expectation for the students in their class and introduce suitable motivational teaching strategies for the class to remotivate their students. For instance, Kikuchi (2009) suggested that the teacher should apply other interactive communicative classroom activities into the classroom to encourage the two way communication between the teacher and students rather than focusing entirely on a grammar translation approach or memorisation for the exam. According to Gardner (2001), when L2 learners enter the language class, they not only have responsibilities to pass the course requirement, but also to learn and practise language skills, and these burdens may possibly decrease the learning motivation they had in the first stage of learning. This is especially true for the low-achieving learner, who is described by Falout et al. (2009: 411) as a 'help seeker' who lacks a capacity to manage his/her own study and is likely to rely on others such as his/ her teacher or peers.

Demotivation could happen with both low and high proficiency learners (Falout et al., 2009). However, low proficiency learners were reported to experience long-term demotivation (Ibid). Compared with higher proficiency learners who could regulate their language learning, Falout and Maruyama (2004) found that lower proficiency learners show less capacity to overcome learning problems on their own and are

faced with problems of not having enough motivation to learn to improve their English skills. Unsuccessful learning experiences could make it worse for the low proficiency students, for example, when they never pass or receive a good grade in the language courses and so build up a resistance to the language class (Trang & Baldauf, 2007). For these learners, extrinsic motives are simply not enough to sustain their learning motivation. Consequently, their learning motivation could fall with the more failure they experience.

Sakui & Cowie (2012: 206) suggest that 'teaching unmotivated learners can either be a rewarding or frustrating experience for teachers depending on the differing outcomes of motivational strategies used'. In this study, I am going to trial an approach to teaching that will make teaching unmotivated learners rewarding, for them and for the teacher. Classroom motivational teaching strategies which can be applied on the SDT concept of need satisfaction will be brought into the Thai classroom context to create a supportive learning environment which is rarely found in the Thai classroom. Further details of motivational teaching strategies will be addressed in Section 2.6.

2.5 *Thais and East Asian learners' EFL motivation*

Evidence suggests that reasons for learning an L2 vary between language learning contexts. Warden & Lin (2000) describe an EFL context as a context where people use their native language as a main medium of everyday communication. English is mostly learned as a 'required' foreign language subject (Ibid: 539) and learners do not have much opportunity to use the language outside the classroom. However, according to Chen et al. (2005), in Asian EFL contexts, L2 learners' motivation is not only influenced by the instrumental values of English but possibly by 'English requirements that are internalised within the culturally specific context' (Ibid: 623). For instance, in the Chinese cultural setting, a strong influence of 'Confucian meritocracy' probably underlies the need for success and high scores on the exam among Chinese learners (Ibid: 613). Social recognition of individuals' capabilities and success in the exam are not only considered learners' own success, but also the pride of their family and clan. As this study is based on the Thai context, unique social and cultural backgrounds which influence English language teaching and learning practices as well as the motivation of Thais to learn English are addressed as follows.

Given that L2 learners have 'a complex identity, changing across time and space and reproduced in frequently inequitable relations of power' (Norton, 2011: 6), they need to be understood within their own socio-cultural context. Although Thailand is considered as an EFL context as other East Asian neighbours, it might not be appropriate to generalise and apply socio-cultural characteristics of other Asians to the Thais without considering Thailand's own structures. While empirical research studies in this area are limited, and mostly in the form of unpublished hard copies in the library, Komin's (1991) '*Psychology of the Thai people: Values and behavioural patterns*', conducted during 1978 - 1981, is considered as the first empirical study on Thai cultural values and is still used as a baseline among Thai and foreign scholars (e.g. Young, 2013; Punyapiroje & Morrison, 2007; Shawyun & Tanchaisak, 2005). Her study is derived from national samples (e.g. from Thai students, newspapers and literature) based on her framework of the 'Thai Value Systems' (Komin, 1991:1-22) which identifies that the Thai society is 'hierarchically structured and focuses on individualism and interpersonal relationships' (Shawyun & Tanchaisak, 2005: 3). It also depicts nine value orientations based on their influence on the characteristics of Thai people, which are (Ibid: 3; See also Punyapiroje & Morrison, 2007: 320-322);

1. Ego (/family) Orientation e.g. face saving, criticism avoidance, consideration
2. Grateful Relationship Orientation e.g. reciprocal and interpersonal
3. Smooth Interpersonal Relationship Orientation e.g. suppression of emotion, expression, patronage system
4. Flexibility and Adjustment Orientation e.g. flexibility over principle and ideology, situation-oriented rather than principle-or law-oriented
5. Religio-psychical Orientation e.g. *Karma* concept of Thai Theravada Buddhism, superstition
6. Education and Competence Orientation e.g. as a means of gaining social status and prestige, form over content, material possession value
7. Interdependence Orientation e.g. cooperative/ collaborative behaviours
8. Fun/ Pleasure Orientation e.g. enjoying life's pleasures, lack of serious commitment for hard and often unpleasant work
9. Achievement/ Task Orientation e.g. ambition contains negative meaning in the Thai context

However, in Shawyun & Tanchaisak's (2005) survey with undergraduate and graduate Thai students at a private university in Bangkok, it is shown that cultural

values of the Thai society have changed significantly over the past two decades, as can be seen in Figure 2.5-1 below.

Orientation	Komin's 1991 ranked order	Values 2005 ranked order	Mean	Std. Deviation
Interdependence Orientation	Rank 7	Rank 1	5.44	1.120
Fun-pleasure orientation	Rank 8	Rank 2	5.41	1.216
Grateful relationship orientation	Rank 2	Rank 3	5.40	1.031
Smooth interpersonal relationship orientation	Rank 3	Rank 4	5.34	1.198
Achievement-task orientation	Rank 9	Rank 5	5.32	1.250
Flexibility and adjustment orientation	Rank 4	Rank 6	5.24	1.130
Education and competence orientation	Rank 6	Rank 7	5.17	1.224
Ego orientation	Rank 1	Rank 8	5.04	1.136
Religio-psychical orientation	Rank 5	Rank 9	4.90	1.310

Figure 2.5-1 Thai cultural values ranking (Shawyun & Tanchaisak, 2005: 5)

In their study, the new generations of Thais seem to consider social harmony through cooperative and collaborative aspects as the most important value. This, however, provides support to Komin (1991) that the Thai society is a 'society of relationship' and that underlies her concept of 'social-smoothing values' or the Thai cultural norms to maintain the harmony of social interaction, for instance, 'caring and considerate; kind and helpful; responsive to situations and opportunities; self-controlled or tolerant-restrained; polite and humble' (Ibid: 4-8). Besides, as most Thais are brought up to value *bun-khun*, or 'feelings of gratefulness, reciprocity of goodness done and the ever-readiness to reciprocate' (Ibid: 4), it is interesting that the new generations are still bound with the traditional cores of Thai culture which highly values 'specific acts of gratitude, reciprocal relationship and smooth social interactions' (Ibid: 4). Nonetheless, Shawyun & Tanchaisak (2005) note that the students may recognise these values as important in Thai society, but they might not actually have strong beliefs or practise these values. In addition, the researchers found that the old traditional values of Buddhism and superstitious beliefs which had strong influences on the older generations in the past are not considered of much importance to the newer generations (Ibid).

Recent changes in Thai culture can be understood through Young's (2013) recent study on the Thai tertiary context which looks at reasons behind academic dishonesty of students at a Rajabhat university (a provincial teacher training college). As noted by the researcher, Rajabhat university was originally established throughout the country to serve the growing demands of teachers. However, due to the low cost of academic tuition and ease of admission, most Rajabhat students

are those who 'cannot afford to attend or compete in higher ranking universities rather than students who want to become a teacher' (Ibid: 9) which makes the prestige of Rajabhat graduates not as high as university graduates. Findings of Young's (2013) study shed light somewhat on the Thai EFL classroom context as the author himself is an English teacher and his participants are students enrolled in the university ESP courses. His study shows the strong influence of the Thai hierarchical structure and two core concepts of Thai cultural characteristics; *Sanuk* (fun/ pleasure); *Mai pen rai* (never mind, it doesn't matter, forget it) on students' thoughts and opinions. His findings support Shawyun & Tanchaisak's (2005) survey which shows a strong influence of Thai cultural values on the students' needs for a 'joy of learning' (Ibid: 12) and that 'learning should be fun' (Ibid: 11). Both studies also confirm that students in a modern Thai society, who are career-oriented, tend to see education as a means of preparing for their future and consider good grades to be the 'most important aspect of education' (Ibid: 12).

According to Young (2013), core values of the Thai culture also capture the Thai EFL situations where most university students are still unable to master the basics of English. Being dominated by the Thai traditional values, most participants of his study report their concerns of failing the course. However, they tend to blame themselves as being incapable rather than blaming their teacher, who is the giver of knowledge. He points out the Thai hierarchical structure and a sense of 'passive resignation to fate' or *karma* as

'impairing their ability to counteract problems and seek for solutions and that possibly contribute to the concept of learned helplessness or a condition which a person feels unable to change their circumstances' (Ibid: 5).

Young also underlines the Thai concept of *Mai pen rai*, as one form of the resignation to fate, as one might 'surrender to forces beyond their control' and accept the idea that L2 learning is full of difficulties and that 'no amount of effort can overcome' (Ibid: 6).

For many L2 theorists in the Thai contexts, '*karma*' is an influential concept to explain L2 learning situations in Thailand. In general, the fundamental beliefs and social relationships of Thais, as stated by e.g. Baker, 2008; Foley, 2005; Adamson, 2003, are associated with their concerns for *karma*, a core concept in Thai Theravada Buddhism. The concept of *karma* is considered to be the cause of all

events occurring in human life. The merits one held in the past or previous lives are believed to be rewarded in the present or credited into the future. In order to gain success in any aspect of life, Thai people believe that competence and effort alone are not enough, they also need luck, which is believed to be caused by the good *karma* they might have done in the past. According to Komin (1999: 9), most Thais generally believe in 'unequal' *karma*, which is used to explain 'unequal results of predestined goodness' such as success, fortune or good family life. The concept of *karma* is associated with

'psychological acceptance of one's failure and other's achievement, attributing the cause of one's failure and the cause of other's achievement to something beyond one's ability' (Ibid: 9).

Her idea is in line with Young's (2013) idea on a sense of 'resignation to fate' that *karma* could have negative effects. When facing obstacles or failures, some Thais might lose their motivation to pursue their action or give up their action because of the belief that the good '*karma*' achieved in their past lives is not enough to contribute to success in the current life.

In L2 learning, the concept of *karma* could have both positive and negative effects on Thai EFL learners. On one hand, the belief in past *karma* could possibly develop a state of demotivation and amotivation among Thais when facing obstacles or failures. On the other hand, it could lead to a high degree of willingness to invest more effort or work harder towards the academic achievement (Foley, 2005). For most Thai Buddhists, their belief in *karma* creates a hope that merits from the past will be rewarded. Even when facing with problems or failures, a person might be motivated by their strong belief in their past (good) *karma*, e.g. of being a good, disciplined and well behaved child or student, to try to overcome problems and failures and gain success in their learning. The belief in practising good *karma* is linked to *bun-khun*, the grounding concept in a Thai society (Knutson et al., 2003). As mentioned earlier, '*bun-khun*' is an obligation to do something in return for benefits received from others. Returning *bun-khun* is therefore considered as one way of practising good *karma*.

In the Thai context, *bun-khun* received from parents, family and teachers are what Thais need to keep in mind. The concepts of returning *bun-khun* and practising good *karma* can be one's motives for learning English. From SDT perspectives, the two concepts can be considered as *introjected regulation*, the state where a person

engages in a learning activity because of the desire to please the teacher or parents, or gain compliments from others as well as receipt of social recognition by being a good child and a good student. Moreover, the concepts can help facilitate the process of internalising motives as one may gradually transform these external controlled reasons for learning to the more intrinsic reasons, such as the satisfaction he/ she receives from attempting to gain success in his/ her own learning.

From the discussion so far we can see that the Thai EFL learners' motivation can be shaped by the fluid nature of Thai cultural values and that provides support for L2 motivation theorists such as Norton (2011); Ushioda (2011a; 2011b); Norton & Gao (2008) who maintain that L2 learners need to be understood as people within their own socio-cultural contexts. As mentioned by Ushioda (2011: 80),

'we should not underestimate the importance of certain forms of extrinsic motivation which are highly valued in most educational contexts such as passing significant exam, obtaining a certification, getting into a good school or achieving one's personal aspirations.'

Combined with the forces in a modern Thai society that give high esteem to academic achievement (e.g. Young, 2013; Draper, 2012; Vanichkorn, 2009; Knutson, 2005), the desire to receive compliments from parents and teachers, as well as to achieve high respect from a society, can minimise the negative effects of *karma* and motivate most Thais to behave well and study hard in order to gain achievement in their education. As reported by Young (2013), the modern Thai society puts more emphasis on academic achievement and this might influence the future-oriented Thai L2 learners (who once were demotivated) to start approaching L2 learning again. Besides, as we have seen, SDT emphasises the three basic human needs as important factors in individuals' well-being. Therefore, it is the teacher's responsibility to provide teaching and learning conditions that fulfill students' basic needs, which probably bring back the students' motivation, making their extrinsic motivation more internalised with the more self determined form of motivation for learning L2.

As shown throughout this section, it is possible to say that influences of the Thai Theravada Buddhism and Thai cultural values on Thai EFL learners seem to be similar to Chen et al.'s (2005: 609) concept of 'Chinese Imperative' which similarly motivates Chinese learners to work hard to gain success in exams. However, as

commented by Komin (1999: 9-10), it is necessary to note that while the Thais seem to be 'overwhelmed by their perceived influence of Buddhism in their life, most of them have little deep knowledge about it'. Moreover, the fact that most Thais do not know much about Buddhism would not be surprised Thai people (Ibid). In the following sections, the motivation for learning English of Thais as East Asian EFL learners is discussed.

Previous studies in the Thai tertiary context e.g. Choosri & Intharaksa (2011); Jehdo et al. (2011); Tepsuriwong & Srisunakrua (2009); Vanichkorn (2009); Suwanarak & Phothongsunan (2008); Nuchnoi, (2008); Puengpipattrakul et al. (2007) have found that most Thai students learn English because of their concerns about future careers and education. Thai students' motivation to learn English tends to be governed by external factors. According to Suwanarak & Phothongsunan (2008), 'good grades are tickets to graduate schools and good employment in the Thai context' (p.1). The researchers reported that a high level of proficiency correlates with the motivation to learn English for academic requirements, career and educational advancement (Ibid). However, although most Thais seemed to value English language learning, Prapphal (2003) and Khaopa (2012) found that their English proficiency is still the most problematic issue.

As revealed by Nuchnoi (2008), Ryan (2009) and Degang (2010), the motivation of Asian EFL learners to learn English also tends to be socially governed. In the Japanese context, Ryan (2009) found that his students expressed their positive feelings and attitudes towards English in order to fit in with friends and norms of the society. However, they did not actually see the value or have a real desire to learn English. In the Thai context, Degang (2010) investigated the motivation of business English major students to learn English at an international university in Bangkok. He found that students were highly dominated by a competitive English-speaking environment at the university, as well as what he calls 'integrative' factors such as the desire to be an educated, knowledgeable and skilful person, to gain success and achievement in life and to travel abroad (Ibid: 24).

Nuchnoi (2008) conducted a longitudinal study with English major students at a private university in Bangkok during 2003 – 2005. The purpose of her study was to validate findings of her study in 1997, which found that the first and second year

English major students mainly 'had a short term goal of only passing the foundation English courses' (Ibid: 95). Since they 'chose English as their majors', she wanted to see if their motivation changed when they moved to other higher level core courses (Ibid: 95). Findings of Nuchnoi 's study show that the students were likely to be influenced by the instrumental atmosphere of a private university where students' graduation seems to be guaranteed by the high tuition fees they have paid. It is also interesting that even the researcher, who was the university English instructor herself, mentioned that her findings were not that surprising considering the common nature of students at private universities. Although they are English majors who reported a high interest in learning English, most of them were not committed to learning English. For instance, they preferred to learn with the combination of Thai and English instruction or Thai alone. Moreover, only half of them stated a willingness to take the core English courses if the courses were not compulsory. In addition, their level of achievement in the English courses was not high compared to the high level of interest (Ibid). Considering the context of her study, this confirms what is proposed by Komin (1991) that in the Thai context,

'Education has been perceived more as a means of climbing up the social ladder of being higher prestige and higher salary, rather than an end value in itself. ...Thai people place highest value on these decorative external labels, degrees, decorations..' (Ibid: 11)

Other studies on the Thai contexts suggest that increasing numbers of younger Thais tend to enter a university only to get a degree rather than to gain knowledge or pursue what they are interested in. For example, Pongwat (2011) reported that the faculty of education, and a teacher training college in Thailand, currently tends to be a choice for students who are not the 'best and brightest' (Ibid: 156), but those could not score highly in the entrance exam and only want to get a place at the university. As a university degree is in great demand, some Thai universities are now more commercialised and the students' motivation tends to be more extrinsically governed e.g. to pass the course and get a degree. Choosri & Intharaksa (2010) examined the motivation to learn English of the high and low academically achieving students in the technical college in Southern Thailand. The researchers found that most technical college students only learned English to meet the increasing demands of the labour market and the level of academic achievement or quality of the course did not impact much on their motivation (Ibid).

There is some research evidence that the motivation of Asian EFL learners to learn English is different from other Asian learners who are in daily contact with English. In the Philippines, where L2 learners were considered as bilingual, Lucas et al. (2010) explored the motivation of the first year university students to learn English. The researchers found that students were mainly motivated by the satisfaction from gaining knowledge and accomplishment in their learning. There are various studies in the Thai contexts e.g. Jehdo et al., 2011; Boonchum, 2010; Degang, 2010; Puengpipattrakul et al., 2007, which have found intrinsic motivation to learn English. However, I would argue that their findings were derived from specific learning contexts which might not be generalisable to the majority of Thai EFL learners. For example, Boonchum (2010) and Degang (2010) focus on English majors students. Boonchum (2010) examined changes in the self-identity of university students majoring in English and English literature, while Degang (2010) looked at the learning motivation of business English major students at a private international university in Bangkok, where English is strictly used as a medium of instruction and the students have more opportunities to be exposed to it. The other two studies by Jehdo et al., (2011) and Puengpipattrakul et al. (2007) focused on students in the southern provinces of Thailand, where a majority of people are Muslims who use Malay and Arabic rather than Thai (Srisueb & Wasanasomsithi, 2010). In the southern Thai provinces along the border with Malaysia, English and Thai are taught as a second language in school, and there are more opportunities to use English rather than Thai to communicate with Malaysians who are regular commuters.

A common factor influencing motivation to learn English among East Asian EFL learners is the role of English in the region (See Draper, 2012; Foley, 2005 for more details). In Thailand, the importance of English in the age of globalisation and technology seems to be of significance to Thais who are in the academic, business and tourist industries. As commented by Hayes (2008: 476), 'the practical relevance of English to the lives of most Thais is extremely limited, even in an increasingly globalized world'. This can be confirmed by Draper (2012), who examined experiences and perceptions towards English of North Eastern Thai people, the largest population group in the country but are ranked as having the weakest academic results in English (National Institute of Educational Testing Service, 2011; as cited in Draper, 2012). He found there was significant differences between people in Bangkok, the capital city, and the Northeast region. However,

although the limited experience of English in daily life of most Thais influenced their perceptions of English and of their own ability, among the younger generation, whose age is less than 30, there was no significant difference concerning the geographical distance. Most of the North Eastern younger generation have been educated more than the primary level and experienced English through media and educational context. They placed high value on English and viewed it as the most utilitarian language for career advancement.

Previous studies about English language education in Thailand (e.g. Khaopa, 2012; Draper, 2012; Foley, 2005) have established that the country has problematic issues for English language teaching. For instance, the country's national policies were found as not being practical nor enacted easily in the real classroom context (See Section 1.2.1 and 1.2.2). This, therefore, has had the result that most Thais do not believe in the country's educational system and learn English only to gain access to the job market or high education. In addition, there have been attempts to propose English as a second language with the hope of increasing the awareness of Thais of the value in English learning. However, the recent proposal was rejected by the Ministry of Education in October 2010 (Bunnag, 2010). National stability and the need to maintain the long history of a country that has never been colonised are reasons often used to explain why Thailand should remain with only one official language (Wiryachitra, 2002: 476). As a result, Thai is the only official language used in the country. For most Thais, although the ability to use English is valued, 'its lack' does not have any negative effect on their everyday life (Ibid: 476).

This section provides a brief review of the Thai EFL context and the motivation of Thai tertiary students to learn English. The unique characteristics of Thais discussed earlier somewhat show that there is a need to bring in the classroom motivational strategies to improve the motivation of Thai students and that the application of the self-determination framework in the Thai context is appropriate. In section 2.6, certain classroom motivational teaching strategies will be examined from SDT perspectives to identify the motivational strategies that could improve students' motivation to learn English in the Thai tertiary context.

2.6 Motivational strategies in the classroom context

After the shift to the focus on classroom application in the 1990s, more of the research to date in the area of L2 motivation has tended to focus on motivational teaching techniques (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). According to Guilloteaux (2013: 3) and other L2 theorists e.g. Ushioda (2012); Chen et al. (2005), 'L2 learners' lack of motivation is a major concern for language teachers in many contexts worldwide'. As the teacher's instructional interventions are the focus of this study, previous studies regarding the classroom motivational strategies are discussed below.

According to Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008), there are two types of motivational strategies. One is self-regulating strategies used by individual students to manage the level of their own learning motivation. Another one is instructional interventions, or motivational techniques used by the teacher in the class to create and stimulate students' learning motivation. Previous studies have shown that some motivational teaching strategies were reported by teachers in various EFL contexts as effective strategies. For example, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) conducted a survey with English teachers in Hungary to investigate how important they considered motivational techniques to be, and how frequently they actually used them in the class. Based on their findings, the researchers proposed the *Ten commandments for motivating learners*, consisting of a list of 10 most popular motivational strategies, suggesting teachers to

- (1) set a personal behaviour example;
- (2) create a class atmosphere that is relaxed and pleasant;
- (3) present tasks properly to learners,
- (4) develop good teacher-student relationships;
- (5) increase learners' linguistic self-confidence;
- (6) ensure that language class is interesting;
- (7) promote learners' autonomy;
- (8) personalise the learning process;
- (9) increase learners' goals;
- (10) familiarise learners with the target language culture (Ibid: 215).

According to Guilloteaux (2013: 4), Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) Hungarian study was the 'first investigation of L2 motivational strategies', which made 'motivational strategies more teacher-friendly by yielding an empirically-based list of ten macro-strategies that language teachers could use to motivate their students'. As commented by Cheng & Dörnyei (2007: 155), it had 'a sound theoretical basis and

reflected practising teachers' beliefs and perceptions in genuine classroom-relevant settings'.

Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) findings were also replicated by Cheng & Dörnyei (2007) with Taiwanese EFL teachers. Their findings suggest that some motivational strategies may be 'transferable across contexts', while some motivational strategies might be 'culturally and contextually dependent' (Guilloteaux, 2013: 5). For instance, Taiwanese teachers agreed on four of the five most popular strategies, but their ranking order differed. While Hungarian teachers considered promoting learner autonomy as more important, Taiwanese teachers considered increasing learners' goals, creating interesting and fun lessons and familiarizing learners with L2 related values as more important motivational strategies. Nevertheless, the two studies were not based on actual classroom teaching practices, but a self-report questionnaire asking the teachers how important they viewed each strategy and how often they used the strategy.

Based on the works of Dörnyei and his colleagues, Guilloteaux (2013) conducted a survey with school teachers in South Korea to evaluate the transferability of motivational strategies proposed in the previous studies. Her findings support the previous studies in Hungary and Taiwan that 'appropriate teacher behaviours' were considered as the most important strategy among EFL teachers (Ibid: 10). Findings of her study also show differences in beliefs and practices of some motivational strategies between Korean and Taiwanese EFL teachers, suggesting that applications of motivational strategies may not be transferable even across East Asian EFL contexts. For example, while creating a positive learning atmosphere was ranked fourth on the Taiwanese survey, Korean teachers do not consider its importance and ranked it as ninth on the list. Based on this, the researcher explains that Korean EFL teachers may find it difficult to commit themselves to students' motivational development in the real practice. She points out institutional demands and sociocultural constraints as barriers for the Korean teachers that possibly make the teachers ignore the necessity of motivational classroom conditions (See Guilloteaux, 2013 for more details).

Based on Dörnyei & Otto's (1998) process model of L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), Dörnyei (2001a) proposed four dimensions of classroom motivational teaching strategies as a comprehensive theoretical basis for teachers

(See Dörnyei, 2001b for more details). In his book, *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*, Dörnyei (2001a) provides a list of more than 100 motivational techniques, which was presented within a theoretical framework aimed at helping the teacher, who is considered as a key person to use motivational strategies to generate and sustain learners' motivation. Some of the motivational strategies outlined by Dörnyei (2001a) were effective strategies, as reported by teachers in various EFL contexts, for example, in Hungarian (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) and Taiwanese contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

His framework covers diverse classroom behaviours with the use of motivational strategies, from the beginning stage of creating motivational classroom conditions, to the final stage of sustaining and encouraging motivation. Each dimension of the framework includes specific motivational strategies that can be broken down into many techniques. These dimensions are: (1) 'Creating the basic motivational conditions' through supportive classroom atmosphere and a good rapport between the teacher and students; (2) 'Generating initial motivation' by developing students' interests and positive attitudes for L2 learning; (3) 'Maintaining and protecting motivation' by keeping students motivated and involved through the use of appropriate classroom strategies; (4) 'Encouraging positive self-evaluation' by stimulating students' sense of competence and success through e.g. encouraging feedback or grades and scores given in motivational manners as shown in Figure 2.6-1.

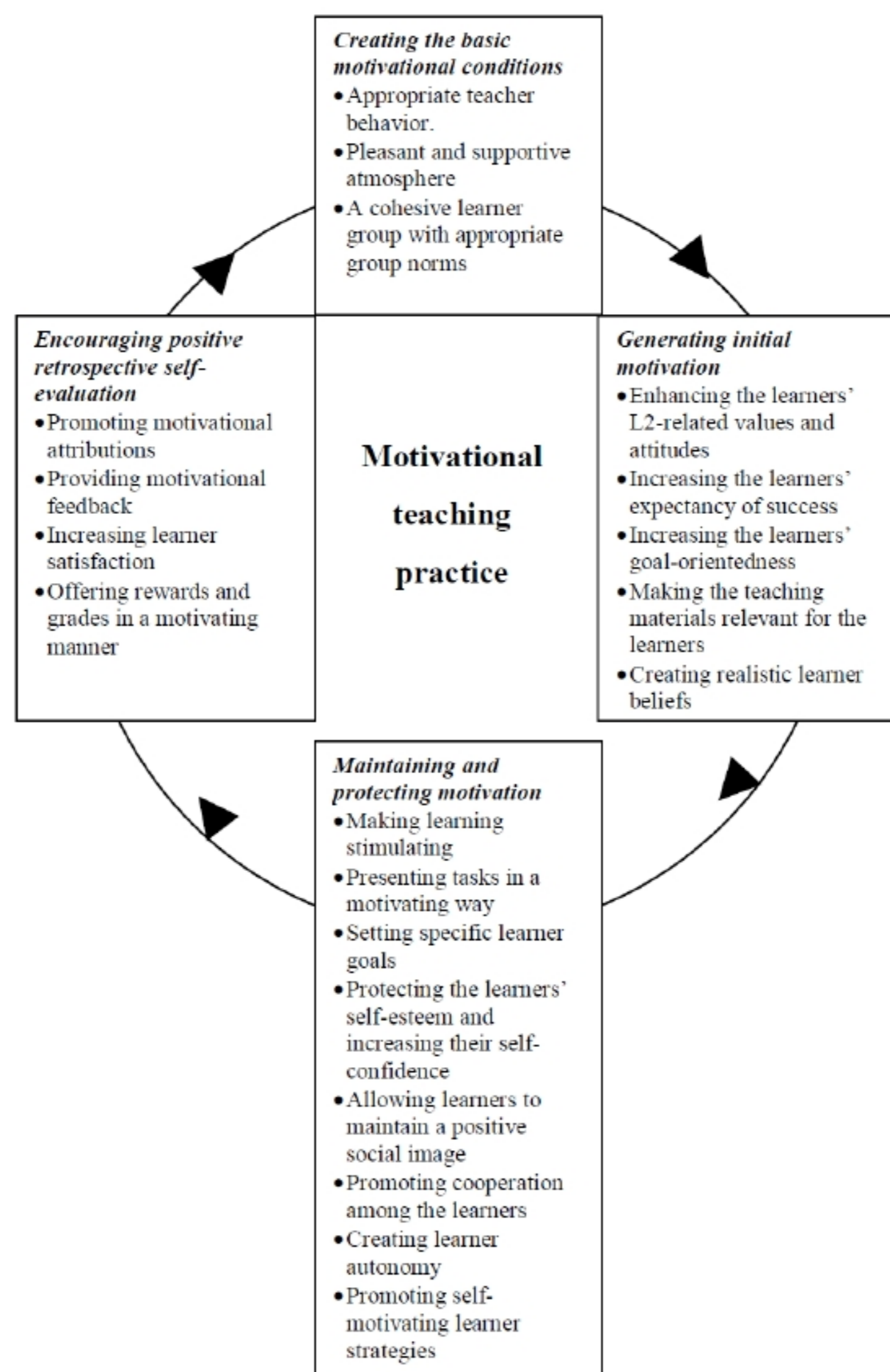


Figure 2.6-1 Components of a motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001b: 29)

As shown in studies by Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) and Bernaus & Gardner (2008), there is a relationship between the use of certain motivational teaching strategies and increased levels of students' intrinsic L2 learning motivation. However, the effectiveness of motivational strategies varied between learners and language learning contexts.

Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) conducted a classroom observation study with the teachers and students in South Korea to examine how motivational teaching practice affected students' motivation. The researchers developed a classroom observational scale to examine the impact of the teacher's motivational strategies in the class and found strong effects of teachers' classroom motivational practices on students' motivation. Their findings show that applications of some classroom motivational strategies, for instance, providing neutral feedback without negative

criticism, or matching the content to students' interest, could motivate students to approach language learning activities and increase their classroom involvement and participation. Although students reported in the questionnaire that they did not have real interests in some activities, they still engaged in the activities because they valued the benefits of activities for their future. Besides, students' motivated behaviour and involvement in class could, at the same time, enhance a teacher's performance and bring more motivating strategies into the classroom.

Bernaus & Gardner (2008) investigated Spanish teachers and students' perceptions on the strategies used in the English class and effects from the strategies. The researchers found that teachers and students did not agree on the frequent use of some strategies. Some innovative strategies which teachers claimed to use in class were not recognised by students. As a result, it is necessary to examine whether using motivational strategies proven to be effective in one context will yield the same positive result in another learning context. In addition, the strategies perceived to be useful and used in the classroom by teachers might not be recognised or seen as beneficial or motivating by students.

Following the study of Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008), Papi & Abdollahzadeh (2012) explored the relationship between the teacher's use of motivational strategies and students' motivated behaviours among Iranian school students by using the classroom observation scale adapted from the previous study. The researchers aimed to identify whether the selected motivational strategies would affect students' engagement including alertness, participation and volunteering during the class activities. Their findings revealed that most Iranian secondary school students learn English only to gain achievement in the test. They did not value classroom participation nor engagement in classroom learning activities. Even though it is not quite clear if the researcher had trained the teacher participants, or provided a guideline how to use the motivational strategies in the class before they conducted the observation, it is still interesting that the teachers' motivational teaching strategies proposed in previous studies were applicable in Iranian EFL contexts.

As previous studies did not address the effect of motivational strategies implemented in the real language classroom, Moskovsky et al. (2013) conducted an experimental study through an eight week period of teaching intervention in Saudi Arabia. Their project involved a large number of teacher and students

participants, divided into experimental and control groups. A guideline and checklist for using and applying each motivational strategy, based on the ten selected motivational teaching strategies, were developed and provided to the teachers. For instance, to show that the teacher accepts and cares about their students, the teacher needs to get to know students by sharing the teacher's personal background and interests, remembering students' preferred names and using the names to interact with them, or greeting them with smile when entering the class. Their study found significant differences between the two groups of participants after the eight week course, which confirmed that the use of some selected motivational strategies could increase the motivational level of Saudi learners.

A notable intervention study in the Thai tertiary context is by Noom-ura (2008), who conducted an intensive 60-hour English course during three weeks of the summer semester with 28 students considered to be neither successful nor motivated in learning English. The researcher aimed at developing students' positive attitudes for learning English and readiness to learn in higher level of English courses at the university. The participants were randomly selected from the group of less-able students whose grades from previous English courses were below grade C. Students were divided into three groups to learn with both Thai and native-English speakers, who took turns to take care of the groups. The findings suggested that it is possible to improve learning satisfaction and motivation of less-able students by using the objectives and design of course that matched with their learning ability, interests and needs, and by developing a good rapport between the teacher and students. Some techniques proposed to be useful were learning English by using games, competitive activities, pair work and group work, remembering students and calling them by their nicknames. However, due to the small numbers of students and availability of both native and non-native English teachers, considered as a 'rare case' in the Thai EFL context (Ibid: 186), the researcher remarked that such an intervention might be too 'ideal' to be implemented in the Thai tertiary context (Ibid: 180).

Another study in the Thai tertiary context, dating back to the past decade, is by Sukchuen (2001), who investigated the effectiveness of using communicative-based instruction with students in the university Remedial English course. The researcher developed two types of a textbook as a guideline for her classroom instruction. The students participating in her study were divided into two

experimental groups, based on grammar and communicative approaches, the textbook they were taught. Although conclusions drawn from her study were that students in the class taught with communicative-based text improved their four skills and attitudes towards learning English, the researcher did not provide much detail about how the two groups of students were taught. She only noted that the communicative-based instruction class was provided with extra grammar exercises to study for the midterm and final examinations, that may imply the importance of supports and preparations for the exam.

Motivational teaching strategies may lead to an increase in students' motivation and improved learning behaviours (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Nonetheless, Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011) suggest that it is impossible to embrace all the proposed motivational techniques at the same time, and that appropriate uses, and applications of the motivational strategies are necessary. Moreover, there are limits to how far the motivational strategies can be taken into the real practice. Some pedagogical issues emerging from the previous research studies also relate particularly to the effectiveness and applicability of motivational techniques in different learning contexts, or the ability of the teacher to apply suggested motivational principles or techniques into the real practice. For instance, as suggested by Chen et al. (2005) and Warden & Lin (2000), in EFL contexts where English is learned as a required subject, learners might view the required condition as having no choice, and thus do not care much about the teacher's teaching styles or techniques. This leads to problematisation of the choice of research instrument for checking whether the motivational strategies brought into the particular classroom context will be effective or not.

The issues that emerged from the Thai tertiary contexts seem to be that the Thai tertiary students have limited motivation for learning English in the class; they feel forced to come to the class and do not make an effort to learn. This resulted in the formulation of three research questions which guided this study. The first question needing an answer is: *what kind of learning motivation exists among the first year university students in a Remedial English course in the Thai context?* (See Research Question 1, p.50). This is to profile the learning motivation among students in the university Remedial English course and to identify effective motivational techniques. This study also focuses on testing the teacher's ability to use motivational classroom strategies, and validating the application of some

classroom motivational practices in the Thai tertiary context. From the literature review, I have shown that the self-determination theory is a potentially valuable framework for adapting the motivational strategies to the Thai context, where certain characteristics of Thai students will need to be taken account of. Students' motivation and basic needs will therefore be examined through the SDT framework, whether the use of certain classroom motivational strategies will satisfy their needs and increase their learning motivation. This leads to the second question of: *what effect does a specially designed teaching intervention have on students' motivation?* (See Research Question 2, p.50). And the third question is: *which elements of the teaching intervention have the greatest effect on students' motivation?* (See Research Question 3, p.50).

Chapter 3 : Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the methodology and procedures of the research. In this chapter, I will begin with introducing the aims of the study and research questions that guided this study. Then, the research design and the three phases of the study are presented with a detailed description of reasons for selecting the mixed methods approach, participants, data collection and data analysis procedure, along with ethical considerations.

3.2 Aims of the study

The aim of this study is to investigate how motivation to learn English of the remedial students in a Thai tertiary context could be improved during teaching in one academic semester. By integrating motivational teaching strategies into the actual teaching practice, it is hoped to identify and validate effective practice for improving the learning motivation of these students, which can be shared with the Thai tertiary teachers and other similar EFL contexts.

3.3 Research questions

The research questions for this study are as follows:

- 1 What kind of learning motivation exists among the first year students in the remedial English course?
- 2 What effect does a specially designed teaching intervention have on students' motivation?
- 3 Which elements of the teaching intervention have the greatest effect on students' motivation?

3.4 Methodological considerations: a mixed methods approach

This study is influenced by my own experiences of teaching English in the Thai tertiary context and my role as a young member of research staff in the field of language learning and teaching. The knowledge I have developed as a

teacher and researcher have guided the theoretical approach for this study. Due to the possibilities it can offer, a mixed method approach was chosen for this study to examine the motivation for learning English of the first year Thai tertiary students and the effects of the teaching intervention on students' motivation. The mixed methods approach has been proposed as an alternative to the traditional single method research in education and social science. According to Bazeley (2012), the applicability of the mixed methods is now being accepted in the area of experimental research,

'as the course of an intervention or experiment is traced and experience of those involved is assessed, understanding of how the intervention might be contributing to the outcomes can be integrated with knowledge of what that outcome is' (817).

A goal of the mixed methods approach is not to replace either the quantitative or qualitative approach, however, it maximises the strengths and minimises the weaknesses of the two approaches that have been criticised due to their limitations (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). As a vivid comparison, Tashakkori & Teddlie (2010: 273) suggest that the use of mixed methods 'closely parallels everyday human problem solving in a way that neither qualitative nor quantitative methods alone can do'. And that is true as

'..once specific questions have been formulated, a researcher should consider the most diverse array of methodological tools available to answer those questions through a process we call methodological eclecticism' (Ibid: 274).

Distinctions between the traditional two approaches have been identified by researchers in the areas of mixed methods research (e.g. Bazeley, 2012; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). According to Bryman (2006), both qualitative and quantitative approaches are good for different purposes. A quantitative approach is based on the use of statistical techniques which are clear and systematic. However, it has been criticised for the emphasis on statistical significance among the data, and tendency to reduce data to simple categories. Based on this, it can fail to capture the dynamic nature of the data in social science research, and to explore specific social phenomena or human behaviours in real life settings, as these cannot be always explained by numerical data and scientific measurement. On the other hand, a qualitative approach gives privilege to subjective interpretation and ethnographic techniques which are believed to provide thick descriptions and rich information about individual participants and social aspects of data. However, despite these strengths, it is

criticised for its subjective and selective reporting of results instead of providing accurate information, and for the fact that the research cannot necessarily be generalised to other situations or people.

A fundamental assumption about a mixed methods approach is that quantitative and qualitative methods can complement each other and that they provide broader and more credible understanding of research problems (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Leech & Onwuegbuzie (2009) generally define mixed methods research as

‘..research that involves collecting, analysing, and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or in a series of studies that investigate the same underlying phenomenon’ (265).

Their argument corresponds well with Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011: 205) who suggest that using mixed methods is appropriate for ‘multi-level analyses’ which allow the researcher to obtain data from both ‘individual and broader societal context’ to increase the ‘validity and generalisability’ of the results.

3.5 Research design

The study was based on an assumption that motivating teaching practices requires a two way communication between the teacher and students in the class. The effectiveness of using the strategies is not only because the teacher considers the strategies to be motivating and brings them into the class, but also because the students perceive the teacher’s classroom teaching practices as being motivating. To keep with this assumption, the use of a mixed method approach unquestionably serves the aim of this study. As can be seen from Figure 3.5-1 below, this study was divided into three complementary phases.

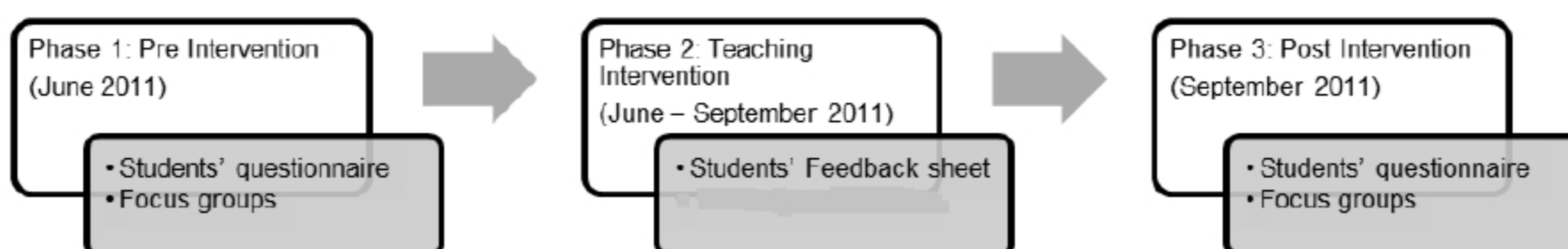


Figure 3.5-1 Three phases of the research design

The design of this study involves the integrated use of three research instruments. A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, which have their own unique features in exploring the motivation of the participants for learning English, would definitely allow me to collect enriched empirical data, present a detailed

interpretation of the findings and evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching intervention from findings of both methods. Findings from the three methods would complement and validate each other to provide a more holistic summary, leading to the overall impression of students' motivation. In the first phase, the administration of a pre-intervention questionnaire survey and focus groups were conducted to elicit preliminary findings of data as a baseline of the study for measuring the effects of the intervention. The second phase was based on a survey conducted through students' feedback sheets during the 14 week period of the teaching intervention. Finally, the third phase focused on the post-intervention questionnaire and focus groups.

In this study, I used a complementary mixed methods design aimed for 'elaboration, clarification and explanation' (Greene et al., 1989; as cited in Bryman, 2006: 105-107) of the data by integrating results of both quantitative and qualitative data which were collected, analysed and presented separately in a discussion chapter. In this study, the questionnaire survey was used primarily through the framework of self-determination theory which has already been identified as an applicable theoretical framework in ELT contexts worldwide (See Section 2.3). Using the questionnaire enabled me not only to measure the students' motivation during a four month period of the English course, but also to validate the use of the SDT framework for the classroom teaching intervention in the Thai tertiary context. By designing this study on the theoretical basis of SDT, I also intended to expand Noom-Ura's (2008) attempts to improve the motivation and learning behaviours of low-achieving students at the university, with the hope that findings of this study would encourage other teachers in the Thai tertiary context to see the possibility of bringing back the motivation for learning English of students who had limited motivation and negative attitude for learning English.

Regarding the qualitative data, the use of focus groups and students' feedback aimed to provide detailed descriptions of the participants' history of learning English, their attitude, motivation and satisfaction with the teaching intervention. Considering the nature of the participants, who were from the remedial English class, the use of focus groups was appropriate primarily because of its flexibility. Students could participate in a small group, in which they were more comfortable to share their opinions and experiences at their own preference. It also enabled me to develop a good rapport with the participants and that allowed me to examine

changes in their motivation from the beginning to the end of the course, receive reflective feedback for the teaching intervention, and crosscheck the information I received from students in each session. This was in line with L2 motivation theorists such as Lamb (2004) and Ushioda (2001) who suggested that qualitative methods are useful to investigate dynamic and complex motivational development processes involved in L2 learning. In addition, findings from these methods would increase my understanding of the Thai tertiary students and background factors underlying their motivation for learning English.

3.6 Teaching Intervention

The teaching intervention was conducted with first year students in the university remedial English course. The classes of intervention group met twice a week for 90 minutes each session. Overall, the course content focuses on basic English grammar, sentence composition and short passage reading comprehension. Some communicative skills are emphasised through oral word pronunciation, basic listening and basic conversation. Only one piece of paragraph writing is assigned during the course. Assessment is based on a paper-based exam which aims to test students on the four skills through multiple choices and fill-in-the blanks test format. There is one part testing basic grammar and vocabulary (See Appendix C, p. 186).

The design of the teaching intervention was influenced by the need to make it easy to follow, and able to be implemented in actual teaching situations. Moreover, it had to be convenient for the teachers who are normally overwhelmed with teaching loads and administrative responsibilities at the university. As the choice of class activities was up to the teacher, the teaching intervention was divided into a series of learning activities based on students' comments received throughout the course. The implementation features two-way communication opportunities between teacher and students, and several types of feedback activities, for instance, students' feedback sheets, emails, post-it notes, a nominated head of the class, and a university web-based course evaluation. In addition, to maintain the standard of research ethic for students in both groups, supplementary handouts and exercises were available online for students to print out and study for the exam. The design of the teaching intervention, its outline, content and procedure as well

as examples of designed class activities provided for Intervention groups are presentation in Chapter 6.

3.6.1 Students' feedback and field note diary

As can be seen from Figure 3.6-1, the process of transforming students' feedback into improved actions in the classroom was adapted from Reeve & Halusic's (2009) framework of autonomy supportive instructional strategies. There were four stages involved in this process. First, (1) after the students' comments were received, (2) they were ranked according to the priorities. Then, (3) learning activities and materials that matched their needs were prepared and provided in the class. Finally, (4) students' comments were collected again as feedback for activities in the following month. The results from data analysis of students' feedback of both groups are presented in Chapter 6.



Figure 3.6-1 Feedback into actions

Apart from the students' feedback, I had a field note diary to record the progress and gain feedback while performing the teaching intervention in the class. The diary was useful as a source of data to help monitor the intervention, and identify any interesting point or inquiry. Having anticipated that I would be busy dealing with students and the class activities, the field note diary was kept and recorded by a voice recorder which was turned on at all times during the class. The data from the voice recorder was transcribed shortly after class sessions and updated daily as the research diary. I also took pictures and videos of the class atmosphere, for instance, when students engaged in pair and group activities, students-led activities and project presentations. Due to the ethical concerns, the pictures and videos were used only for personal reference.

3.7 Research setting and participants

This study was conducted with the first year students in the Remedial English course during the first academic semester at a university in Bangkok, Thailand. The course lasted for 14 weeks from June to September 2011. The length of course for each week was 180 minutes. As a staff member at the English Department, the Head of the English Department allowed me to conduct the study at the university. Initially I planned to involve all students in the remedial course in this study. However, due to the limitations of time, and to make it convenient to conduct the data collection, some groups of remedial students, for which I did not receive permission from the teachers, were excluded after a month that an email invitation and a follow-up memo were sent.

Three colleagues at the department accepted the invitation and allowed me to conduct the survey in their class. All of them were female and their average age was 37. Two of them had more than ten years of English teaching experiences at the tertiary level and their average years of experience were approximately 13 years. Two of them hold a Masters degree in English Language Teaching from high ranking Thai universities, while one had a Doctoral degree in English as an International Language (EIL) from the top-ranking university in Bangkok.

3.7.1 Participants: intervention and non-intervention groups

Initially there were 354 students from seven classes, which were out of a total 15 classes (or 762 students) of the university remedial English course. Student populations in each class were varied between 45 and 60 students. They were randomly mixed and placed in each class by the university registration office. The participants were divided into two groups: an intervention group taught by me and a non-intervention group taught by my colleagues. Classes for the two groups were similar in size and composition incorporating varieties of students from different faculties. Students in both groups were taught with the same course content, topics and textbook as stated in the course syllabus. Since the commercial textbook, *Top Notch 1* (Saslow & Ascher, 2006), was used in the remedial English course, the lesson plan would follow the topics and content of that textbook. The course content and topics planned for each week in the course syllabus would not be changed. The only difference between the two groups was that a series of

classroom activities would be integrated into the actual teaching practice of the intervention group, from the beginning to the end of the course, while the non-intervention group was taught with conventional teaching practices.

3.7.2 Participants: questionnaire

At the beginning, there were 354 students. 84 students were from the intervention group and 270 students were from the non-intervention group. Students' participation was on a voluntary basis and they were informed before the distribution of the questionnaires that they had freedom to withdraw and leave the class at any time. After the midterm examination, 56 students in the non-intervention group withdrew from the course, while all those in the intervention group stayed until the end of the course (See Table 3.7-1). As a result, 84 students were still in the intervention group (28.1%), while there were 214 students left in the non-intervention group (71.8%).

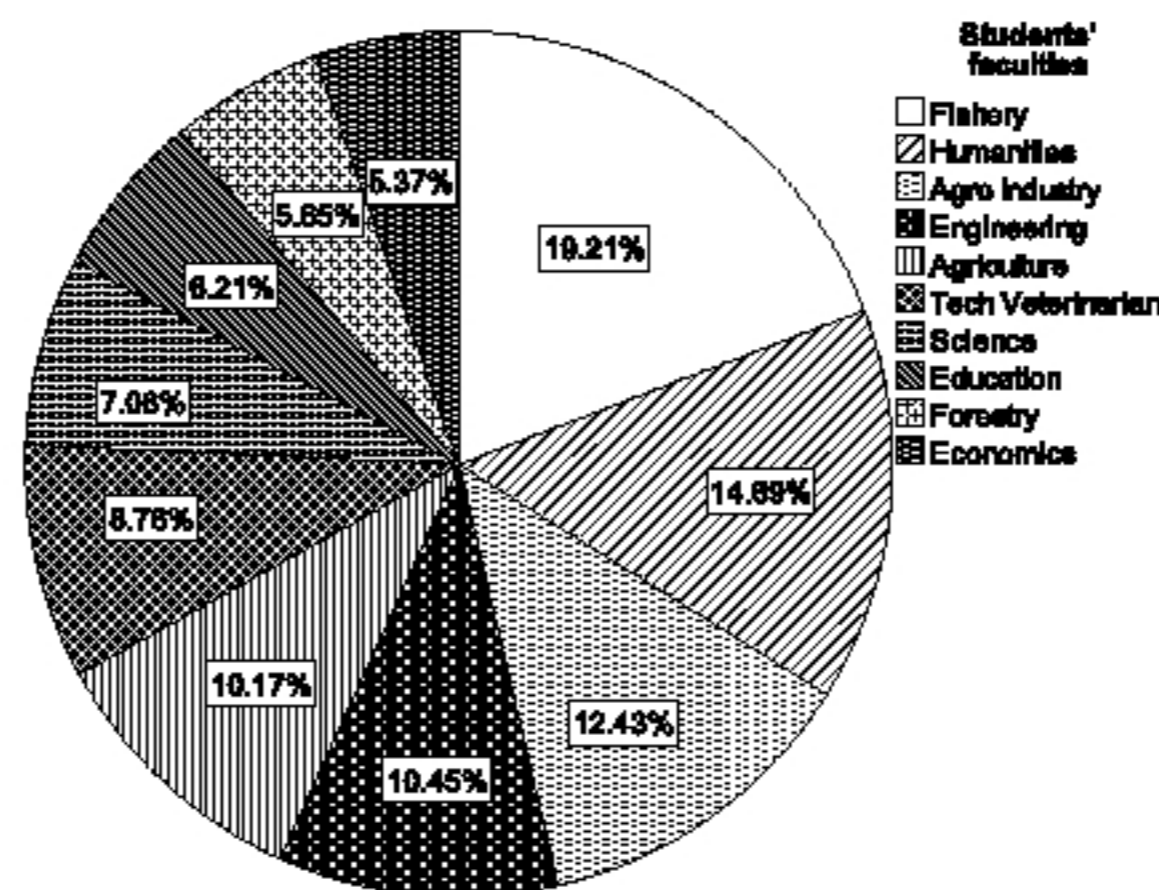


Figure 3.7-1 Faculties students were studying in

Students were arranged randomly by the university registration office into classes, which were broadly similar, with a similarly diverse range of subject areas represented. As shown in Figure 3.7-1, students were from 10 faculties at the university. A majority of students were from the Faculty of Fishery (19.2%), Humanities (14.7%) and Agro Industry (12.4%), followed by students from the Faculty of Engineering (10.5%), Agriculture (10.2%), Veterinary Technology (8.8%), Sciences (7.1%), Education (6.2%), Forestry (5.6%) and Economics (5.4%).

Demographic data		Total	Intervention	Non-intervention
Numbers of students		354	84 (23.7%)	270 (76.3%)
Age		18.36 (mean)	17 – 22 (mean = 18.26)	17 – 21 (mean = 18.39)
University entrance examination scores		24.31 (mean)	20 – 30 (mean = 25.13)	19 – 30 (mean = 24.05)
Gender	male	127	37 (10.4%)	90 (25.4%)
	female	189	47 (13.2%)	142 (40.1%)
	did not answer	38	-	38 (10.7%)
Numbers of students at the end of the course	Withdrawn students	56	-	56 (15.8%)
	Students who remain until the end of the course	298	84 (23.7%)	214 (60.4%)

Table 3.7-1 Demographic information and Descriptive statistics

From Table 3.7-1, demographic data shows that populations of students in both groups are similar. Students in this study were in the university remedial English course and were assigned to be in the course because their English scores were below 30 (from the total of 100). Students' average scores on the university entrance examination ranged from 19 – 30 (mean = 24.31). Other demographic information such as age and gender also confirms that students in both groups are similar. At the beginning of the course, the average age of students in both groups was 18 years old, ranged from 17 – 22. There are also more female than male students in both groups, which actually reflects the general population of students at the university. 189 students were female (53.3%) and 127 students were male (35.8%), while others 38 did not answer (10.7%).

3.7.3 Participants: focus groups

Participation in the focus group sessions was also on a voluntary basis. When conducting the pre-intervention questionnaires, there was a small memo informing students about the focus group discussions, which followed in the next week. Students were also informed that there were two phases of focus group sessions, at the beginning and end of the course. If they decided to take part in both phases, their participation was much appreciated. Students who wanted to take part were asked to return the memo with their name and contact number when returning the questionnaire, or, if they decided to participate later, they could leave the memo in

my mail box at my office. It was to maintain the anonymity of participants and to assure the participants from the non-intervention group that their teachers would not know of their participation in the focus group sessions. The general demographic data was obtained from the participants only to confirm that they represented the majority participants (See Table 3.7-1).

In the first phase, there were four sessions of the focus groups. 24 students volunteered to participate. 18 students were from the intervention group, while another 6 students were from the non-intervention group. In the second phase, 14 students withdrew from participating due to the severe flash flooding around Bangkok. There were only two sessions of the focus group discussions. 6 students represented the intervention group, while 4 students represented the non-intervention group.

3.8 Research instruments and data collection

As can be seen from Figure 3.8-1 below, the data collection of students' motivation and the effects of the teaching intervention was carried out in three phases: (1) distribution of pre-and post-intervention questionnaires, (2) administration of pre-and post-intervention focus groups and (3) distribution of students' feedback sheets.

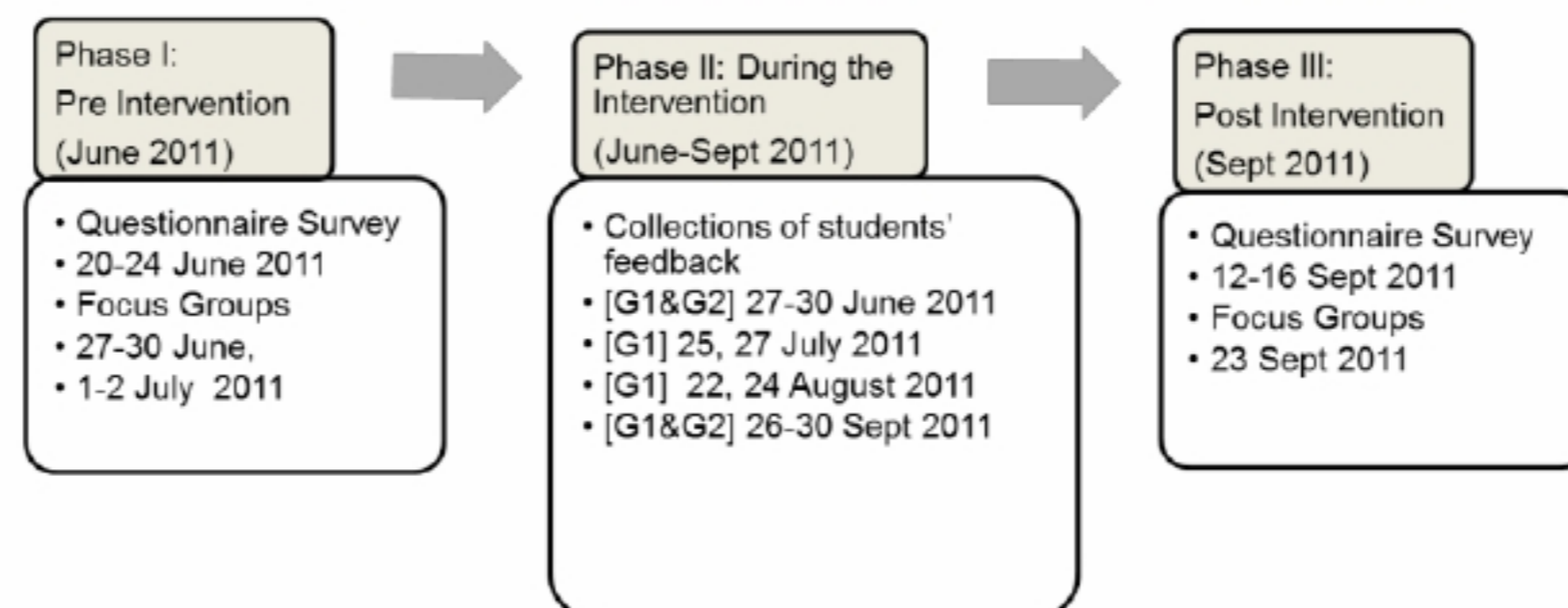


Figure 3.8-1 Data collection schedule (June – September 2011)

In this study, research instruments were refined through a pilot study in the same context where the study was to be carried out, to provide validity and reliability for the research. The following sections describe the design and implementation of these three measures: the questionnaire, focus groups and students' feedback sheets.

3.8.1 Students' pre-and post-intervention questionnaires

There were two sets of questionnaires used in this study; the pre-and post-intervention questionnaires distributed in the classes at the beginning and at the end of the course. The aims were to address the first and second research questions, which look at the kinds of learning motivation that exists among students in the university remedial English course, and the effects of the designed teaching intervention, particularly whether it could increase students' motivation to learn English. The pre-intervention questionnaire was to collect students' motivational profile as a baseline for the study; results gained from the questionnaire were expected to reveal the degree of learning motivation of students in the intervention and non-intervention groups. The post-intervention questionnaire was aimed to show differences between beginning and end motivation in all students, and between the groups, allowing me to measure the effects of the intervention on students' motivation.

Structuring the Questionnaire

The degree of students' motivation was explored based on the Self-determination theory framework. As can be seen from Table 3.8-1 below, the instrument used in this study had 54 items, rated on a 4 - point Likert scale ranged from 1 – 4, with two indicating 'not true' and another two indicating 'true' (1=not true at all; 2=not true; 3=true; 4=very true). Initially the questionnaire was based on a 5 point scale. However, results from the pilot study strongly indicated that an odd numbered scale contributed to the participants' neutral responses, and that could skew the results. As commented by my colleague, in whose class I conducted the pilot study, a 5 point scale seemed to be 'too demanding' for the remedial students, who tended to 'reject' what they felt requiring more than usually expected patience and effort, and that was strongly confirmed by results of the survey pilot. This issue was then brought to my supervisors, who agreed that the 5 point scale might not be appropriate. Considering the nature of the participants, the questionnaire was redesigned as a 4 point scale.

Section	Part	Theoretical frameworks	Descriptions of questionnaire items*
1	A	Noels et al. (2000)'s 'Language learning orientation Scale and Subscales (LLOS-IEA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are 36 items: 6 items for amotivation, 6 items for extrinsic motivation; external regulation; 6 items for extrinsic motivation: introjected regulation; 6 items for extrinsic motivation: identified regulation; 4 items for intrinsic motivation: knowledge; 4 items for intrinsic motivation: stimulation; 4 items for intrinsic motivation: accomplishment
	B	Ntoumanis (2005)'s scale of the Basic Psychological Needs Scale (BPNS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are 18 items: 6 items for perceived autonomy; 6 items for perceived competence; 6 items for perceived relatedness
2	Personal/ demographic data		

Note: * Some changes (in the translated Thai version) were made to remove negatively worded items and to make the questionnaire statements suitable to the Thai context.

Table 3.8-1 Design of students' questionnaire

There were 10 variables on the scale (See Table 3.8-1 above and Table 3.9-1). Seven variables in the first part: amotivation, extrinsic motivation with external, introjected and identified regulation, intrinsic motivation for stimulation, accomplishment and knowledge, were adapted from Noels et al.'s (2000) Language Learning Orientation Scale and Subscales (LLOS-IEA); the other three variables in the second part: the needs for competence, relatedness and autonomy, were adapted from Ntoumanis's (2005) scale of the Basic Psychological Needs Scale (BPNS) used in physical education classes. A sample of students' questionnaire can be found in Appendix D (p.188).

Piloting and distributing the Questionnaire

Applications of the questionnaire items from the previous studies were tested through the pilot study with students who were similar to the populations targeted for the study. Participants were 45 students in the Remedial English course during the summer semester. The questionnaire was designed in English and then translated into Thai to minimise bias and misunderstanding which might be caused by the language ability of participants. The quality of the Thai translation was confirmed by the back translation process with my Thai colleagues who are currently doing their PhD in the UK. The translated Thai version was translated

back into English and then the back translated questionnaire was compared with the original English version. Clarity and correctness of the language used in the questionnaire were also double checked by senior colleagues at the English Department who have experience of the use of questionnaires in the classroom. During this process, the comments received were used to revise the questionnaire. Minor modifications were made until the Thai translation was accurate. The administration of both the pilot and actual questionnaire was conducted by the teaching assistants who were familiar with the process of questionnaire survey. The time to complete the questionnaire was around 30 minutes and the teachers were asked to leave the class before the distribution of questionnaires.

3.8.2 Students' focus groups

There were two phases of the focus group discussions. The first phase followed the administration of the pre-intervention questionnaire at the beginning of the course. The aims of focus groups are to contribute to the second and third research questions, which look at the effects of the designed teaching intervention and the elements of intervention which lead to an increase in students' motivation during the course. The purpose of the first phase was to gain students' general attitudes to English language learning, their learning experiences, their current learning situation and their motivation. The second phase was conducted after the distribution of the post-intervention questionnaire at the end of the course. This was to examine whether the teaching intervention was effective or not in increasing learning motivation of the remedial students.

Structuring and piloting the Focus groups

All sessions of the focus groups were conducted in Thai and I was a moderator of all the sessions. The discussion was semi-structured in the sense that I had prepared a list of discussion questions (See Appendix E, p.192), which were in Thai, for each session, but wording and order of the discussion questions were not fixed. Clarity and correctness of the language used in the list of discussion questions were surveyed with the students in the pilot and double checked by colleagues at the Department who had more than ten years of experience of teaching remedial students.

Student participants agreed to come in a group of six and form a group on their own as to avoid embarrassment or reticence in expressing their opinions. The schedule of each focus group session was arranged at their convenience. Each session took roughly an hour. All of the sessions were conducted at weekends, in the staff meeting room of the University Self Access Language Learning Centre. In addition, snacks and corn milk were prepared for the participants in all sessions. The sessions were audio-recorded. Before the discussion, students were informed about purposes of conducting the focus groups and its procedure. The participants were told that their comments would be used to develop and improve the remedial English course. They were assured of their confidentiality, asked to sign the consent forms, and their permission was sought to turn on the voice recorder during the session.

The initial aim was to build up a rapport with the participants, for example, by asking about their personal background and everyday life to make them at ease during the session. They were also told that I would guide the discussion, but I would not take part in the discussion. Then they were provided with the list of discussion questions. When they decided which questions they wanted to discuss, students were allowed to participate at their own pace and allowed to withdraw from the discussion at any time they wanted. As there was a chance that students might dominate each other's views in each session, followed-up questions relating to the students' responses were sometimes used to guide the focus group discussions. A transcript of the focus group discussion was provided in Appendix F (p.193).

3.8.3 *Students' feedback sheets*

The use of students' feedback in this study was based on two objectives. First, it would be used to address the third research question, which attempts to identify the aspects of teaching intervention that contribute to an increase in students' motivation. Data collected from the students' feedback sheet was examined to identify additional issues such as students' attitudes and perceptions, factors affecting levels of students' satisfaction, and differences between the intervention and non-intervention groups during the course. Second, it would be used as a guideline for planning and monitoring the teaching intervention. The students' feedback in this study served not only as a research instrument, but also a means of communication between the teacher and students in the class. This section

addresses only the students' feedback sheet, which was distributed to the participants in both groups.

Based on my experience during the course, what I found interesting was that the students would be energetic to engage when I told them (in a motivating or energetic manner) that the activities and materials were prepared based on their feedback. Asking students to write feedback for the class was also the most effective way for eliciting the data from the remedial class. As most students had a tendency to avoid approaching the teacher, anonymous feedback served this purpose well. Moreover, situations in the classroom were dynamic, a combination of formal and informal forms of feedback, such as through the students' feedback sheets and post-it notes, was proved to bring more information that would complement each other. The students were also allowed to send feedback through an email. However, most of them blamed technical problems with the Internet, availability of the computers, and their tight academic and social schedule at the university, as factors why they preferred to write feedback only through the materials provided by the teacher, or come to see the teacher in person.

As mentioned earlier, the students needed to be trained to write meaningful feedback. The students learned best from examples of other students' feedback. Normally I assigned them in groups of three or four members and showed them real samples of feedback sheets and post-it notes taken from other classes. Then, I let the students discuss and decide which examples and what kinds of feedback would benefit them most. Based on my experience, the students would learn by themselves that the feedback was for their own benefit, not the teacher. But if not, it might be the teacher's responsibility to provide them with some links so that they realise the value of the activities, and that resulted in the ways their feedback writing improved a lot during the course. In the next section, examples of learning activities which were designed and developed from the students' feedback during the course are presented (See Table 6.2-4).

Structuring the feedback sheet

The feedback sheet was written in Thai to ensure maximum comprehension and prevent any misunderstanding possibly caused by the language barrier. There were five questions in the students' feedback sheet (See Appendix G, p.197, for a

sample of a students' feedback sheet). The first question was a closed response, while the others were open-response questions. Each question provided four blank lines for students to comment in their own words in their native language, Thai.

- 1) The first question asks how students feel about the class. For this question, students rate the intensity of their satisfaction on a 5 - point Likert scale ranged from highly satisfied, satisfied, average, dissatisfied and highly dissatisfied.
- 2) The second question asks the reasons for their answer to the first question.
- 3) The third and fourth questions ask about the class activities that students dislike and like.
- 4) The fifth question asks if students want to add more comments.

Distributing the feedback sheet

The feedback sheets were distributed by the teaching assistants at the end of the class. The teachers who participated in this study were asked to leave the class 15 minutes early to allow students to complete the feedback sheet alone. Students had 15 minutes to complete and return the feedback sheet. All participants in both the intervention and non-intervention groups were told that the feedback sheet was developed for students to evaluate their class and class activities and their comments would be used to develop and improve the university Foundation English courses. The evaluation process was anonymous, carried out on a voluntary basis and participants were allowed to leave the class if they wanted.

It is, nonetheless, necessary to note that the collection of students' feedback was different between the intervention and non-intervention groups. Due to the time constraint, the teachers of the non-intervention groups asked me to reduce the number of feedback-collections to only two times during the course, at the end of the first and the final months (See Table 3.7-2 below). While for the intervention group, the students still wrote their feedback for the class at the end of every month throughout the course. As a result, the students' feedback presented in the analysis was obtained from the feedback received from the first and final month from both the intervention and non-intervention groups. Moreover, the initial plan was to collect the feedback during week 2, the beginning week of the course. However, it appeared that most of the returned feedback sheets were incomplete. Therefore,

the first distribution was postponed to week 4, to train the students to write feedback for the class.

Groups	Returned at the end of the first month (week 4)	After incomplete Feedback sheets were excluded	Returned at the end of the fourth month (week 16)	After incomplete Feedback sheets were excluded
intervention	83 (27.75%)	79 (32.91%)	84 (37.33%)	82 (47.39%)
non intervention	216 (72.24%)	161 (67.03%)	141 (62.66%)	91 (52.60%)
Total	299	240	225	173

Table 3.8-2 feedback sheets returns (missing data, week 4 = 55, week16 = 129)

As can be seen from Table 3.7-2, the first set was collected at the end of the first month (Week 4) and the second set was collected at the end of the course in the fourth month (Week 16). However, numbers of returned feedback sheets were less than the actual numbers of students attending the course. First, it was because some students were absent when the feedback sheets were distributed. Also, some did not participate and left the class before the distribution of feedback sheets. Second, some feedback sheets which were left blank or incomplete were excluded from the analysis (See Section 3.9.3).

Although students in both groups were encouraged to complete every question in the feedback sheets, some questions were still left blank. They also appeared to have written their comments sometimes without looking closely at what each question actually asked them. Some students wrote their comments for all questions within the space provided for the second question and left the other questions blank. As a result, to obtain the data from students' feedback sheets, I could not look at the response from each question separately, but read through each feedback sheet as a whole to gain a clear picture of what students really thought. As the feedback sheet aims to investigate students' attitudes and perceptions towards the course and factors underlying them, in order to maintain the validity of the results, feedback sheets on which the first or second question was left blank or incomplete, were excluded from the analysis.

3.9 Procedure for data analysis

3.9.1 Questionnaire data

The measure of students' motivation, and the effectiveness of the designed teaching intervention based on the questionnaire data, was produced by computing the means of the variables. The data from the pre-and post-intervention questionnaires were transferred into SPSS (PASW Statistics 18). From this, the data were screened and checked for the reliability of the scale. The statistical techniques used to analyse and report the data were an independent samples t-test and paired samples t-test, which were employed to explore differences between the beginning and end motivation in all students, between and within the groups of students in the university remedial course.

As the participants in this study could not be randomly arranged, the one - way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was also brought in to 'statistically equate' the groups of comparison (Owen & Froman, 1998: 557). ANCOVA is a statistical technique for controlling effects of continuous or scale variables, normally known as covariates, or factors with which the researcher is concerned, but are not the focal point or independent variables in the study (Field, 2013). In non-experimental research such as surveys, non-random samples or quasi-experiments, in which the participants 'cannot be assigned randomly to control and experimental groups' due to cost of expense or ethical concerns (Owen & Froman, 1998: 557), ANCOVA allows the researcher to

'evaluate whether population means on the dependent variable are the same across levels of a factor or independent variable, adjusting for differences on the covariate, or ..whether the adjusted group means differ significantly from each other' (Field, 2013: 1).

A simple illustration of using ANCOVA is given by Leech, Barrett, & Morgan (2005) in a case of gender difference on maths achievement among high school students. As boys tend to take more maths courses, the researchers use ANCOVA to adjust the maths achievement scores based on the relationship between numbers of maths courses taken and maths achievement. This allows the researchers to identify if students' genders still have an impact on maths scores after making the adjustment. Using ANCOVA in the research is still a controversial issue among researchers whether or not there is a statistical technique that can equate unequal

groups of comparison (Miller & Chapman, 2001). Nevertheless, the use of ANCOVA is widely common in both experimental and non-experimental research designs (e.g. D'Alonzo, 2004; Vogt, 1999; Owen & Froman, 1998).

Reliability Checking

In this study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale was used as an indicator to check if each item of the scales measured the same construct. Theoretically, the values of the Cronbach alpha coefficient should be more than 0.7 (DeVellis, 2003, as cited in Pallant, 2010). However, if there are less than 10 items on the scale, the Cronbach values can be lower than 0.7 (Dörnyei, 2007), though in this case, the mean inter-item correlation for the items can be reported to show that there is a strong relationship among the items on the scale. The recommended range for the inter-item correlation is 0.2 – 0.4 (Briggs & Cheek, 1986, as cited in Pallant, 2010).

For each of the measures, the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients test was conducted for the pre-and post-intervention questionnaire. As presented in Table 3.8-1, the first set of values refers to the reliability, based on the pre-test, and the second set of values refers to the reliability based on the post-test. Referring to Pallant (2010), the scales used in this study have a good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient above 0.7 or the mean inter-item correlation between 0.2 - 0.4. For instance, the Need for Autonomy scale, which the Cronbach value falls below 0.6, has the mean inter-item correlation more than 0.2. Therefore, I decide to keep the scale (See Table 3.9-1 below).

Descriptions from each scale are presented as follows:

Categories	Numbers of items	Cronbach's Alpha		Means for Inter-item correlations		Meaning of the scales	Sample items
		Pre test	Post test	Pre test	Post test		
Amotivation	6	.795	.820	.398	.440	Students have no reason to learn English. They see no connection between their learning and outcomes of their learning.	<i>I am wasting my time in an English class.</i>
Extrinsic motivation with External regulation	4	.635	.618	.305	.314	Students learn English for tangible incentives, benefits or rewards.	<i>I need English for a job that pays very well.</i>
Extrinsic motivation with Introjected regulation	5	.677	.717	.295	.334	Students are pressured to learn English to reduce feelings of guilt or avoid punishment.	<i>As a university student, I feel guilty if I do not know English.</i>
Extrinsic motivation with Identified regulation	5	.687	.686	.306	.317	Students highly value their English learning as important or useful to their life.	<i>Learning English is good for my personal development.</i>
Intrinsic motivation for knowledge	4	.663	.677	.374	.382	Students feel pleasure and satisfaction from gaining new ideas or developing knowledge or experiences in their English learning.	<i>I enjoy the feeling of knowing more about English speaking communities and their way of life.</i>
Intrinsic motivation for stimulation	4	.781	.773	.464	.460	Students are stimulated by the pleasant sensations such as challenge or excitement resulted from their English learning experiences.	<i>I enjoy the experiences when speaking English with my teacher and classmates.</i>
Intrinsic motivation for accomplishment	4	.700	.646	.382	.321	Students feel pleasure and satisfaction when attempting to master the tasks or gaining an achievement in their English learning.	<i>I enjoy the feeling while I am in the process of accomplishing difficult tasks in English.</i>
Need for competence	6	.716	.726	.268	.261	The need to feel confident, effective or capable of learning or demonstrating their ability when having an opportunity.	<i>I feel confident to finish the class assignments.</i>
Need for autonomy	5	.593	.550	.217	.204	The need for freedom to determine one's own behaviour or engage in an activity to serve one's own interests or values.	<i>I feel free to share my ideas and opinions in class.</i>
Need for relatedness	5	.714	.771	.334	.401	The need to feel connected or accepted by the teacher and classmates.	<i>I can get along well with my teacher and other students.</i>

Table 3.9-1 Descriptions of the Scales (Self-determination and Basic needs)

3.9.2 Focus groups

I followed the procedures, as recommended in Dörnyei (2007), for analysing the qualitative focus groups data. As the terms code, coding and coding category can have different meanings, in this study, I use the term 'coding', as defined by Dörnyei (2007), as the process that 'involves highlighting extracts of transcribed data and labelling these in a way that they can be easily retrieved or grouped (p. 250)'. Therefore, the term 'code' in this study refers to a label, assigned to the particular parts of data, which were highlighted and categorised as relating to the research questions. The term 'category' or 'coding category' includes a major category, a major heading under which a set of coding categories were grouped, and a sub-category, a sub-heading under which several codes were grouped.

At this stage of the data analysis, each coding category was firstly generated as a free node. Each free node represented one coding category (See Figure 3.8-1 below).

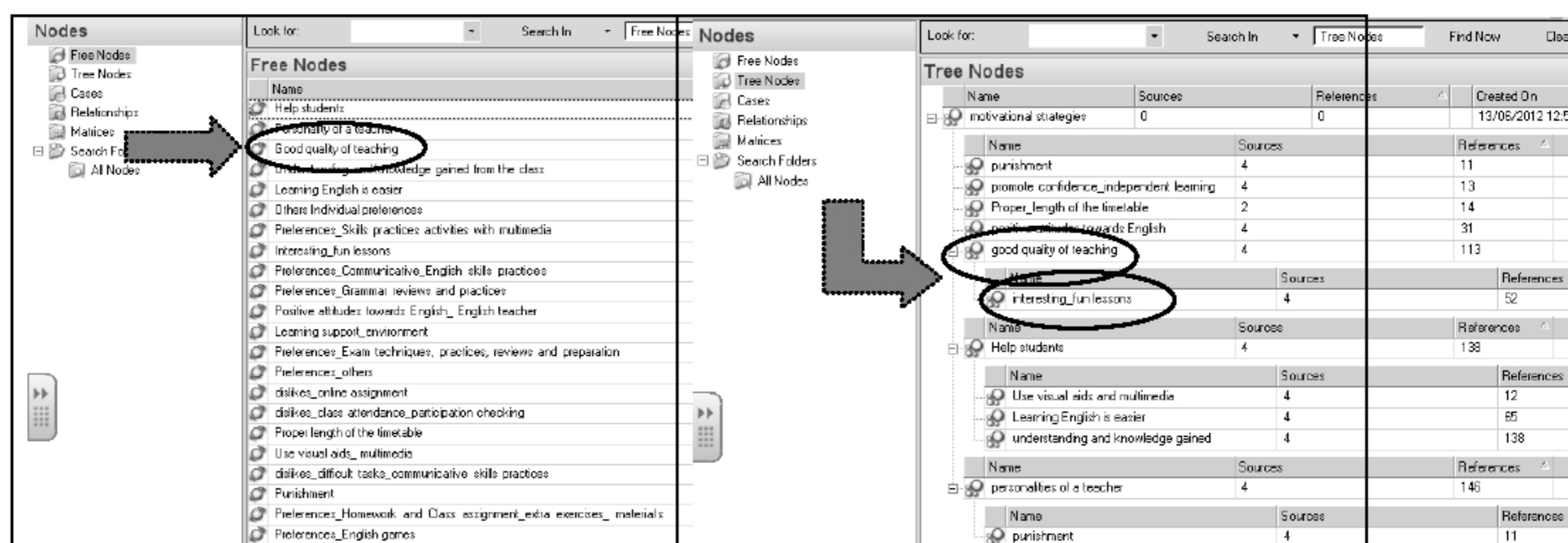


Figure 3.9-1 Samples of coding categories generated as free nodes and tree nodes

The free nodes were then revised and reorganised as tree nodes, or main categories and smaller categories, which were organised in a hierarchy based on the relationship between them. From Figure 3.9-2, coding categories under the tree nodes were, for example, 'Good quality of teaching' as the main category and 'Interesting and fun lessons' as smaller categories. Finally, the finalised categories, as well as example quotations, were translated into English. Table 3.8-3 below presents how the data from the focus groups were coded.

Extract (English translated version)	Commentary
<p>✓ Negative comment <i>'English is the subject that I never feel I understand. When I'm in the class, I may understand. But when the class finishes, I totally forgot what I have learned. I never feel I like to study English and I don't want to attend my English class. Even though I really study hard in other subjects, but not for English. I know that English is important, it is the world language, but I don't feel like the subject anyway.'</i> (Intervention group -- Week 4)</p>	<p>1) In the first stage of coding, I coded this extract as a negative comment. Based on the content, it seems students' responses show negative attitudes to English language learning. There are many sentences which referred to students' bad experiences in learning English and how the student felt with English language learning.</p>
<p>✓ English learning experiences</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>'English is the subject that I never feel I understand. ... when the class finishes, I totally forgot what I have learned.</i> <p>✓ Low motivation to learn</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>..I never feel I like to study English</i> • <i>I don't want to attend my English class.</i> • <i>..I really study hard in other subjects, but not for English</i> • <i>I know that English is important, ... but I don't feel like the subject anyway.</i> 	<p>2) In the second stage, I coded statements from the above extract into categories based on their content. In this case, there were two categories that emerged when I examined the transcripts repeatedly.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>English learning experiences</i> ○ <i>Low motivation to learn</i> <p>The statements which could be grouped under the two categories were coded.</p>
<p>✓ Lack of understanding</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>'English is the subject that I never feel I understand. ... when the class finishes, I totally forgot what I have learned.</i> 	<p>3) In the third stage, I refined the coding categories by examining them in more detail and created more specific categories. In this case, an existing category was revised and a more concise category was created.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Lack of understanding</i>

Note: *The extracts were translated from the transcript in Thai.

Table 3.9-2 How the data were coded and how each coding category emerged

Using NVivo allowed effective selection and retrieval of only the coded data in a particular category. Also, if any new category emerged, I could create a new category or refine an existing category, using the data which were already coded. From Table 3.9-2, as the transcripts were analysed, these categories were expanded, revised and later reduced because of some overlaps. The categories which were not relevant to the study and research questions were then removed.

3.9.3 Students' feedback

I used two research software programs to analyse and categorise the data. SPSS (PASW Statistics 18) was used to analyse and report the data from the first question, which was a closed response. For other open-ended questions, QSR NVivo 8 was used to count the frequency of the words mentioned by students on their feedback sheets, and to keep the transcriptions of the data from students' feedback sheets. The data from students' feedback sheets were repeatedly examined as multiple coding sweeps (Bazeley, 2009) to create and refine the coding categories. Then, I used the word frequency output or Tag Cloud to generate an overview of the data as well as preliminary coding template for coding the data. As can be seen from Figure 3.9-2 below, Tag Cloud is a list of words in alphabetical order, in which the different font sizes of each word are displayed to represent the frequency of the words mentioned. The word with the biggest font is, 'teacher'. This suggests that the teacher was the most frequently mentioned word, indicating that the teacher could be the most important factor for students' satisfaction.

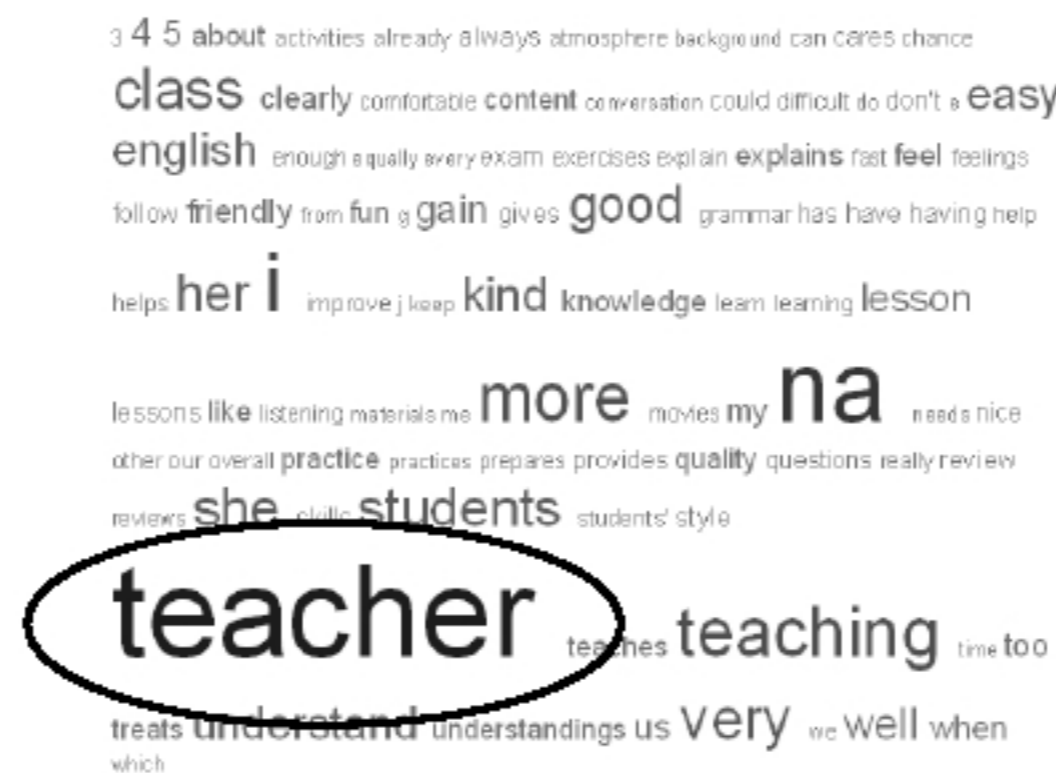


Figure 3.9-2 Results from the Tag cloud display

Students' responses were coded and the occurrence of the keywords was counted with the aid of NVivo 8 to create the coding categories. Table 3.9-3 presents the template of coding categories for students' feedback (for Question 2).

Students' comments	Categories
1. Positive comments	1) Good quality of teaching/ good preparation of teaching 2) Shows enthusiasm to teach 3) A nice/ kind/ caring/ friendly/ understanding personality of a teacher 4) Help students/ Learning support/ Provide extra input/ materials 5) Prepare for the exams 6) Learning English is easier/ easy to follow/ understand 7) Interesting/ fun lessons 8) Use visual aids/ multimedia 9) Punishment 10) Understanding and knowledge gained from the class 11) Promote students' confidence/ independent learning 12) Proper length of the class/ timetable 13) Varied activities 14) Grammar focus/ reviews 15) English skills practices 16) Positive attitudes towards English
2. Negative comments/ complaints	1) Insufficient or lack of above attributes
3. Others	1) Personal preferences/ Responses that do not fit into other categories

Table 3.9-3 Template of coding categories for Question 2

After students' responses were coded and categorised, it became clear that the use of a students' feedback sheet in this study seems to be an effective instrument to monitor whether the classroom motivational teaching strategies were effective or not.

In this study, the coding categories were developed based on the occurrence of the keywords mentioned by students (See Table 3.9-4 below).

Extract (English translated)*	Commentary
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The lesson is fun. (=4) ✓ The class is fun. (=3) ✓ The class is fun, not boring. ✓ No stress, the class is fun. ✓ The class is relaxed and fun. ✓ The class is fun. I enjoy it. 	1) From the students' feedback sheet, one of the words often mentioned by students was 'fun'. The frequency of the word, fun, was counted from students' feedback as 11. 2) Mostly, the word, 'fun', was found appearing with other words such as 'interesting', 'relaxed', 'lesson' or 'class', etc. Thus, the words occurring together with 'fun' were used as key words to create the coding category, ' <i>fun, relaxed and interesting lesson</i> '.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ No stress. (=2) ✓ I don't feel stressed. (=3) ✓ The class is not stressful. (=2) ✓ I don't feel stressed at all. ☺ ✓ There is no stress, I feel more interested to learn. ✓ The lesson is not boring. ☺ ✓ Her teaching style is not boring, I don't feel sleepy or stressed. ✓ I feel good when studying with her because it is not too stressful. 	3) This coding category covered other words or statements which had similar meanings such as ' <i>not boring</i> ', ' <i>don't feel stressed</i> ' or ' <i>stressful</i> ' and could be referred to ' <i>fun, relaxed and interesting lesson</i> '. 4) The data related to this category were counted and categorised under the category, ' <i>fun, relaxed and interesting lesson</i> '.

Note: *The extracts were translated from the transcript in Thai.

Table 3.9-4 How each coding category was generated

The process of coding and categorising the data was the same as the data from focus groups. The coding categories were firstly generated as free nodes. Then, they were revised and reorganised as tree nodes based on the relationship among them as main categories and smaller categories. Finally, before presenting and reporting results of the analysis, the finalised categories and example quotations were translated into English.

3.10 Ethical considerations

As the study was bound to the ethical issues, the ethical approval was primarily gained from the the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee, University of Leeds, Ethics reference: AREA 10-121 (See Appendix A, p.184). In this study, the research instruments and procedures were examined from ethical perspectives. Certain basic ethical principles of data collection were adhered to in the administration of the questionnaire and focus groups. Any questions I had regarding ethical considerations were also clarified by close consultation with my supervisors.

As mentioned earlier, students' studies would not be disrupted. The content and topic covered in the teaching intervention were part of the course syllabus and they would have been taught by the teacher in the class. The intervention groups might tend to receive preferential treatment, but the teaching intervention in this study was assumed to show better results than the actual teaching practice. Although the intervention group and the non-intervention group were students at the same university, normally the teachers in each class had their own ways of teaching. Therefore, it was unlikely that the non-intervention group would be affected by the teaching intervention.

3.10.1 Informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity

Permission to conduct the research was granted by the Head of the English Department who was responsible for the Foundation English courses. The teachers involved in the remedial course were notified of my study plan. They were informed about the purpose of the study, how data would be handled and how they would participate in the study. The content of the questionnaire and focus groups were confirmed by the teachers as not being disruptive the flow of their class.

Before the administration of the survey, clear instructions were given to the teaching assistants regarding the administration of the questionnaire and the assurance of anonymity and confidentiality on the part of participants. Participant consent forms were distributed to students (See Appendix B, p.185). Students were told that results from the questionnaire and focus groups were to be used as a part of my research as well as guidance to improve the university Foundation English courses. The students and teachers involved in the study were assured of their right to withdraw at any time. Every care was taken to secure the confidentiality of the data. The participants' anonymity would be protected in any publication of findings and future publications based on the research.

Chapter 4 : Quantitative data analysis: Questionnaire

4.1 Introduction

The investigation of students' motivation and effectiveness of the designed teaching intervention was carried out in three complementary ways: (1) by distributing pre-and post-intervention questionnaires, (2) by conducting pre-and post-intervention focus groups and (3) by providing students' feedback sheets during the course. This chapter presents findings from the first measure, the questionnaire survey.

4.2 Preliminary analysis: motivation to learn English of remedial students

For fuller understanding of the motivation for learning English of the students in this study, the following section is divided into two parts. The first part of this section examines motivation orientations among students and whether there was any change in students' motivation during the course. The second part looks at whether students' fundamental needs in the class were satisfied through the teaching intervention and whether facilitating students' fundamental needs in the class with the use of motivational strategies could improve students' levels of motivation (See Appendix D, p.188).

4.2.1 Pre-teaching intervention

In a first step before implementing the teaching intervention, the pre-intervention questionnaires were distributed to students in the intervention and non-intervention groups to check their equivalence for the degree of English learning motivation which will be used as a baseline for the study. As this study aims to measure the effect of the teaching intervention on students' motivation, to maintain the validity of the results, students who withdrew during the course were excluded from the analysis. The independent samples t-test was computed to compare students in both groups (See Table 4.2-1). However, when generating the SPSS report, there were missing data for some variables from responses of the non-intervention group so only 213 responses from this group were used to compute for these variables.

From Table 4.2-1 below, although there are differences in means between the two groups, results from the independent samples t-test show that students in both groups were not statistically different ($p < 0.05$).

Intervention (group 1) and non-intervention (group 2)		N	Mean	SD	t value	P
Pre-test_ amotivation	group 1*	84	2.05	.43	1.20 (296)	.231
	group 2*	214	2.12	.47		
Pre-test_ external	group 1	84	3.68	.32	.16 (296)	.873
	group 2	214	3.69	.29		
Pre-test_ introjected	group 1	84	3.55	.39	1.02 (296)	.306
	group 2	214	3.50	.37		
Pre-test_ identified	group 1	84	3.68	.30	.44 (296)	.655
	group 2	214	3.66	.32		
Pre-test_ stimulation	group 1	84	3.43	.39	.18 (296)	.856
	group 2	214	3.44	.44		
Pre-test_ knowledge	group 1	84	3.07	.53	1.87 (295)	.062
	group 2	213	3.20	.54		
Pre-test_ accomplishment	group 1	84	3.61	.47	.37 (295)	.709
	group 2	213	3.63	.42		
Pre-test_ relatedness	group 1	84	3.27	.37	.83 (186.89)	.403
	group 2	214	3.23	.46		
Pre-test_ competence	group 1	84	2.59	.46	1.78 (296)	.075
	group 2	214	2.70	.49		
Pre-test_ autonomy	group 1	84	2.87	.47	.29 (296)	.767
	group 2	213	2.89	.48		

Note: *group 1 = Intervention, *group 2 = Non-intervention

Table 4.2-1 Comparison of students between groups before the teaching intervention

From Table 4.2-1, the average mean scores of above 2.5 in all variables except amotivation of both groups show that the participants are likely to have positive attitudes for learning English at the beginning of the course.

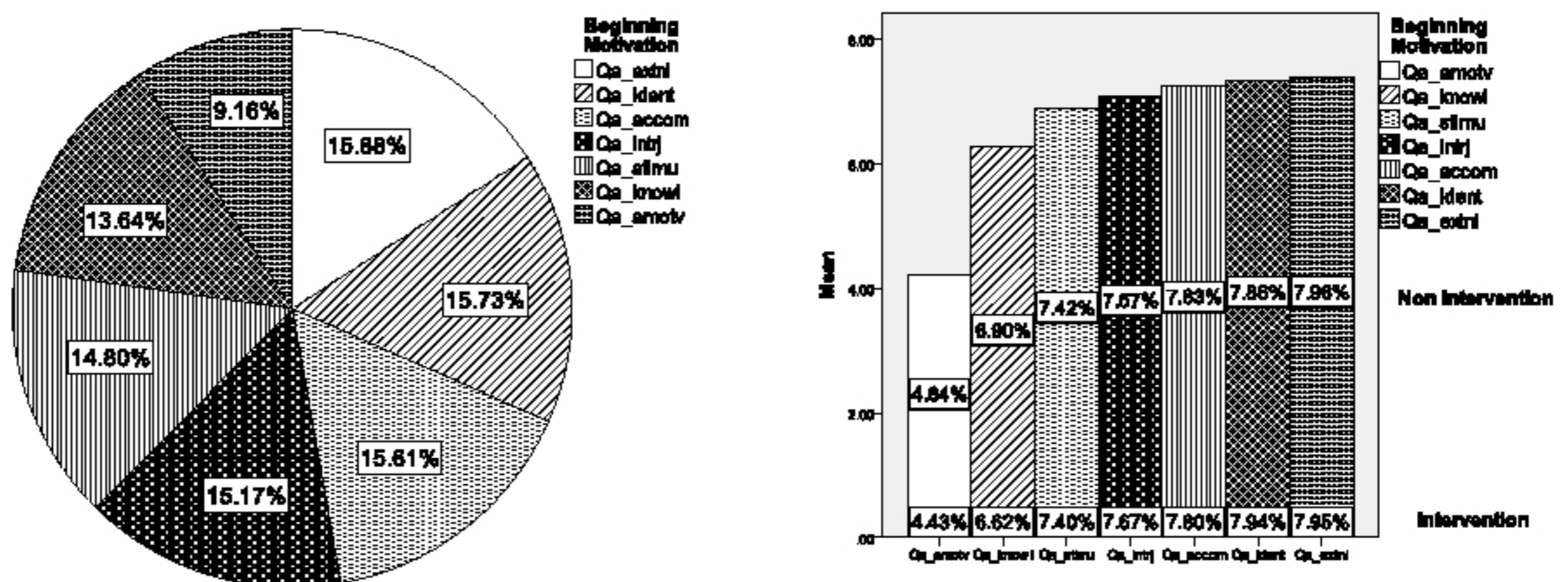


Figure 4.2-1 Beginning motivation, overall and between groups (%)

As can be seen from Figure 4.2-1 above, we can assume that the beginning motivation of the remedial students was mainly dominated by the utilitarian values

of learning English and the need for achievement, with the average mean scores of above 3.5 from the total of 4. There was not much difference in students' beginning motivation between the two groups. Therefore, it is possible to suggest that if there is a significant difference or change in students' motivation at the end of the course, this could be a result of the teaching intervention.

4.2.2 *Withdrawn students during the course*

Another possible complicating factor was the withdrawal of students during the course. While all students in the intervention group remained until the end of the course, 56 students in the non-intervention group withdrew during the semester. An independent samples t-test was used to test whether their motivation was dissimilar to students who remained until the end of the course. It was once again found that there was no statistically significant difference between students, based on their scores on the pre-intervention questionnaire ($p < 0.05$). Given that the students who withdrew were similar in motivational profile to those who stayed, it is reasonable to assume that the large discrepancy in numbers of withdrawn students between the two groups could be attributable to the differing treatments each group received (See Section 4.2.3 below).

4.2.3 *Post-teaching intervention*

At the end of the course, the post-intervention questionnaires were distributed to students in both intervention and non-intervention groups to examine if there was a change in their motivation and whether there was any difference in the change between the two groups.

Intervention (group 1) and non-intervention (group 2)		N	Mean	SD	t value	P
Post-test_amotivation	group 1	84	1.97	.49	2.86 (295)	.004*
	group 2	213	2.16	.51		
Post-test_external	group 1	84	3.76	.31	1.38 (296)	.167
	group 2	214	3.71	.30		
Post-test_introjected	group 1	84	3.62	.41	1.58 (296)	.113
	group 2	214	3.53	.40		
Post-test_identified	group 1	84	3.74	.31	1.28 (296)	.201
	group 2	214	3.69	.30		
Post-test_accomplishment	group 1	84	3.72	.34	.37 (295)	.709
	group 2	212	3.67	.41		
Post-test_knowledge	group 1	84	3.44	.49	2.41 (294)	.017*
	group 2	212	3.27	.54		
Post-test_stimulation	group 1	84	3.61	.41	1.84 (296)	.066
	group 2	213	3.51	.40		
Post-test_competence	group 1	84	2.94	.35	2.14 (295)	.033*
	group 2	213	2.81	.51		
Post-test_relatedness	group 1	84	3.49	.41	2.69 (295)	.007*
	group 2	213	3.33	.44		
Post-test_autonomy	group 1	84	3.13	.40	2.61 (295)	.009*
	group 2	214	2.98	.44		

*The significance level is at 0.05

Table 4.2-2 Comparison of students between groups after the teaching intervention

From Table 4.2-2, we can see that, although results from the independent samples t-test indicate small differences between groups, they provide a contrastive picture of students' motivation for each group. While the non-intervention group had higher scores on amotivation ($t=2.866$, $df=295$, $p<0.05$, equal variances assumed), the intervention group scored significantly higher on the motivation for knowledge and skills expanding ($t=2.411$, $df=294$, $p<0.05$, equal variances assumed).

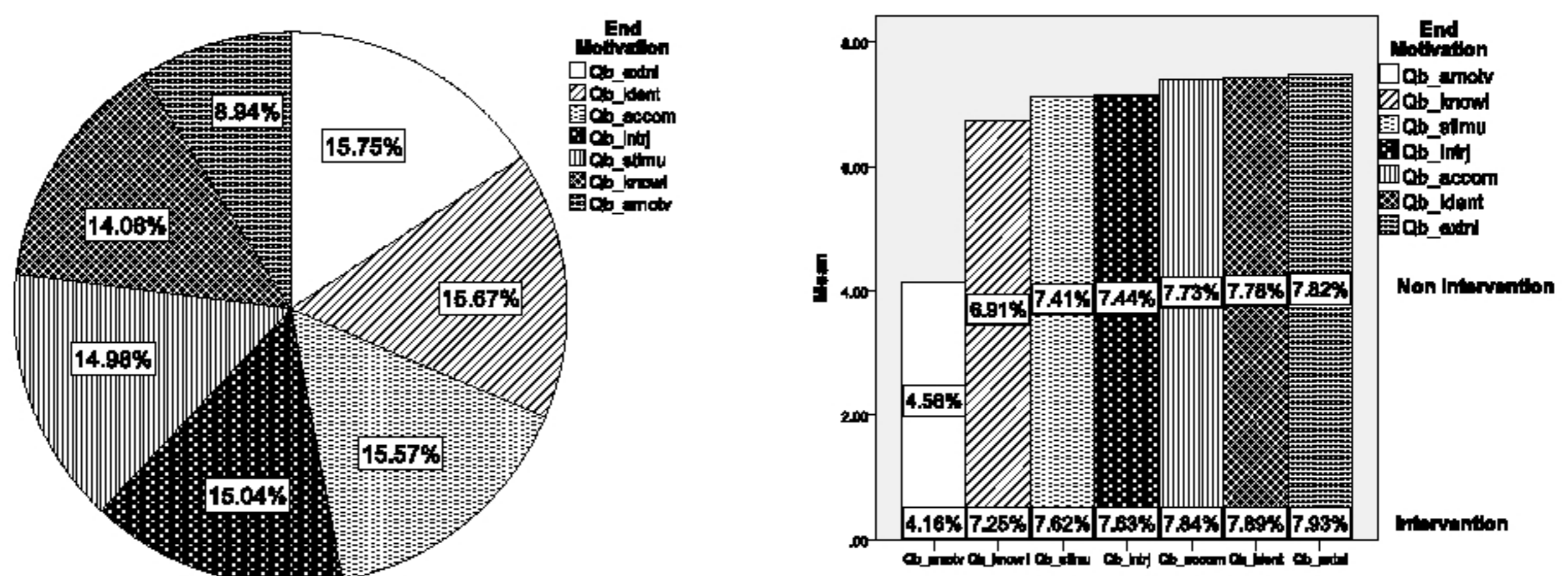


Figure 4.2-2 End motivation, overall and between groups (%)

As can be seen from Figure 4.2-2 above, the motivation to learn English of most participants in both groups were still dominated by factors such as benefits,

outcomes of learning English and need for achievement. However, it seems students in the intervention group were evidently satisfied with the knowledge and experiences gained from their English language learning, while the non-intervention group was lacking in motivation to learn English. According to Dörnyei (2001b), the state of amotivation is when students see no value in their learning, which leads to a lack of motivation to learn. As students in each group had been taking the course for four months, there could be reasons underlying the statistically significant differences between groups. In the next section, I will look at the other scales where a difference was found.

4.3 Students' motivation and conditions for having their motivation to learn

Table 4.3-1 below presents six questionnaire items on the amotivation scale, ranged from the highest to lowest means scored by students in both groups. The statistics for the items on this scale demonstrate students' responses on causes of amotivation as a whole and between groups.

Questionnaire items	Mean/ SD		
	Total (N = 298)	Intervention (N=84)	Non- intervention (N=214)
Q22b: Learning English is a burden for me.	2.55 .92	2.44 .78	2.59 .97
Q17b: Learning English language is boring.	1.95 .96	1.71 .88	2.04 .97
Q30b: I may once have good reasons of studying English, but I cannot think of any good reason right now.	1.88 .86	1.73 .84	1.94 .86
Q24b: I don't know why I need English and I don't care.	1.75 .90	1.56 .85	1.83 .91
Q29b: I am wasting my time in an English class.	1.68 .78	1.54 .73	1.74 .79
Q33b: It is a subject for English majored students and I do not see any reason why I need to take English courses.	1.74 .82	1.54 .76	1.82 .82

Table 4.3-1 Items Statistics: amotivation (Post-test)

From Table 4.3-1, students in both groups seem to agree on similar causes for amotivation. Item 22, '*Learning English is a burden for me*' is the most popular reason scored by students in both groups. This implies that English is still a difficult and unpleasant subject for the participants, which requires a heavy load of work. The least popular is item 33, '*It's a subject for English majored students...*', showing that most students felt they did need to learn English. As reflected in the generally very high mean scores for more externally regulated motives, although learning

English is not an enjoyable experience, students know they need to learn the subject and it does not matter if English is not their major subject or if they cannot find a good reason to learn.

Another significant difference between groups which will be explored here is intrinsic motivation for knowledge enriching. Table 4.3-2 presents four questionnaire items on the scale of intrinsic motivation (knowledge), ranged from the highest to lowest mean scores. The item statistics demonstrate students' responses on the scale as a whole and between groups.

Questionnaire items	Mean/ SD		
	Total (N = 298)	Intervention (N=84)	Non- intervention (N=214)
Q27b: Knowing English broadens my knowledge in other areas of my interests.	3.78 .45	3.81 .45	3.77 .45
Q34b: Knowing English allows me to continue to learn about subjects which interest me.	3.74 .46	3.76 .52	3.71 .44
Q8b: I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning English.	3.37 .63	3.52 .59	3.30 .64
Q13b: I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning about other language communities and their ways of life.	3.26 .69	3.32 .71	3.23 .69

Table 4.3-2 Items Statistics: intrinsic motivation-knowledge (Post-test)

From Table 4.3-2, reasons given by students are not much different when comparing between groups. The most popular items are item 27, '*Knowing English broadens my knowledge in other areas of my interests*', and item 34, '*Knowing English allows me to continue to learn about subjects which interest me*'. The two popular items illustrate that students enjoy learning English because it enables them to expand their knowledge and continue to learn in the area of their interests. Conversely, the least popular is item 13, '*I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning about other language communities..*'. The lowest mean score given by students on this item shows that the participants enjoy learning English because of its practical applications rather than to bind with English native speakers and their communities. This also implies that the traditional construct of integrative orientation - a desire to learn English to interact with English native speakers and their communities - is probably not a strong motive for these students.

4.4 Basic psychological needs satisfaction and its influences on students' motivation

Students' motivation is found to be associated with the three basic psychological needs satisfaction. According to Niemiec & Ryan (2009), a context that supports students' needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness is found to increase internalisation and integration more than a context without satisfaction of these needs. Satisfaction of the three basic needs also links to more satisfying learning experiences and greater academic achievement (Ibid). The teaching intervention with the use of motivational strategies seems to be useful in helping the teacher to increase students' motivation to value their English language learning and engage in the learning activities. When students experience that they have their own choice and voice in their learning, and opportunities to test and expand their capacities in the context where they feel connected, the growing sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness can possibly make students feel more intrinsically motivated. From Table 4.2-2, results from the independent samples t-test confirm that there was a link between students' motivation and their basic needs satisfaction. Students in the intervention group have higher scores for basic needs satisfaction compared with students in the non-intervention group ($t=2.611$, $t=2.504$, $t=2.698$; $df=295$, $df=218.293$, $df=295$ respectively; $p<0.05$ in each case, equal variances assumed for autonomy and relatedness).

4.4.1 Basic needs satisfaction in both groups

Table 4.4-1, 4.4-2 and 4.4-3 presents students' responses as to whether their basic needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were facilitated during the course. From these tables below, we can see that students' responses are similar for most items and their responses are not much different between groups.

Questionnaire items	Mean/ SD		
	Total	Intervention	Non-intervention
Needs for autonomy	(N=297)	(N=84)	(N=213)
Q47b: I know which English skills (e.g. listening, speaking, reading, writing) I need to improve	3.43 .62	3.54 .61	3.39 .63
Q51b: I can share my ideas and opinions in class with my teacher and classmates	3.33 .60	3.44 .52	3.29 .62
Q49b: I can decide which activities I want to practice	3.09 .75	3.11 .76	3.09 .75
Q34b: I feel pressured while studying English in the class	2.71 .86	2.65 .85	2.88 .85
Q45b: I feel pressured to memorize words and sentences in the textbooks	2.55 .81	2.50 .85	2.69 .79

Table 4.4-1 Items Statistics: needs for autonomy (Post-test)

From Table 4.4-1, on the scale of autonomy, the most popular items are item 47, '*I know which English skills I need to improve*', item 51, '*I can share my ideas and opinions...*', and item 49, '*I can decide which activities I want to practise*'. Students' responses on these popular items show that students are concerned about their English abilities, they know their own problems in learning English, and know how to choose learning activities on their own to improve their English skills. Also, students need freedom to share their opinion with the teacher and friends.

Questionnaire items	Mean/ SD		
	Total	Intervention	Non-intervention
Needs for competence	(N=298)	(N=84)	(N=214)
Q48b: I need help from my teacher to improve my language skills	3.94 .23	3.94 .23	3.94 .23
Q44b: I feel confidence to do and finish class assignments	3.12 .67	3.26 .44	3.06 .73
Q39b: I feel I am skilful to do well in English	3.01 .69	3.01 .63	3.00 .72
Q36b: I have a chance to show how capable I am	2.98 .61	3.26 .46	2.87 .62
Q46b: I am confidence to help my classmates to learn	2.68 .78	2.65 .70	2.69 .82
Q35b: I am satisfied with my performance	2.23 .73	2.38 .74	2.17 .72

Table 4.4-2 Items Statistics: needs for competence (Post-test)

For the scale of competence, students in both groups need help from their teacher. As shown in Table 4.4-2, the item that received the highest score is item 48, '*I need help from my teacher to improve my language skills*'. This is followed by item 44, '*I feel confident to do and finish class assignments*', and item 39, '*I feel I am skilful to do well in English*', meaning that with help from their teacher, students are confident to learn and to do well in English. Compared with the least three favourite items on the scale, item 36, '*I have a chance to show how capable I am*', item 46, '*I*

am confident to help my classmates to learn', and item 35, *'I am satisfied with my performance'*, for these groups of students, it does not matter to exercise their English capabilities. Students in both groups are not satisfied with their learning performance and they are not confident to help their classmates.

Questionnaire items	Mean/ SD		
	Total	Intervention	Non-intervention
Needs for relatedness	(N=298)	(N=84)	(N=214)
Q40b: My teacher and friends are friendly	3.58 .57	3.70 .51	3.54 .58
Q43b: My teacher encourage students to help each other to learn	3.44 .65	3.56 .60	3.40 .66
Q50b: Different activities in the class make me feel closer to other students	3.41 .64	3.40 .64	3.41 .64
Q42b: I can get along with my teacher and other students	3.29 .66	3.40 .58	3.25 .68
Q38b: My teacher cares about me and my classmates	3.23 .72	3.43 .66	3.15 .72

Table 4.4-3 Items Statistics: needs for relatedness (Post-test)

For the scale of relatedness, students in both groups express their positive attitudes for their English class, as indicated by the most popular item, item 40, *'My teacher and friends are friendly'*. This is followed by item 43, *'My teacher encourages students to help each other'* and item 50, *'Different activities in the class make me feel closer to other students'*. As shown in Table 4.4-3, these responses emphasise advantages of using a variety of class activities in an English class, especially paired and group work, to promote a feeling of intimacy among a teacher and students.

This evidence supports the view that the learning context can facilitate students' basic needs satisfaction and foster their learning motivation. Moreover, students' learning motivation can be eroded if their needs satisfaction is not supported. Although it is premature to claim that the use of motivational strategies in the class has directly facilitated students' basic needs satisfaction and increased their motivation to learn English, I intend to seek corroboration for these findings in the qualitative data.

4.5 Students' motivational development and reasons to learn English in both groups

To examine any change in English learning motivation from the beginning to the end of the course, a paired samples t-test was computed to compare the scores of the pre-and post-intervention questionnaire for students in both groups. As mentioned earlier, to maintain the validity of the results, only students who remained until the end of the course were included in the analysis.

Intervention group

As can be seen from Table 4.5-1, there were significant changes on the scales of intrinsic motivation (stimulation and knowledge) of the intervention group. The results apparently support the outcomes gained from the t-test analysis in the previous section. There were statistically significant differences in scores between the pre and post questionnaire for these two variables ($t=2.978$, $t=4.741$; $df= 83$, $df=83$ respectively; $p<0.05$ in each case). Furthermore, students' fundamental needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were found to be more satisfied at the end of the course, compared to the beginning ($t=3.773$, $t=5.622$, $t=3.641$; $df= 83$, $df=83$, $df=83$ respectively; $p<0.001$ in each case).

Intervention group/ categories		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	sig
amotivation	Pre-test	84	2.05	.43	1.26 (83)	.210
	Post-test	84	1.97	.49		
external	Pre-test	84	3.68	.32	1.49 (83)	.138
	Post-test	84	3.76	.30		
introjected	Pre-test	84	3.55	.39	.99 (83)	.324
	Post-test	84	3.62	.41		
identified	Pre-test	84	3.68	.30	1.38 (83)	.170
	Post-test	84	3.74	.31		
accomplishment	Pre-test	84	3.61	.47	1.55 (83)	.123
	Post-test	84	3.72	.34		
stimulation	Pre-test	84	3.43	.39	2.97 (83)	.004*
	Post-test	84	3.61	.40		
knowledge	Pre-test	84	3.07	.53	4.74 (83)	.000*
	Post-test	84	3.44	.49		
competence	Pre-test	84	2.59	.46	5.62 (83)	.000*
	Post-test	84	2.94	.35		
relatedness	Pre-test	84	3.27	.37	3.64 (83)	.000*
	Post-test	84	3.49	.41		
autonomy	Pre-test	84	2.87	.47	3.77 (83)	.000*
	Post-test	84	3.13	.40		

*The significance level is at $p< 0.005$

Table 4.5-1 Results of measures at beginning and end of the course

The increases in scores indicate that students may have been motivated by the challenges and knowledge gained from their class, and their English learning motivation became more internalised. However, this possibility will be explored further in the qualitative data. In the following section, two significant differences found within the intervention group will be explored.

Table 4.5-2 and Table 4.5-3 present four questionnaire items on the scale of intrinsic motivation (stimulation and knowledge), ranged from the highest to lowest mean scores, and the responses of students in the intervention group from the beginning to the end of the semester.

Questionnaire items	Mean/ SD	
	Pre-test (N=84)	Post-test (N=84)
Q12a: I enjoy the challenge of learning English language	3.26 .71	3.45 .60
Q4a: I feel good when hearing other people speaking English	3.24 .70	3.44 .71
Q9a: I feel good when speaking English with teacher and friends	2.89 .71	3.44 .62
Q35a: I feel good when I am communicating my own ideas in English	2.89 .71	3.44 .62

Table 4.5-2 Items Statistics: intrinsic motivation for stimulation (Intervention)

From Table 4.5-2, responses scored by students in the intervention group on the scale of intrinsic motivation (stimulation) were similar during the course. Item 12, '*I enjoy the challenge of learning English language*', and item 4, '*I feel good when hearing other people speaking English*', received highest scores on the scale. Compared with other two least popular items on the same scale, item 9, '*I feel good when speaking English...*' and item 35, '*I feel good when communicating my own ideas...*', the responses given by students suggest that although remedial students in the intervention group enjoy the difficulty of learning English language, it seems they are not confident enough to communicate in English because they express their preference to listen to other people communicating with each other rather than to produce the English language by themselves.

Questionnaire items	Mean/ SD	
	Pre-test (N=84)	Post-test (N=84)
Q27b: Knowing English broadens my knowledge in other areas of my interests.	3.85 .39	3.81 .45
Q34b: Knowing English allows me to continue to learn about subjects which interest me.	3.85 .39	3.76 .52
Q8b: I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning English.	3.04 .70	3.52 .59
Q13b: I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning about other language communities and their ways of life.	3.00 .83	3.32 .71

Table 4.5-3 Items Statistics: intrinsic motivation-knowledge (Intervention)

From Table 4.5-3, it is clear that the order of preference on the scale was not changed during the course. The results confirm what has already been presented in Table 4.3-2, namely that students' responses on the scale of intrinsic motivation (knowledge) were not different either between groups or within the group. The highest scores on the two most popular responses, item 27, '*Knowing English broadens my knowledge in other areas of my interests,*' and item 34, '*Knowing English allows me to continue to learn about subjects which interest me,*' support the view that remedial students enjoy the benefits of knowing English because they could expand their knowledge and keep learning in the area of their interests rather than to bind with English native speakers or their communities.

Non - intervention group

non-intervention group / categories		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	sig
amotivation	Pre-test	213	2.12	.47	1.02 (212)	.305
	Post-test	213	2.16	.51		
external	Pre-test	214	3.69	.29	.87 (213)	.384
	Post-test	214	3.71	.30		
introjected	Pre-test	214	3.50	.37	1.15 (213)	.250
	Post-test	214	3.53	.40		
identified	Pre-test	214	3.66	.32	1.37 (213)	.171
	Post-test	214	3.69	.30		
accomplishment	Pre-test	212	3.63	.42	1.23 (211)	.219
	Post-test	212	3.67	.41		
stimulation	Pre-test	214	3.44	.44	2.72 (213)	.007*
	Post-test	214	3.51	.40		
knowledge	Pre-test	212	3.20	.54	1.95 (211)	.051
	Post-test	212	3.27	.54		
competence	Pre-test	213	2.70	.50	3.26 (212)	.001*
	Post-test	213	2.81	.51		
relatedness	Pre-test	213	3.22	.46	3.25 (212)	.001*
	Post-test	213	3.33	.44		
autonomy	Pre-test	213	2.89	.47	2.38 (212)	.018*
	Post-test	213	2.98	.44		

*The significance level is at 0.05

Table 4.5-4 Results of measures during the course

As presented in Table 4.5-4 , the non-intervention group had higher scores only on the intrinsic motivation (stimulation), in comparison with students in the invention group ($t=2.724$, $df=213$, $p<0.05$). Besides, there was a statistically significant difference in scores between the pre and post questionnaire on this variable during the course. Their scores for the basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were also found to have increased during the course ($t=2.389$, $t=3.262$, $t=3.259$; $df=212$, $df=212$, $df=212$ respectively; $p<0.05$). Table 4.5-5 below presents four questionnaire items on the scale of intrinsic motivation (stimulation), ranged from the highest to lowest mean scores.

Questionnaire items	Mean/ SD	
	Pre-test (N=213)	Post-test (N=213)
Q12a: I enjoy the challenge of learning English language	3.33 .64	3.42 .66
Q4a: I feel good when hearing other people speaking English	3.28 .68	3.28 .73
Q9a: I feel good when speaking English with teacher and friends	3.10 .71	3.21 .71
Q35a: I feel good when I am communicating my own ideas in English	3.10 .71	3.21 .71

Table 4.5-5 Items Statistics: intrinsic motivation for stimulation (Non-intervention)

In Table 4.5-5, we can see that the responses of the non-intervention group were similar to the intervention group. The results confirm that these remedial students want to learn English because knowing English enables them to expand their knowledge and learning in the area of their interests.

4.6 Controlling for differences between groups (ANCOVA)

When subjects cannot be randomly arranged to the experiment and control groups in a pseudo-experimental study, it is important to try to control for pre-existing differences between the groups. Adjustment of the group means by using the one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) could be performed as a correction for the differences between groups caused by external variables such as sampling error or unequal size of the population in the group (See Section 3.9.1).

The independent variables used in the analysis were the two groups of students: the intervention and non-intervention groups. The scores from the post-intervention questionnaire were used as the dependent variable and the scores from the pre-intervention questionnaire were used as the co-variate. By controlling differences

between the two groups, it is possible to identify more clearly the impact of the teaching intervention on students' levels of English learning motivation.

Before conducting the ANCOVA test, Levene's test of the homogeneity of variance was computed to check that variances between students in each group are equal (to certify the validity of the results). According to Pallant (2010), the sig. value level needs to be more than .05 to indicate that the assumption of equality of variance for the variable is not violated. However, there are some scales, in which the sig. value is less than the conventional.05 level. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, as cited in Pallant, 2010) suggest an alpha of .025 or .01 to determine significance for the variable in the test to assume equal variances. As a result, the underlying assumption of the one way ANCOVA for equality of variance in this analysis has been met at the significance level of 0.01 (See Table 4.6-2).

Variables	Mean/ SD				N			
	Intervention		Non-intervention		Intervention		Non-intervention	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Amotivation	2.05 .43	1.97 .49	2.12 .47	2.16 .51	84	84	214	213
Extrinsic motivation with External regulation	3.68 .32	3.76 .31	3.69 .29	3.71 .30	84	84	214	214
Extrinsic motivation with Introjected regulation	3.55 .39	3.62 .41	3.50 .37	3.53 .40	84	84	214	214
Extrinsic motivation with Identified regulation	3.68 .30	3.74 .31	3.66 .32	3.69 .30	84	84	214	214
Intrinsic motivation for knowledge	3.07 .53	3.44 .49	3.20 .54	3.27 .54	84	84	213	212
Intrinsic motivation for stimulation	3.43 .39	3.61 .41	3.44 .44	3.51 .40	84	84	213	214
Intrinsic motivation for accomplishment	3.61 .47	3.72 .34	3.63 .42	3.67 .41	84	84	214	212
Need for competence	2.59 .46	2.94 .35	2.70 .49	2.81 .51	84	84	214	213
Need for autonomy	2.87 .47	3.13 .40	2.89 .48	2.98 .44	84	84	213	213
Need for relatedness	3.27 .37	3.49 .41	3.23 .46	3.33 .44	84	84	214	213

Table 4.6-1 Descriptive statistics

As indicated by Table 4.6-1, although the mean scores of the intervention group show that students in this group seem to be more intrinsically motivated and have more positive attitudes towards their English language learning, the ANCOVA results indicate that the intervention group scored significantly higher than the non-

intervention group only on the measures for intrinsic motivation (stimulation and knowledge). From

Table 4.6-1, the means for the intervention group are 3.44 and 3.61 (SD = .49 and .41), while the means of the non-intervention group are 3.27 and 3.51 (SD = .54 and .40).

As can be seen from Table 4.6-2 below, ANCOVA offers a convincing case for the effectiveness of the teaching intervention. The results confirm that the intervention has had a significant effect on intrinsic motivation (stimulation and knowledge) scores ($F(1, 293)=4.268$, $F(1,293)=10.077$ respectively; $p<0.05$ in each case). Having controlled for differences in pre-test scores, the post-test score of the intervention group is significantly higher than that of the non-intervention group. The adjusted R square of .147 and .120 suggests that that the model accounts for 14.7% and 12% of variation in the post-test scores. The partial eta squared of .014 and .033 also indicates that whilst the pre-test scores are the strongest predictors of post-test scores (p.e.s.=0.143 and p.e.s.=0.109), group does have an effect (p.e.s =0.014 and p.e.s.=0.033).

Variables	Adjusted R squared	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	
		Post-test	Post-test	Post-test	Post-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Amotivation	.189	1.446	1	13.123	6.728	.010*	.172	.022
Extrinsic motivation with External regulation	.110	.190	1	.190	2.316	.129	.110	.008
Extrinsic motivation with Introjected regulation	.122	.251	1	.251	1.714	.192	.120	.006
Extrinsic motivation with Identified regulation	.148	.113	1	.113	1.437	.232	.149	.005
Intrinsic motivation for knowledge	.147	.600	1	.600	4.268	.040*	.143	.014
Intrinsic motivation for stimulation	.120	2.545	1	2.545	10.077	.002*	.109	.033
Intrinsic motivation for accomplishment	.073	.168	1	.168	1.173	.280	.077	.004
Need for competence	.174	1.817	1	1.817	9.776	.002*	.167	.032
Need for autonomy	.144	1.116	1	1.116	6.604	.011*	.129	.022
Need for relatedness	.074	1.378	1	1.378	7.656	.006*	.059	.025

*The significance level is at 0.01

Table 4.6-2 A summary result of the ANCOVA analysis

The ANCOVA results support the results from the independent samples t-test and paired samples t-test (See Table 4.2-2; Table 4.5-1; and Table 4.5-4) that there are statistically significant differences between the two groups on the scales of intrinsic motivation (knowledge and stimulation) found at the significance level of 0.01 (See Table 4.6-2). The results from ANCOVA also confirm that students' basic needs were more satisfied at the end of the course in both groups. However, the intervention group had higher gains for all the basic needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness ($F(1, 294)=7.656$, $F(1, 294)=9.776$, $F(1, 294)=6.604$ respectively; $p < 0.05$ in each case). The adjusted R square once again suggests that only 17.4%, 14.4% and 7.4% of variance in the outcomes had been accounted for, while the effect sizes of 2.5%, 3.2% and 2.2% indicate a small impact of either the pre-existing differences or magnitude of the post-test outcome differences (See Table 4.6-2 above).

As can be seen from Table 4.6-2, a scale, which can best tell about the effects of the teaching intervention, is the scale of amotivation. ANCOVA results confirm that the intervention has had a significant effect on amotivation scores ($F(1,294)=6.728$, $p=0.010$).

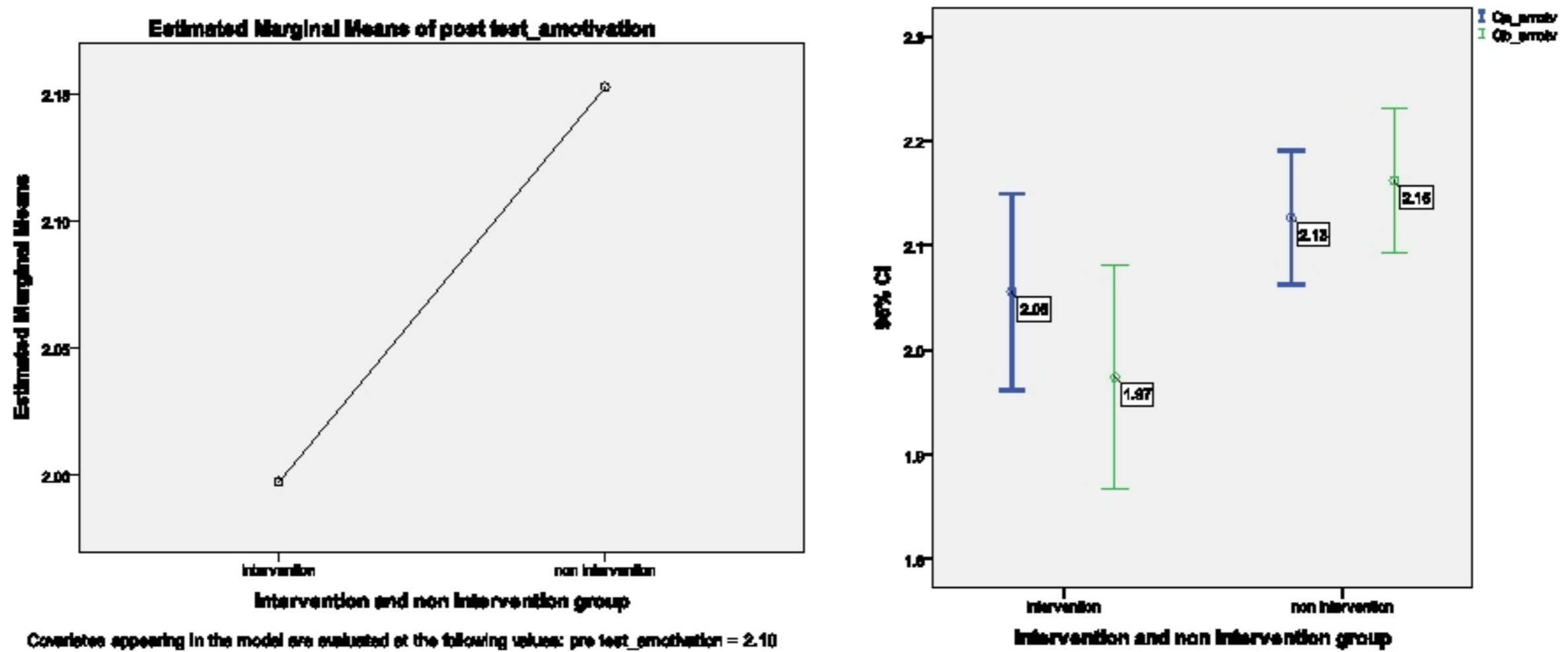


Figure 4.6-1 Differences in means on amotivation (between groups)

As indicated by Figure 4.6-1 and Figure 4.6-2, results from the box plots clearly illustrate that there was a difference in scores on the scale of amotivation for the pre- and post-test when comparing between groups. Although the independent samples t-test indicates that this was not significant at the 5% level in the pre-test, the differences in the post-test were larger, as confirmed by the t-test (See Table 4.2-1 and Table 4.2-2).

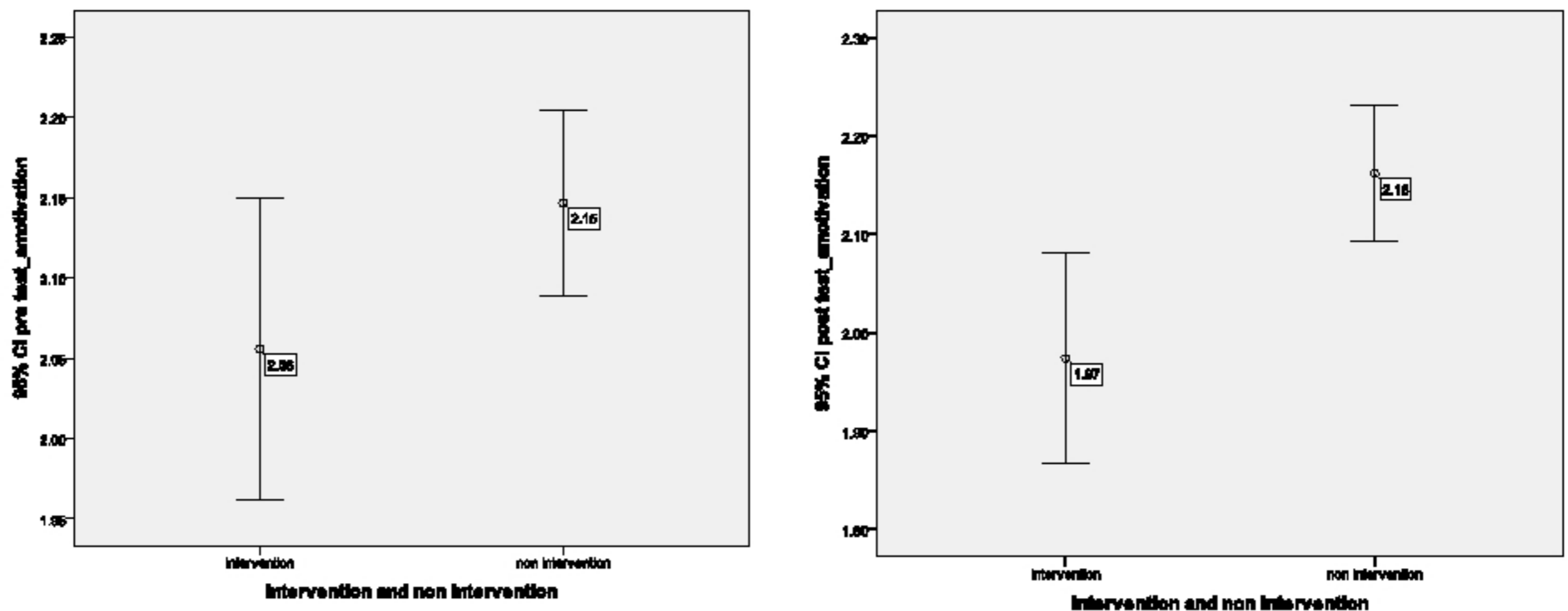


Figure 4.6-2 Differences in means for pre- and post-test on amotivation (between groups)

Having controlled for differences in pre-test scores, the post-test score of the non-intervention group is significantly higher than that of the intervention group (See Table 4.6-2). Adjusted r-squared is 0.189 indicating that the model accounts for 18.9% of variation in the post-test scores. The partial eta squared indicates that whilst the pre-test scores are the strongest predictors of post-test scores (p.e.s.=0.172), group does have an effect on this variable (p.e.s=0.022). Therefore, it can be said that the higher mean scores on amotivation of the non-intervention group imply an effect of the teaching intervention, which make the motivation to learn English of students in the two groups different.

4.7 Discussions of results from statistical analysis

Positive attitude and intrinsic motivation of the two groups for learning English were revealed through participants' responses on the questionnaire. From the beginning to the end of the course, English learning motivation of the participants was found to link with challenge and excitement of the first year university students, who were still in a transition from school to university. There were significant changes found on intrinsic motivation (stimulation) in both groups. As the administration of pre- and post-intervention questionnaires was in the first semester of the university academic year, life in the university was a challenging and exciting experience for them and this could help to explain the significant shift in scores on intrinsic motivation (stimulation) found in both groups (See Table 4.5-1 and Table 4.5-4).

Greater gains in motivation were also found for students in the intervention group. For the intervention group, the participants were not only motivated by intrinsic enjoyment from the challenge and excitement of learning English in the new learning environment, but they also enjoyed the benefits of knowing English, which enabled them to continue to learn in the areas of their interest. In addition, while the intervention group could maintain their learning motivation until the end of the course, the non-intervention group became more amotivated at the end of the course and had a relatively high drop-out rate (15.8%), (See Table 4.2-2). This strongly suggests that the intervention group were not only stimulated by the fresh challenges of the university life, but also by the new experiences and knowledge gained from their specially-designed English course (See Table 4.5-1).

The results gained from the statistical analysis do not significantly favour the intervention group for all variables, but only some variables, in comparison with the non-intervention group (See Table 4.2-2 and Table 4.6-2). One possible explanation for this is that the responses of the 56 students who withdrew from the course were not included in this analysis. As a result, students' responses used to calculate in this study were only from students who remained until the end of the course. Moreover, although the withdrawn students did not seem to be statistically distinct in any way, since they decided not to continue the course, these students may still have responded negatively to the course and were likely to be less motivated. Therefore, the level of withdrawals is both interesting in itself, and may have skewed some of the results here. For example, this could probably help to explain why the values of the effect size received from the ANCOVA were rather small.

4.8 Summary

This study attempts to answer the question of whether the use of locally-designed motivational strategies based on SDT is more effective than traditional classroom teaching in improving motivation to learn English of students in the university remedial English course. At this stage, it is still too early to say that the effects of the changes in students' motivation found from the statistical analysis were definitely caused by the teaching intervention. The quantitative data gained from the pre- and post-intervention questionnaires is useful for assessing the

effectiveness of the teaching intervention. However, they cannot provide a complete picture of students' motivation on their own. Therefore, it is hoped that the interpretation of qualitative data from students' feedback sheets and focus groups will help to develop a fuller understanding of the quantitative results.

Chapter 5 : Qualitative data analysis: Focus groups

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is the first part of the qualitative data analysis, which presents results of the two phases of focus groups. The interpretation of the data is supported by examples taken from the focus groups, which offer insights into students' experiences of learning English and their motivation for learning English. At this stage of the investigation, a richer and deeper understanding is helpful to validate the results gained from the earlier stages of data analysis in identifying the students' motivation, changes in students' motivation and underlying factors behind their motivation.

5.2 Observable data during focus group sessions

The following sections are divided into two parts. First, I wrote up my field note diary to record the first impressions and comments of each focus group session while my memory was still fresh; the overall observable atmosphere of focus group sessions recorded in the field notes diary is presented. Second, based on my own interpretation of the data, categories of conditions which appeared to affect the motivation for learning English of participants during the course are presented. Finding out about these conditions not only reveals background factors that help shape participants' motivation to learn English, but also informs me about effects of some specific motivational teaching practices on students' motivation, and provides fuller understanding of what the EFL teacher could do to improve students' learning motivation.

5.2.1 First phase of focus groups (pre-intervention)

First of all, the participants were enthusiastic to take part. This was similar for the participants in both groups. When I recruited the participants for the focus groups, I did not expect the participants from the non-intervention groups as I was not their teacher. On the contrary, there were students from the non-intervention groups who were actually interested and visited my office to ask if they could join the sessions. On the day of the focus groups sessions, none of them came late. They arrived early and waited outside the meeting room before the session started.

Before the sessions started, most participants talked openly with me and their peers, saying that it was the first time they had had an opportunity to share their experience of English language learning with the teacher and friends. Most of them were pleased to join the sessions, but they said that they had not expected to have such opportunity. As they were placed in the Remedial course, the basic English course for low English ability students, most of them told me that they viewed the course as a label of their English ability, which not only decreased their confidence to learn English, but also obstructed them in engaging fully in the first phase of the focus groups.

Although the participants volunteered themselves to participate in the focus groups, not all of them fully engaged in the discussion. Based on the observable data, in most sessions there were usually one or two participants who seemed to only listen, nod and respond by saying a few words such as 'yes', 'me too', 'that's right' or 'I think so' (examples are translated from Thai) in agreement with their peers. For most of these participants, they often looked at me, the moderator of the session, as if they were waiting for my recognition or a nod of approval before they talked or said something, the same as when they were in the English class. However, after observing and letting their peers dominate the sessions for a while, most of them seemed to be more comfortable. They started to share ideas and talked more until the end of the session. The relaxed atmosphere of a small group discussion, and similar ideas and experiences being shared by their peers, might possibly have stimulated the participants to engage in the discussion.

5.2.2 *Second phase of focus groups (post-intervention)*

In the second phase, 14 participants withdrew due to the flood and transportation problems. However, the rest of participants were still energetic and enthusiastic to participate. The session became more informal among six participants in the intervention and four participants in the non-intervention sessions. As most participants stayed in the university dormitory, they walked to the meeting room together. It was also interesting to see that while the first session started, three (of the total four) participants for another session had already arrived and were waiting in the common area of the Self Access centre. In addition, before the first session started, some participants expressed their concern that I might not have enough data and they offered to recruit some of their

friends at the dormitory (who were also in the Remedial English course, but did not participate in the first session).

Most participants in both sessions seemed to know how to engage in the sessions. They did not hesitate to start the conversation or participate in the discussion. Some of them even acted as a moderator of the session. They started to ask for comments from their peers and gave a summary for each question before moving on to the next one. Participating in the first phase of focus groups could possibly have given them some experience of the focus groups. Besides, as the participants had already spent a semester at the university, more experience and familiarity with their peers could have probably increased their confidence to engage in the session.

5.3 Which topic students felt comfortable to discuss

This part presents students' preferences for questions on the list of discussion questions; which question was selected for discussion: which question was the most frequently selected, and which question the participants took most time to discuss (See Appendix E, p.192). As one aim of using the focus groups in this study was to create a relaxed and friendly atmosphere, although the participants were encouraged to discuss for an hour, they had the freedom to select only the questions that they wanted and they could stop whenever they wished. There are five questions on the list, which ask about students' attitude and feeling for learning English, learning experiences, confidence and goals for learning English. The discussion questions are different in terms of the level of challenge, and finding out students' preferences for discussing the particular topics could give insight into their attitudes, confidence, motivation for learning English and change in their motivation (See Appendix E, p.192).

In the first phase of focus groups, most participants in both intervention and non-intervention groups chose to discuss topics for which they seemed to have an answer in mind and did not require deeper thoughts to evaluate their English class or confidence and goal for learning English. One of the topics that participants talked extensively about were their experiences of learning English and the role of teacher and peers in learning English. Most of them spent nearly half of the session discussing the first two questions, which generally asked about their experiences of learning English, impression and

feeling for learning English. There was only one session of the intervention group that went through all of the five questions.

In the second phase of focus groups, the participants began to discuss the more complicated questions, such as questions 3, 4 and 5, which asked about their learning satisfaction, confidence, goal for learning English and criticism of their English class (See Appendix E, p.192). Some of them also started to criticise the other classes of their friends and the teacher's teaching styles. Nevertheless, while the intervention group went through all discussion questions on the list, the non-intervention group still skipped questions 3 and 5, which asked about their English class and learning goal (See Appendix E, p.192).

Nonetheless, as I was the teacher of the intervention group and students had been in the class with me for four months, it is premature to claim that the intervention group were more comfortable and confident to participate in the discussions than the non-intervention group because of the teaching intervention. In addition to this fact, the non-intervention group did not actually try to avoid discussing the particular questions as their opinions about the learning satisfaction and goal for learning English still appeared in their responses for other questions.

5.4 Preliminary analysis: results from questionnaire and focus groups

The two research methods were eliciting slightly different things. The results of the pre-intervention questionnaire revealed the participants' general positive attitude for learning English at the beginning of the course (See Section 4.2.1). The questionnaire somehow oriented respondents towards the future and so elicited feelings of hope and optimism, while the focus group questions oriented participants towards the past and so elicited all their negative emotions. Moreover, results of questionnaire were based on 354 student participants, while there were only 24 participants in the focus group, who could have started the course with negative attitude and low motivation.

Although research methods employed in this study were carefully selected and designed for remedial students, the methods were different in terms of relationship between the researcher and participants. While the administration of the questionnaire and feedback sheets was conducted by teaching assistants at the end of the classes, which contained

around 45 students, there were only six student participants in each session of focus groups. Using focus groups could probably enable the researcher to build up the trust and close relationship with the participants. It was especially so with sessions of the intervention groups, for which I was a moderator of the session, as well as teacher of the class. In addition, as responding to the questionnaire requires reading and writing skills, this probably implies language problems of participants, not only with English, but also Thai. Therefore, we can see an advantage of using focus groups to explore in-depth information about the learning motivation and changes in learning motivation of remedial students.

In the second phase of focus groups, there were some positive changes in students' attitudes and motivation. From Table 5.5-1 above, we can see an increase in numbers of students' positive comments from 41.3% to 64.5% of the total comments from both groups at the end of the course. Using focus groups allows emergence understanding of students' motivation, changes in students' motivation, factors underlying the changes and influences of some specific contextual and cultural values from perspectives of students. Moreover, the results received from the second phase seemed to correspond well with the results of the post-intervention questionnaire received at the end of the course, which implied an effect of the teaching practices in improving the learning satisfaction and motivation of the participants. Most participants mentioned an increase in their confidence, knowledge and understanding, and perceived benefits of learning English, as important factors for their satisfaction. More importantly, they remarked that their first semester at the university was better than they had expected. Although they still had to prepare for the final exam, they seemed to feel relieved that the semester was almost ended. As presented in Table 5.5-1, there were some students who still expressed their negative feelings and reactions. Nonetheless, this showed differences between the intervention and non-intervention groups, which have been attributed to the effects of the teaching intervention in improving the students' attitude and motivation.

5.5 Conditions that affect students for having the motivation to learn English

This part presents students' motivational development and conditions that affect their motivation for learning English from the beginning to the end of the course, as they themselves reported in the focus groups. Table 5.5-1 below presents the spread of comments about factors that affect students' motivation divided into negative and

positive factors, for having or not having the motivation to learn English. However, it is necessary to note that although students' comments are allocated to one category only, the categories of data are linked to each other, and overlaps can occur (See Section 3.9.2 for details on procedure for data analysis).

Categories	At the beginning of the course, week 4 (N=24, 656 comments)			At the end of the course, week 16 (N=10, 496 comments)		
	Intervention	Non intervention	Total (both groups)	Intervention	Non intervention	Total (both groups)
Positive factors (Frequency/ Percentage for each group)	154 (39.9%) ¹	117 (43.3%) ²	271 (41.3%) ³	229 (70.6%) ¹	111 (55.5%) ²	340 (64.5%) ³
1) Supportive learning atmosphere	41 (10.6%)	33 (12.2%)	74 (11.3%)	95 (25.3%)	31 (15.5%)	106 (21.4%)
2) Confidence, and understanding gained	35 (9.1%)	27 (10.0%)	62 (9.5%)	43 (14.5%)	15 (7.5%)	58 (11.7%)
3) Personality of the teacher & teaching styles	45 (11.7%)	33 (12.2%)	78 (11.9%)	60 (20.3%)	35 (17.5%)	95 (19.2%)
4) Benefits & Learning goals	30 (7.8%)	23 (8.5%)	53 (8.1%)	31 (10.5%)	30 (15.0%)	61 (12.3%)
5) Others	3 (0.8%)	1 (0.4%)	4 (0.6%)	-	-	-
Negative factors (Frequency/ Percentage for each group)	232 (60.1%) ¹	153 (56.7%) ²	385 (58.7%) ³	87 (29.5%) ¹	89 (44.5%) ²	196 (42.2%) ³
1) Difficulty of English - Grammar rules and structure - English as a main medium of instruction	82 (21.2%)	59 (21.9%)	141 (21.5%)	6 (2.0%)	28 (14.0%)	34 (7.7%)
2) Personality of the teacher & Teaching styles - Lack of support Punishment	73 (18.9%)	63 (23.3%)	136 (20.7%)	14 (4.7%)	20 (10.0%)	34 (7.7%)
3) Lack of confidence to learn & Learning goals	48 (12.4%)	16 (5.9%)	64 (9.8%)	23 (7.8%)	12 (6.0%)	35 (7.9%)
4) Pressure from current demand for English knowledge	23 (6.0%)	15 (5.6%)	38 (5.8%)	42 (14.2%)	29 (14.5%)	71 (16.0%)
5) Others	6 (1.6%)	-	6 (0.9%)	2 (0.7%)	-	2 (0.5%)
Total	386 (100%) ¹	270 (100%) ²	656 (100%) ³	296 (100%) ¹	200 (100%) ²	496 (100%) ³

Note ¹ percentage (%) of the total comments of intervention group
² percentage (%) of the total comments of non-intervention group
³ percentage (%) of the total comments of both groups

Table 5.5-1 Reported factors affecting students' motivation for learning English

From Table 5.5-1 above, we can see that there were a greater number of students' negative comments (58.7%) than positive comments (41.3%) of the total comments from both groups in the first phase of focus groups. Although most participants seemed to be relaxed when I met and talked with them before the focus groups started, their comments and reactions during the discussions were rather offensive (See Section 5.2.1 for more details). Most of them started the discussions by expressing their feeling of hatred for learning English as illustrated below.

'I don't like English. I don't like to learn it at all. It's very complicated and too difficult to understand. ...also it's not my mother tongue, even though I have made an effort, it's difficult to do well. ...when I was in the class, I felt lost. I'm not confident to learn and I'm scared.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'When I was in school, I didn't know what I was doing in an English class. At that time, I really hated learning English. I didn't know why I had to learn. I felt like I had learned nothing and I didn't like learning English at all.' (Intervention - Week 4)

The participants stated explicitly that they did not like learning English and emphasised this point by sharing their previous unpleasant experiences of learning English. Most participants agreed with each other that their negative feeling for learning English had been developed since they were in school; for some, it was since they started learning English in the primary level. The data from Table 5.5-1 seemed to imply that a careful lesson plan is needed in improving the motivation to learn English of the remedial students.

As showed in Table 5.5-1, although most participants in both groups complained about their experiences of learning English (58.7%) rather than expressing their satisfaction (41.3%) in the first phase of focus groups, there was a decrease in the number of complaints in the second phase. As argued above, the decline of students' complaints might be considered as one satisfactory outcome of the teaching intervention. Nevertheless, there seemed to be factors still hindering the students' motivation. Therefore, the following sections are divided into two parts. The first part reports students' experiences of demotivation. In the second part, extrinsic and intrinsic reasons of participants for having the motivation to learn are presented, based on my interpretations of participants' comments and their reported experiences of learning English. Only significant reasons are presented along with example quotations from the two phases of students' focus groups.

5.6 Demotivation caused by experiences of failure in learning English

Two important issues which seemed to cause demotivation among the participants were (1) the lack of confidence in learning English and (2) lack of understanding and knowledge in learning English. These two factors were mentioned by most participants as factors which obstructed them from having the motivation to learn to English as presented below.

5.6.1 Lack of confidence in learning English

When discussing demotivating factors, lack of confidence was highlighted by most participants as the most significant issue for the participants to have their motivation for learning English. The results from the beginning phase of focus groups were likely to correspond well to the results from the pre-intervention questionnaire, which revealed students' high scores on the lack of confidence in learning English.

Comments from the participants revealed that the lack of confidence involved many factors and gradually developed throughout a period of time. At the beginning of the course, students in both groups frequently described themselves that they were stupid like a buffalo when they talked about their learning ability or performance in English. In the Thai context, a water buffalo (or *kwai* in Thai) is a metaphor used to describe a person who is 'less educated, stupid, or difficult to train' (Phataranawik, 2013: para 1). Based on the fact that they were placed in the University Remedial English course, students also expressed the feeling of inferior that they were in the less-able group and concern of not being able to meet with the increasing demand of English in the future. Most participants pointed out a wide range of difficulties and failure in learning English in school as major causes for these issues in learning English. However, the most frequently mentioned topic seemed to be the use of English as a main medium of instruction in the mixed ability class. Moreover, another issue, which seems to be closely connected with the lack of confidence, is anxiety and fear of learning English. As the participants had just started tertiary education, feelings of anxiety and fear when learning in the class were reported by the majority participants in the first phase of the focus groups. For example:

'I'm scared of learning English. I'm scared of making mistakes or saying something wrong in English, and then, other people will look at me. Even though the teacher really encourages us to speak English in the class, I feel strange when the other people are staring at me. They think I want to show off.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'Before this, I think studying in the university may be ok. But after the semester starts, I think it's difficult to get settled.' (Non-intervention - Week 4)

'When I was in high school, I believe my English is good. But now I'm in the university, it's the new environment. Compared with others, I feel I'm not good anymore. When I'm in the class, I'm lost. ..I don't know what's going on.' (Non-intervention - Week 4)

For most participants, they felt that it was difficult to follow and concentrate on what the teacher talked to them in English, not to mention the textbook, which was also in English. For example:

'..even with other subjects, in which the content is in Thai, I can't make it. So I have no hope with English.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'What scares me most is the textbook in English. I have never learned with an English textbook before. ..This is very stressful.' (Intervention - Week 4)

Comments from the participants shed light on the experiences of the first year university students; how they felt and coped with their fear of learning in the new environment. As the participants were the first year students who had just started their life at the university, the lack of confidence not only involved their English ability or confidence to learn in the class, but also confidence in adjusting themselves to life both inside and outside the class. In the first phase of focus groups, the participants expressed their frustration and anger while talking about these issues. Most of them agreed with each other that they never or rarely received adequate learning support from the English teacher in school. As a result, they admitted that they neither had expectation nor motivation for learning or engaging in the English class. For example:

'..I need to be told what I have to do. When the teacher gave me the assignment, which I didn't know how to do, I felt lost and I didn't want to learn. I also felt the class was boring because I couldn't participate. I wanted the teacher to tell me what to do and teach me how to do it. When I could learn, I would feel very happy and I want to learn.' (Intervention - Week 4)

Moreover, it seemed the lack of confidence not only prevented some participants from fully engaging in the session, but also made some more aggressive. As mentioned earlier at the beginning of Section 5.4, while some participants seemed to avoid talking about their feelings, some suddenly changed to discuss other issues such as expressing their frustration, or complaining about the university placement system which failed to place students with the same ability in the same class, or about the lack of fairness in the country's educational system. For example:

'..My teachers at school used to say that our school graduates are not competent when it comes to the language. Although we study in the remedial level, we're from different background.' (Non-intervention - Week 4)

‘..I think the university fails to standardise the way they place us in each class. And, we all know the scores we made in the university entrance exam are sometimes by chance. Standards of each school are also different. The educational system needs to be improved.’
(Non-intervention - Week 4)

5.6.2 Lack of understanding and knowledge in learning English

Another important issue is the lack of understanding and knowledge. Most participants seemed to point out their confusion and lack of understanding in learning English as a common reason hindering them from having the motivation to learn English. For example:

‘When I was in school, ..I didn’t know what I was doing in an English class or what I was taught. At that time, I really hated learning English. I didn’t know why I had to learn English. I felt like I had learned nothing and I didn’t like learning English at all.’ (Intervention - Week 4)

‘I don’t know what I was doing in an English class. It’s my duty to learn English, but I don’t feel I gain anything from the class. It’s boring, I feel lazy to continue and I want to do other activities such as going out with friends or playing football outside.’ (Non-Intervention -- Week 4)

In the first phase of focus groups, the complicated grammar rules and structures seemed to be the most problematic issues causing confusion among the participants. The participants expressed their frustration with having to learn and memorise the complicated and confusing grammar rules. For most of them, the complicated grammar rules not only obstructed them from gaining full understanding when learning in the class, but also from having the motivation to learn English. For example:

‘I don’t like learning English because I don’t know grammar. There are many rules and structures, which are complicated and difficult to understand. The more I learn, the more confused I get.’ (Intervention - Week 4)

‘Difficulties in learning English are from grammar lessons . ..I don’t like English because of its grammar. When learning grammar, there are rules like verbs and tenses. I don’t know what to do with it.’ (Intervention - Week 4)

The participants not only complained about the complicated aspects of the grammar, but some also expressed their frustration when they had to deal with the grammar exercises and tests. For example:

'...I don't like grammar exercises, I don't like to do sit and finish them in the class. It's complicated. I feel like I'm lost.' (Intervention - Week 4)

Some students also stressed this point as having a great effect on their attitudes and motivation mentioning error identification, one part of the grammar test, as the most difficult and confusing part. For example:

'Grammar makes learning English less fun. I don't like the grammar test. I don't think the test can tell anything about our English skills. But what I don't like most is the error identification part, I don't like it at all. I can't do the test. I don't understand. ...When different grammar points are mixed, I'm confused and I don't like it.' (Non-intervention - Week 4)

In addition to the complicated grammar rules, the participants believed that they need additional skills, such as the translation skill, to gain understanding and to do well in learning English. When they talked about learning English, one common reason for the difficulties was that they had to translate back and forth, from English to Thai or Thai to English, which made learning English more difficult. Based on their comments, it seems that the grammar translation method has deeply rooted and influenced the way Thai students learn English. Moreover, that reflects in the way they try to understand the content of English by translating sentences by sentences from English into Thai. For example:

'My problem is when I hear something in English, I have to translate it into Thai. I want to understand what I hear, but I can't.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'When the teacher says something in English, I know only some words. Sometimes I'm trying to translating what the teacher says into Thai, and then, there's always another new word. I'm not ready to learn in English.' (Intervention - Week 4)

From the points mentioned above, lack of understanding and knowledge of how to learn English resulted in their negative reactions against learning English. For example, the fact that English was not their first language was mentioned as a reason why they did not like to learn or do well. Many participants also compared English with Thai, their first language, which they felt easier. Most of them viewed the linguistic differences between English and Thai as a barrier that made learning English more difficult. For example:

'... English isn't my mother tongue. It's not the language I use since I was born so I'm not familiar with it and I don't like learning it.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'..I know what I want to say in Thai, but I can't in English. It's difficult. English is more difficult, especially its grammar rules. When I use English, I'm not sure if I use the correct structures, verbs and tenses.' (Intervention - Week 4)

Participants whose major subjects were in the area of science and technology tended to compare learning English with learning maths and physics. They agreed with their peers that the level of difficulty when learning maths or physics was gradually developed from the easy points to the more difficult points, and it was easier to get the exact answer or conclusion when dealing with tasks in physics or maths. For example:

'If it's other subjects like maths or physics, it always starts from basic levels of like adding or subtracting small amounts of numbers, then gradually move to more difficult levels. These subjects are not too complicated to learn to understand.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'Learning maths is much easier. [Laughing]. Tackling maths problems is much easier. We learn maths since we were young and the instruction was in Thai.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'Learning English is different from other subjects, it's very difficult. It isn't like learning maths. When you deal with the maths problems, you only calculate and you get the results.' (Intervention - Week 4)

However, when dealing with the English tasks, there were many grammar rules and structures involved. For some participants, it was difficult because the rules and structures they had learned could not be linked. For example:

'..for English, I start from learning the alphabets, a, b, c, d. And then, I'm lost. I don't know what to do with what I have learned. Also, what I have been taught in school cannot be linked together.' (Intervention - Week 4)

Based on the participants' comments, another point which could reflect the reality in the Thai EFL setting is exam dominance. Due to the time constraints, most teachers tend to go through the course content stated in the syllabus, to cover the midterm and final exam, without taking their students' background knowledge into account. So the teachers not only forgot to look at the students' real needs and interests, but also ignored the core objectives emphasised in both the institutional and country's educational policies on students centred, involvement and participation. From the points illustrated above, we can see that these negative factors were closely connected. Moreover, these issues seem to imply the lack of basic motivational conditions in the Thai EFL context, such as teacher's appropriate behaviours, a good relationship between teacher and students and supportive classroom atmosphere (as suggested by Dörnyei, 2001b), which the teacher

needs to take into consideration when planning and designing the course for remedial students (See Section 7.3.3).

5.7 Extrinsic and intrinsic reasons for having the motivation to learn English

This part draws on self-determination theory (SDT) to investigate the motivation for learning English of students in the university remedial English course. Looking at the motivation of Thai students to learn English using the SDT framework provides new insights into, for instance, what types of motivations existed among Asian EFL students such as Thais under influences of some specific factors and how the learning context can influence the motivation of Thai students to learn English. It also addresses more directly how satisfying learners' three basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence and relatedness) can promote the internalisation of extrinsic reasons for learning English and the development of intrinsic motivation, and so stresses the importance of a supportive learning environment. There are different types of self-determined forms of motivation found among the participants. As shown below, Thai students are influenced by some global and specific contextual and cultural values and that their motivation to learn English could be shaped by these factors. These factors are closely linked to each other and, I shall argue in the next chapters, need to be considered when planning the lessons for the remedial students.

5.7.1 Pressure to meet increasing demands for English

One of common reasons to learn English of Thais was potential benefits of learning English. In both phases of focus groups, most participants viewed English as a requirement for both academic and career advancement (See Table 5.5-1). The participants discussed the need to know English for both academic and social life at the university. Some of them mentioned the lecture handouts and textbooks, which were in English, while some expressed the desire to communicate with the exchange students from abroad at their faculty. For example:

'I need English for my study at the university. My major subject requires knowledge and background in English. The textbooks in my area are also in English. Although I don't understand the subject that much, I start to feel I like to learn English and I enjoy learning it.'
(Intervention - Week 4)

Most participants seemed to become aware that knowing English is beneficial, especially for their future. Most of them pointed out an opportunity to get a job in the future as a common reason for having the motivation to learn English. They also emphasised that there was no point in denying this fact and they had to learn English, no matter how they felt. For example:

'..English is important and I need it for the future. Anyone who knows English has better opportunity to get a job. Although I don't like English, I need to learn.' (Non-Intervention - Week 4)

From what is mentioned above, there was another related issue that emerged. During the two phases of focus groups, many participants talked about the ASEAN Economic Community plan or AEC, which will be effective in the year 2015, for the free-flow goods, services, investments, capital and skilled labour among the 10 member countries: Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Thailand, Philippines, Singapore and Vietnam. Although 16.0% of the total comments from both groups showed their frustration with the increasing demand for English knowledge (See Table 5.5-1), especially when discussing about the AEC, they agreed with each other that the coming AEC plan was an important factor, which currently motivated them to learn English. For example:

'When we graduate in the year 2015, 10 ASEAN countries will be united. And English will become a must.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'In 2015, we definitely need English as there will be more labours from other neighbouring countries coming to Thailand. Then, it will be more competitive and that's when English is a must.' (Intervention - Week 4)

While discussing the increasing demand for English knowledge, most participants expressed their concerns about their lack of English proficiency, since they soon would graduate and needed to find a job or further their Masters degree. They also emphasised the need to improve their English, no matter whether they liked or disliked learning it. As mentioned earlier, the concerns about their lack of English proficiency currently seemed to be an important issue among Thais. With the concerns about their future career, most participants relied on the university English course to help them improve their English. Some of them also expressed their disappointment when they found that the university English course failed to meet their needs for the future. For example:

'I feel a bit disappointed with the class. I wish I could be able to use English to communicate or learn more from the class, but no.. The teachers always speak to us in Thai, they use some English, but not much.' (Non-intervention - Week 16)

For remedial students, the pressure to meet increasing demands for English in the current globalising era was unquestionably an important issue. For some participants, this also developed the feeling of anxiety and fear that they might not be able to meet the demands for English in the labour market. As presented earlier, participants from both groups expressed the need for learning support from the teacher in order to gain understanding and improve their skills as well as confidence in learning English. That was resulted in an increase in percentage of students' satisfaction in their comments at the end of the course as they reported on the perceived progress in learning English. However, satisfying students' needs and its influence on students' motivational development will be another issue which will be discussed later in the following sections.

5.7.2 Pressure/ influences from people in learners' social context

The participants' attitudes about the values of English seemed to be influenced by other people around them such as parents, family members, teachers and friends. Most participants from both groups mentioned their family as putting more pressure upon them to learn English. For example:

'My parents often compare me with my older sister. She is very good at learning English. She graduated from an International school and she is now studying in an International program at the university. My parents always asked why I cannot do it as well as my sister can.' (Non-intervention - Week 4)

For some participants, one reason for learning English was to please their parents and gain recognition from the family. Some participants were told by parents to get good grades in learning English, while some were compared with their siblings who were good at learning English and that made them felt pressured to be as proficient as their siblings. The participants' comments also reflect social influences which have shaped their perceptions towards the need for English and the role of English in Thailand. As mentioned by previous studies in the Thai context, it seems that the value of knowing English in the Thai context is very limited. Some participants know that they need to learn English, but they still doubted that it was really necessity in the Thai context, while for some, knowing English knowledge differentiates educated from non-educated people.

'Knowing English is like, people who are educated and non-educated. If English is an official language used in Thailand, what about others who cannot even read and write.' (Non-intervention - Week 16)

'Most Thais normally cannot speak English. But we don't need English that much, compared with Thai. Actually English isn't that widely used, not as they said in media. We're not like other countries where they were previously colonised that they must speak, must use English. Here, it is necessary for only people who need English and they use it to communicate at work.' (Non-intervention - Week 16)

Having foreign exchange students studying with them was apparently another influential reason for having the motivation to learn English. Some participants claimed that they already started to do this on their own because they wanted to communicate more effectively with the exchange students. For example:

'At my faculty, there're exchange students from USA. I want to communicate with them. Learning English will help me gain more confidence to start the conversation and talk with them. It's fun since we need to think and organise the words in English to communicate.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'I've tried to speak English with the exchange students at my faculty, but I couldn't communicate as much as I wanted. So I started practising my English by listening to the songs. Sometimes I sing, although with the wrong lyrics.' (Non-intervention - Week 4)

At the beginning of the course, there were some participants who expressed the need for English to understand the textbooks, handouts and lectures of other subjects and to communicate with foreign teachers and exchange students at the university. While experiences of English of some participants were limited to the classroom, some were influenced by experience of English used in media and social network. This was similar to Indonesian EFL students in Lamb's (2004) study who were motivated to learn English by media and the Internet. Some participants reported that they were influenced by media and social networks such as Facebook. For example:

'One reason that I want to be good at English is when I saw others use English on Facebook or BB. That looks great. I want to be fluent in English and that I can use English to communicate that way. That's very smart and cool. They look knowledgeable. I wish I can do that, but I can't. I use only English alphabets, more like karaoke, or mix between Thai and English. No grammar concern.' (Intervention - Week 4)

Some participants also gave examples of other people who are good at English as one factor for having the motivation to learn to improve their English. For example:

'I need inspiration. It's like.. when I see someone who is good at speaking English or is able to communicate with foreigners in English, I wish I could be as smart as them. That's my motivation. I like a smart person like that, they look great and brilliant. I want to be able to communicate (in English).' (Non-intervention - Week 16)

'I like pressure. [Laughing]. It's such as when I see other people speaking English, I will ask myself why I can't. If they can do it, I can do it. Then, I will try harder.' (Non-intervention - Week 16)

5.7.3 Influences from caring personality and teaching styles of the teacher

The personality and teaching style of the teacher is another reason given by the participants in both groups for having the motivation to learn English. Evidence from this study clearly demonstrates that the teacher can be either a student's enemy or friend depending on the teacher's behaviours, teaching styles and their relationship with students. As most participants were very concerned with their lack of English proficiency, the way the teacher had taught and treated them in the class seemed to affect their attitude and motivation. The participants' comments strongly suggested that their negative attitude and low motivation for learning English was influenced by bad experiences with English teachers in school. Their reported experiences showed that they suffered from many types of teacher behaviour, for example, humiliating or embarrassing them in front of their peers, punishing them by giving lots of homework and quiz, emphasising their lack of proficiency, or using threatening language. For example:

'My teacher in school was very strict and always blamed us for our incompetency. She gave a lot of tests, but if we couldn't pass, she would blame us and walk out of the class. We had to beg her to come back to the class and teach. I prefer a class, which is relaxed and the teacher is not too strict or expects a lot from us. We don't want to feel pressured, we need some entertainment. (Intervention - Week 4)

'My friends told me that they didn't want to attend the class because the teacher often said they were stupid. ..like in the class of [Faculty], when my friends were entering the class, the teacher told them to withdraw because their midterm scores was much lower from the mean. Even when they said they didn't want to give up and they only wanted to get 'D' to pass the course, the teacher kept telling them to withdrawn. Being stupid is not their fault, the teacher should not emphasise their incompetency,' (Intervention - Week 16)

Most of them remembered how the teacher treated them in the class. This evidence illustrates clearly why remedial students tended to behave negatively in an English class, for instance, coming to the class late, sleeping in the class, copying friends' homework, and trying to stay away from the teacher even when they had a problem. In contrast, the participants expressed their appreciation of the English teacher who was approachable,

flexible, cared about students' lack of proficiency, open-minded, patient, showed willingness to help, and committed himself/ herself to students' learning development. In the first phase of the focus groups, 11.9% of the total comments from both groups clearly considered the caring personality and teaching style of their teacher as a major factor behind their positive attitude and motivation for learning English. They mostly agreed that caring teachers are kind, open-minded, patient, treat students well and are comfortable to approach when having problems. For example:

'My English teacher is very kind and teaches me simple techniques, which help me gain more understandings. I'm not scared of her. When having problems, I'm comfortable to ask her.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'..when I was in school, my teachers helped review my English from the start. Then, I felt the class was fun. I had gained more knowledge, understanding and I felt more interested to learn.' (Non-intervention - Week 4)

Based on the data, I also found that my own personality and teaching style seemed to be one factor which motivated the students to come to the class. The intervention group mentioned that they wanted to participate in the class when I;

- had a small social chat with them,
- remembered their personal details (their faculty, nickname, hometown),
- showed sympathy, listened and responded promptly to their needs (helping them adjust to the university life or getting to know their classmates),
- gave them freedom to select the date for a quiz and presentation or leave the class early on the university activities weeks,
- monitored their progress closely,
- provided an opportunity for collaborative activities, an assignment appropriate to their level or extra materials or preparation for the exam.

As said by the participants:

'It depends on the teacher, if it's the teacher who is kind like [the teacher], I don't feel pressured and I prefer to come to the class. [The teacher] knows that a teenager like us needs to have some fun. [The teacher] is very understanding and I feel [the teacher's] class is enjoyable.' (Intervention - Week 16)

'Each teacher has their own teaching style. I've already changed the class twice during since the beginning of the semester because I was in the classes where only English is allowed. But when I moved to this class, [the teacher] allow us to use some Thai, I felt better learning English with the mix between Thai and English. [Laughing].' (Intervention - Week 16)

'I like that [the teacher] uses examples from everyday life to give us clearer pictures and

more understanding. Sometimes [the teacher] uses the characters from Harry Potter like Dolores Umbridge when teaching us the vocabulary. This is really fun and helps us memorise the words such as cruel or brutal easily.' (Intervention - Week 16)

Most participants also considered the teachers who were able to match teaching methods to students' needs, and prepared a variety of class activities, to be a caring teacher. For most participants, they viewed an English class which is easy to follow as important, and they expected the teacher to prioritise their needs and prepare the class by providing a wide range of class activities to support their learning. The participants considered that the class activities not only improved their understanding, knowledge and skills, but also developed their relationship with the teacher and classmates. For example:

'..Although my teacher is very strict, learning English is fun. My English teacher prepares her lessons very well. This makes the class easy to follow. I feel I want to learn more. I like her teaching style and I enjoy her class.' (Non-intervention - Week 4)

'I like learning from watching video clips. I learn how to speak English with rising and falling intonation. ..I like learning English this way rather than reading or translating sentence by sentence from the textbook, which is really boring. ..I like that I can continue to learn on my own on the topic that I feel interested. I feel very active and I want to learn more.'
(Intervention - Week 16)

The caring teacher also needs to be flexible. In the second phase of the focus groups, the participants mentioned the flexibility and freedom they were allowed to have in the class as factors for an increase in their learning satisfaction and motivation. While discussing this, the participants also criticised the teacher of other English classes and pointed them out as an unpleasant example. For example:

'In other classes, the teacher is very strict. ..I think the teacher has a lot of impacts. If the teacher is flexible, we are relaxed and we want to learn.' (Intervention - Week 4)

'I like that we have freedom in our class and I learn to respect other people's opinions. I think I'm luck to study with [the teacher]. [The teacher]'s so kind and I feel comfortable to study in [the teacher's] class. ..In our class, we can do what we want so we participate with confidence. Now I start to feel worried who I'm going to study with next semester.'
(Intervention - Week 4)

From the above examples, the remedial students really need special attention and there seems to be many factors needed to take into consideration when planning and designing the lesson for them. The teacher not only has to carefully consider and select appropriate activities to support the students' learning development, but also needs to become aware of their own personality and teaching style.

5.7.4 Influences from supportive network inside and outside the class

A supportive learning atmosphere was the most frequently mentioned reason in both phases of focus groups as the factor for students' learning satisfaction and for having positive attitudes and motivation to learn English (See Table 5.5-1). For most participants, a supportive learning atmosphere included the feeling that they received proper learning support from the teacher and had a good relationship with the teacher and classmates. Besides, comments from most participants strongly suggested that satisfying the students' sense of belonging in their social community was the most essential element for the remedial students.

As unsuccessful English language learners, the participants shared similar learning experiences. For most of them, the teacher seemed to be influential at the beginning. From Table 5.5-1, 11.9% of total comments from both groups reported at the beginning of the course that the teacher was the most important factor for having the motivation to learn English, while 21.5% of total comments from both groups confirmed that unpleasant experiences of learning English, such as failing the test or having no learning progress, primarily resulted from the teacher who did not provide adequate learning supports. The participants' comments also reflect real situations in the Thai classroom context where the teacher tends to dominate the class and lacks of knowledge of alternative ways of managing the class. This problematic issue is actually due to the strong influence of the Thai cultural belief that gives absolute power to the teacher in the class. For these participants, the lack of learning support from the teacher did not only develop their fear of learning English, but also diminished their confidence and motivation to learn in the class as illustrated below.

'..What the teacher taught in the class was always confusing. Since I was in the primary school, the teachers always wrote examples of English words and sentences on the board for us to copy, but they never explained anything. I tried to study harder to comprehend the lessons on my own, but it's getting worse. I always fail the tests and I never feel I want to learn English.' (Intervention - Week 4)

In the second phase of focus groups, 25.3% of the total comments from the intervention group still highlighted the support they received from both the teacher and friends as helping them overcome the stress and fear of learning English in the class (See Table 5.5-1).

'My teacher is friendly. She's made me feel that an English teacher is not as scary as I previously thought.' (Intervention - Week 16)

Nevertheless, at the second phase, the classmates were mentioned as being as important as the teacher. More of the students mentioned advantages of studying with friends as they could help each other to learn.

'When I study with friends, they always point out or highlight something I never think about. But what's more important is that they still study very hard although their midterm scores are very low. They give me some thoughts that even though they get lower scores than me, they still fight, so why I won't. [Laughing].' (Intervention - Week 16)

Compared with the teacher, most participants seemed to agree with each other that the bond between them and their classmates gave them more courage and confidence for learning English. For example:

'Now my attitude gets better. It's because I've friends. ..My classmates, especially those who always sit next to me, help me a lot. I think they have a lot influence. They always help me. When I can't do my homework, they will explain how to do it. I like studying with them ..' (Intervention - Week 16)

'Learning English with friends is good. [Laughing]. ..If I have friends, I'm ok to learn because my first priority is to find some friends who I can talk with. Although I don't like to learn English, but if my friends like it, I will. If I don't have friends, I will be scared and have no interest to do anything. But if I have friends, I have someone to help when I'm lost. We can help each other and it's better than being alone.' (Intervention - Week 16)

For the participants, the good relationship and supportive network between them and their classmates were the reasons they decided not to withdraw but remain until the end of the course. This point was frequently highlighted by the participants, who almost withdrew from the course because their midterm scores were below the average of 50 from the total 100 as can be seen below.

'I'm always scared when I have to learn English. And it became worse when I got my midterm results. Ohhh... That's when I felt I don't want to attend the class at all. However, I had [the teacher and friends] who always encourage me. [They] told me to fight, study harder and they would help me. ..Now I'm feeling better, much...h better. I think I'm ready for the next semester. I'm not scared of learning English or communicating with the teacher in English, not anymore.' (Intervention - Week 16)

From the above examples, it seems to be necessary for the teacher to create and maintain the supportive network, not only inside the class, but also outside the class to sustain students' motivation to learn English in the long run. Most participants revealed that they did not like to be a centre of attention and were not confident enough to initiate

or perform the task alone, especially when they had to do an activity in front of the class. Nevertheless, they were more confident and enjoyed participating in the activities that allowed them to work together with friends. During the beginning weeks of the course, most of them said that they felt awkward to perform or engage in some particular front class activities, as they were not familiar with the classmates from different faculties. Some even expressed their anxiety about the way their classmates looked at them when they volunteered to do the task or talked to the teacher. However, at the end of the course none of the participants complained about the peer pressure. Most of them pointed out a variety of class activities, for example, group work and project work, as helping them build up the network, in which they could get to know each other and continue to help each other to learn independently outside the class. For example:

'I like group competitions. The activities make me active and learn better. When working in groups, I also feel the class is ended very quickly. There is no pressure in the class as we know each other quite well, this makes me feel more interested to learn.' (Intervention - Week 16)

'I like the group activities. They're very good and fun. ...especially at the beginning of the class. The activities make us know and familiar with each other. Uhmm. I like it. [Laughing]. I know my classmates from other faculties such as Forestry, Engineering, we talk and help each other.' (Intervention - Week 16)

The implication is that the teacher has an important role in scaffolding students' learning development. The student participants are university students who need to learn to grow up on their own. Moreover, with the average number of around 45 – 50 students in the class, it is impossible for the teacher to monitor them at all time. Although the students still express their need for learning support, the teacher has to find an effective way, not only to help students in building their own support network to help each other to learn both inside and outside the class, but also to alleviate their teaching workload and responsibility in the class. As a result, the students will be more confident and ready for moving on to the higher level of education and for pursuing their future career. This issue will be discussed further in the discussion and conclusion chapter.

5.8 Discussions of results from focus groups

This section investigates how learning context can influence the motivation of Thai students to learn English. As presented earlier, the data from focus groups provides more evidence that satisfying learners' three basic psychological needs are factors

essential to the internalisation of extrinsic reasons for learning English and the development of intrinsic motivation. SDT theorists such as Reeve (2002) and Deci & Ryan (2001) propose that a supportive learning environment needs to address three fundamental psychological needs for; autonomy, competence and relatedness. This part hopes to bring new insights into the essences of supporting students' basic psychological needs and providing basic motivational conditions to improve students' motivation and their learning behaviour.

5.8.1 Students' needs satisfaction and their motivational development

First of all, it is necessary to note that all of the student participants either from the intervention or non-intervention groups volunteered themselves to take part in the two phases of focus groups. Consequently, when interpreting the focus groups data, caution is needed because most of the evidence presented in this chapter was collected from small groups of participants who were relatively motivated and had positive attitudes towards learning English. It is also possible to say that they might not qualify as a typical student in the remedial group. However, while the questionnaire data indicates that their motivation changed positively during the course, the qualitative data revealed that most of them entered the class with a long history of negative experiences of English-learning, likely to be shared with their peers, as already illustrated throughout this chapter.

Differences in attitude and motivation between students in the intervention and non-intervention groups seemed to be revealed in the second phase of the focus groups (See Table 5.5-1). This chapter shows how supporting students' needs could have helped increase the motivation to learn English of the participants during the four months of the course. For the intervention group, the participants seemed to be motivated by the perceived progress in learning English. The participants agreed with each other that they currently had positive feeling for learning English. Most of them considered supportive learning atmosphere in the class and the current demand for English as a reason to have the motivation to learn. The participants seemed to agree with each other about the increasing pressure from the current demand for English proficiency. For example:

'I like to motivate myself to read classified ads on a notice board of the fourth year students. Some ads require high TOEIC scores or good communicative skills in English. Therefore, I'm preparing myself to be a qualified candidate during four years of my university life. Also, when I graduate in the year 2015, there will be an issue of the AEC plan (ASEAN Economic

Community), the Thai labour market will be more competitive. The high demand of English knowledge actually put me in the hot seat. If my English is not good, I will be in trouble. ' (Intervention - Week 16)

However, although the reason behind their motivation to learn English was still an opportunity to get a job in the future, they believed that they could foresee more benefits from learning English, which they could receive in the future. In addition to the future plan, most participants reported that they currently felt happier with learning English as it was easier than in the past, it was not as scary as they had expected and could be done on their own. They talked more about the need to know English for both academic and social life at the university. Some of them mentioned the lecture handouts and textbooks, which were in English, while some expressed the desire to communicate with the exchange students from abroad at their faculty. The participants clearly indicated that learning English was now their own choice. Most of them clearly showed that they had developed their own learning strategies during the intervention. They were more confident to learn and knew how to approach the teacher and friends for learning supports. They started to talk about their learning preferences and progress, as well as criticising their classmates and the teachers of other classes. For example:

'I don't take any extra English course. I believe I can improve it on my own if I learn with understanding. I need to learn with understanding, then, when I understand, I will enjoy it. It's automatically. When I can start, the next step is easier. At this moment, when I get stuck at any point, I will ask the teacher, classmates or senior friends. When I have free time, I also learn English from Internet.' (Intervention - Week 16)

Some of them claimed that they currently formed a self-study group and worked with each other outside the class using available resources such as the language learning software or other digital resources e.g. cartoons and films in English as recommended by the teacher and staff at the university library and Self Access Language Learning Centre. While for some, they found a free English course at the university and Baptist foundation and were currently attending the courses. Some of them aimed to keep to this learning routine and continue to learn to achieve the higher level of English proficiency. Some also claimed that they had started a plan to improve English and had their own ways to achieve it as illustrated below.

'Learning English, I could do it on my own. ...It's not too difficult to start and you could learn from everything in everyday life. For me, I like playing games, like Pokemon. Do you know it? Most of the time, I choose to join only the International servers and I try to chat with western players.' (Intervention - Week 16)

'I have some friends who study in an International program. We always practise English together. While walking to the bus stop or waiting for the bus, we talk to each other in English. When we are stuck in finding English words to communicate, we use both Thai and English. Sometimes we watch movies and cartoons in English together. On Youtube, some movies and cartoons have no subtitles and that's our advantage.' (Intervention - Week 16)

The intervention group expressed more contentment about the positive change in the attitude and motivation for learning English and the intention to improve their English, while the non-intervention group expressed the desire to be fluent in English, but they did not mention any possible method of achieving that. As they did in the first phase of focus groups, most participants from the non-intervention group still talked about the boredom, fear and disappointment with their English class. For example:

'Until now, I haven't found any course that I enjoy learning. They are all boring subjects. It doesn't matter that it's Thai or English.' (Non-Intervention - Week 16)

The participants also agreed with their peers that the current demand for English was the most influential factor for having the motivation to learn. However, most of them seemed to express the lack of freedom that learning English is not their own choice. For example:

'English has become necessary to our life these days. It's the language we use to communicate with the world. It's hard to say. I learn English for my future. I have to like it anyway, right?' (Non-Intervention - Week 16)

'Although I don't like to learn English, I need to like it anyway. ..because of its necessity. ..and, of course, because of the AEC (ASEAN Economic Community) plan in the near future.' (Non-Intervention - Week 16)

Although this revealed the lack of motivation for learning English among participants in the non-intervention group, there were only four participants representing this group. For most participants, it seemed learning English was getting more frustrating and boring at the university level because, no matter if they liked the subject or not, it was necessary to learn English for their future. Comments of the non-intervention group also implied the important role of the teacher. There were participants who not only seemed to lack motivation for learning English, but also for other subjects. While one of their peers expressed the need for support, these participants only changed to another topic and expressed their negative feelings for learning. For example:

'The teacher actually has an important role, but it's hard to find the teacher who isn't boring. If they don't talk too much, it's ok. But most of them tend to make the class too academic, like focusing on the theories or textbooks and no application to the real life. When the class

is boring, only a few people attend. I don't want to attend the class with a few people. I don't want to learn.' (Non-Intervention - Week 16)

Comments received from the non-intervention group seemed to make the motivation between the groups differ significantly. The fact that I was not their teacher could make them reveal what they actually thought. Although the participants' comments seemed to be very critical, it could not be denied the presence of boring classes they had experienced at the university.

5.9 Summary

In this chapter, results from focus groups provide more evidence concerning the effectiveness of the teaching intervention, with implications for what the teacher needs to consider when planning and designing the lesson plan for the remedial students. The results obtained from focus groups seemed to complement those of the questionnaire and lead to a similar conclusion. On one hand, the participants' reported experiences and comments reflect the reality in the Thai educational settings where the teacher still dominates the class and the students still suffer the effects of teachers' behaviours. On the other hand, this implies the lack of basic motivational conditions in the Thai EFL context. In this chapter, there is evidence to believe that basic motivational conditions and students' sense of belonging in the class are needed to be taken into account for teaching the remedial students. This study shows that careful planning and selection of the research methodology is needed when doing research on the groups of remedial students. In addition, this study has proved that there is an advantage in using focus groups to explore the learning motivation of participants and the spoken form of data received from using focus groups could provide richer information, compared with the written form of data received from a questionnaire or feedback sheet. In the next chapter, more evidence of the effect of the teaching intervention is presented.

Chapter 6 : Qualitative data analysis (2): Teaching Intervention and students' feedback

6.1 Introduction

At this stage, we can see some links between the quantitative data and the qualitative data presented in the previous chapters. While results from the quantitative data analysis indicate significant differences between the motivation for learning English of the intervention and non-intervention groups, results from the qualitative data analysis further support the argument that differences between the two groups were caused by different factors. Moreover, there were some close links between factors that influence the changes in students' motivation, their learning behaviours and some specific elements of the classroom teaching practices, which could provide convincing evidence of the effectiveness of the teaching intervention.

This part addresses the third research question, which attempts to identify the aspects of teaching practices which contributed to an increase in students' motivation for learning English during the course. The first section addresses the design and implementation of classroom teaching practices of the course during 14 weeks. The second section presents results received from students' feedback of both intervention and non-intervention groups. Data collected from the students' feedback sheets were examined to identify additional issues such as students' attitudes and perceptions, factors affecting levels of students' satisfaction, and differences between the intervention and non-intervention groups.

6.2 Design of teaching intervention: outline, content, implementation and examples of class activities

From Table 6.2-4 below, the design of the teaching intervention was planned as a series of classroom activities, which were integrated into the course schedule as supplementary activities. In this section, examples of class activities are presented to show how this study applied the SDT concept of needs supportive teaching practices to improve the motivation to learn English of students in the university remedial English course. As an 'environment can be intentionally constructed in a manner that can increase or decrease [learners'] chances of enjoying an activity' (Jones et al., 2009: 174), the SDT concept of

needs is central to this study in order to guide the design and implementation of teaching practices and to evaluate an ability of the teacher to monitor and respond to students' needs as well as effectiveness of designed classroom activities in increasing students' motivation for learning English.

As mentioned earlier, to maintain the two-way communication between the teacher and students in the class, students' feedback received at the end of the month was taken as the primary consideration (See Section 6.3 for students' feedback and their preferences for class activities). From Table 6.2-4, once the students' feedback was received, it was taken into the teaching plan and class activities in the following week of teaching schedule. The activities were designed to address the students' comments and support their needs throughout the course, for example, the need to get to know their classmates, opportunities to practise communicative skills, activities outside the textbook and exam preparation, based on the SDT concept of three basic psychological needs and Dörnyei's (2001a) basic motivational conditions. Some activities planned in this study were also applied from Harmer (2009) to support learners' individual difference in the large class as presented below. As presented in Table 6.2-4 below, after the midterm week, students also had opportunities to share ideas and select the class activity. The group of students that received the highest vote will be selected and that group will lead the class activities. Examples of student led activities are presented in Section 6.3.

Week	In-class and feedback activities	Examples of in-class activities	Examples of students' feedback/ comments for the class
Phase I: Pre-intervention (June 2011)			
Week 1-2: 20 Jun - 2 Jul	Class orientation, Questionnaire (1), Focus groups (1)		
Phase II: Intervention (June - September 2011)			
Week 2-3: 27 Jun - 8 Jul	Ss' feedback (1) ↓ Ss' feedback (e.g. need for learning support; review of previous lesson, preparation for exam) were received and taken into a teaching plan	[W2-3] Pairs/Groups: Ice breaking/ Objectives: (1) Warm-up activities, ss are familiar with T and classmates, (2) Ss get adjusted to the new learning environment. Getting to know classmates, personal detail e.g. <i>Find sb who...</i> , <i>Bingo</i> , <i>20 Questions</i>	➔ Likes 😊 • <i>Friendly teacher & class atmosphere. I feel more confident to start conversation in English.</i> • <i>The class is fun, the teacher is kind.</i> Dislikes 😞 • <i>Focus more on grammar/ reviews/ exam preparations.</i> • <i>I don't feel like I'm learning English.</i>
Week 4-5: 11 - 22 Jul	Implementation of teaching plans, class activities based on ss' feedback (1) were provided ➔	[W4-5-6] Group of 4-5/Intro: Mini survey on English Objectives: (1) Ss gain and develop more experience and knowledge of English in various topic; (2) learn to manage their time; (3) work in groups; (4) increase the amount of English used in the class and (5) provide ss opportunities to use English. • Ss choose a topic, present and vote as the topic for the class, then, each group conduct a survey at the university (Time: 2 weeks) • Ss' choice of topics e.g. Topic 1: (Class/ Mon) <i>If I don't know English, ...</i>	➔ Likes 😊 • <i>Interesting activity keeps students more active.</i> • <i>Ss gain new knowledge, not only English but other topics necessary for life</i> Dislike 😞 • <i>Use more Thai, [the teacher]'s English is too fast.</i> • <i>Need to focus more on grammar/ exam preparations</i>

Week 6: 25 - 29 Jul	Ss' feedback (2) ↓ Ss' feedback (e.g. need to improve and practise their English) were received and taken into a teaching plan	[W4-5-6] Mini survey continued	<p>➡ Likes 😊</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I like doing a survey. I want to know findings of other groups. • I like sharing my ideas with other people. <p>Dislike ☹️</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • T is too kind so the classmates ignore their assignment. <p>Ss' don't have confidence to communicate in English.</p>
Week 7: 1 - 5 Aug	Implementation of teaching plans, based on ss' feedback (2)	<p>➡ [W7] Groups: Peer tutoring/ Covering for midterm</p> <p>Objectives: (1) Ss help each other preparing for the midterm exam; (2) give ss freedom to participate in the class and avoid what they cannot do.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ss presentation of content and topic for midterm exam 	<p>➡ Likes 😊</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easy to understand, lots exercises which help us practise and test our understanding. • Explain very well. I feel ready for the exam. <p>Dislike ☹️</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lesson is fun, but class rules & punishment is needed for annoying classmates • Ss do not have enough background to keep up with the class, I don't know what is going on.
Week 8: 8 - 12 Aug	Midterm exam		
Week 9: 15 - 19 Aug	Implementation of teaching plans, based on ss' feedback (2)	<p>➡ [W9-10] Mini survey continued</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ss' presentation of the survey findings (in English) • Ss' choice of presentation for their survey e.g. Power Point presentation, short video clip, film, TV poll report 	<p>➡ Likes 😊</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I really enjoy friends' presentation. • The class is really fun. The teacher always prepares and provides activities for us. We learn and improve our English skills. <p>Dislike ☹️</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More grammar exercises <p>More assignments that could be scored.</p>
Week 10: 22 - 26 Aug	Ss' feedback (3) ↓ Ss' feedback (e.g. need to improve and practise their English) were received and taken into a teaching plan	[W9-10] Mini survey continued	

Week 11: 29 Aug - 2 Sep	Implementation of teaching plans, based on ss' feedback (3)	[W11]G: Ss' choices of Videos and songs	Likes ☺ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lots of interesting materials with multimedia • Learn vocab from clips/ songs Dislike ☹ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Should provide e.g. fill-in-the-blank activities • Help students review the vocab list at the end of the class
Week 12-13: 5 - 16 Sep	Implementation of teaching plans, based on ss' feedback (3)	[W12]G: Ss' choices of Songs [W12-13] G: Peer tutoring/ Covering for final	Likes ☺ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concerns about students' progress. • Simple techniques to help us understand difficult grammar points e.g. tenses and vocab. Dislike ☹ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teach the exam techniques • If there are more activities, the teacher might not be able to cover all the content for the exam.
Phase III: Post-intervention (September 2011)			
Week 13-14: 12 - 23 Sep	Questionnaire (2), Focus groups (2), Ss' feedback (4)		

Table 6.2-1 Time schedule and design of teaching practices, class activities and students' comments

As the participants in this study were learners who might not be confident and experienced enough to make a decision, according to Katz & Assor (2007), offering choice to them at the beginning stage might not provide positive outcome. As choices offered in the class need to match with students' needs or interests, from Table 6.2-4, a series of learning activities set for the class were designed to provide students an experience to work with classmates, plan their learning, and select a choice in their language learning with support from the teacher. The activities were also aimed to e.g. make students adjusted to the academic and competitive atmosphere at the university and to instrumentally motivate students by offering them support for the exam. Moreover, they were aimed to motivate students to put their more effort and work collaboratively with their classmates to complete the activities set for each month.

6.2.1 Applications of the SDT concept of needs supportive teaching into practices

This section presents examples of how the SDT concept of needs supportive teaching could be applied in the real classroom context. From the SDT perspective, facilitating the three psychological fundamental needs of students could be done through collaborative activities. The learning activities would support students' need for autonomy and competence by helping students to exercise their language ability at their own pace, and have their own learning goal, while help and support provided by the teacher would develop personal relationships and a level of intimacy between the teacher and students in the class. The class activities, for instance, the students' mini survey project (See Table 6.2-4 above), not only encouraged students' interest and involvement to work on a topic being selected by them and their classmates, but also provided them an opportunity to feel competent and success to complete the activities. The activities were also designed to gradually improve students' confidence to learn, set goals and select a choice in their language learning more effectively as further illustrated below.

6.2.2 Example of class activities: Students' mini survey project (Duration: 6 weeks)

In the week 4, a student's 'mini survey project' was introduced in the class (See Table 6.2-4). The main objective of this project was for students to develop more knowledge and experience of English in various topics. To start, students chose to work in a group

with classmates whom they felt comfortable working with. They selected and voted for a topic of their interest. Then, they had two weeks to plan and conduct a survey at the university. As this was a term project, students also learned to manage their time, worked in groups and increased the amount of English used in the class either through the report writing or oral presenting of their survey results in front of the class.

This term project also provided opportunities to support students' psychological need for autonomy, competence and relatedness. To address students' need for autonomy, students selected to work on a topic that they wanted and decided how to conduct a survey with their group members within the time limit. When they presented results of the survey, they seemed to be in control of the types of the presentation selected as well as topic and information that they shared with their classmates. Issues related to students' need for competence concerned both writing up a summary of their survey as well as giving an oral presentation in English. Some students mentioned in their evaluation that the project was fun and the outcomes of the project were satisfactory (See Table 6.2-4 above). Although their presentations were not as good as they would have expected them to be, it was exciting and interesting to know findings of other groups and to share results of their survey with the class.

At the end of the project period (Week 10), there was an improvement in students' learning behaviors as well as their attitudes for learning English. Some of them became more interested to learn and to participate in class activities. Some started their plan to improve English outside the class for the remainder of the semester. There was also an increase in students' sense of belonging in their classroom community as they were more familiar with their classmates and teacher at a more personal level. When they gave their presentation, most students did not appear to feel as nervous as they were at the beginning of the course. Some also engaged their classmates' presentation by asking questions and commenting on their classmates' presentation in English. This project accomplished much more than simply lecturing students about benefits of learning English. It served to foster a sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness among students in the class. In the next section, students' responses from the feedback sheet during the 14 weeks of the course are presented.

6.3 Responses from students' feedback (Question 1 - 4)

To examine the effect of the intervention on students' satisfaction with the class, the following sections present students' responses and comments received from the

intervention and non-intervention group. The data were identified and categorised in relation to question 1 - 4 on the feedback sheets (See Section 3.8.3 for the design of students' feedback sheet). As the analysis of the data led to the generation of results, which were still overlapped, only the significant results are presented along with example quotations from the students' feedback sheets.

6.3.1 Students' satisfaction with the class: descriptive statistics (Question 1)

Simple descriptive statistical procedures (See Table 6.3-1 and Table 6.3-2 below) were performed to answer the first question, which is a closed response, asking how the student participants feel about the class. The participants were asked to rate their level of satisfaction on a scale ranged from highly dissatisfied (1) to highly satisfied (5).

Table 6.3-1 presents participants' responses to the first question at the beginning (week 4) and end of the course (week 16).

Week	Group	Levels of satisfaction	Students' responses/ percentage*
Week 4	intervention	dissatisfied	2 (2.4%)
		average	7 (8.4%)
		satisfied	42 (50.6%)
		highly satisfied	32 (38.6%)
		Total	83 (100%)
	non intervention	average	30 (13.9%)
		satisfied	161 (74.5%)
		highly satisfied	25 (11.6%)
		Total	216 (100%)
Week 16	intervention	average	2 (2.4%)
		satisfied	39 (46.4%)
		highly satisfied	43 (51.2%)
		Total	84 (100%)
			non intervention
satisfied	106 (75.2%)		
highly satisfied	22 (15.6%)		
Total	141 (100%)		

Note *Percentage gains from raw frequencies divided by number of students in the group and multiplied by 100

Table 6.3-1 Descriptive statistics: Students' satisfaction (Feedback sheet Question 1)

From Table 6.3-1, we can see that participants in both groups seemed to have positive attitudes towards their class. The participants in neither group showed any extreme dissatisfaction either at the beginning or the end of the course. Nonetheless, while the non-intervention group seemed to start the course with satisfaction, there were two participants in the intervention group who felt dissatisfied with the tight content of the

course syllabus and their lack of background knowledge to keep up with the class (2.4%). Nevertheless, the satisfaction of both groups seemed to increase from the beginning (week 4) to the end of the course (week 16) as none of the participants reported dissatisfaction. Although the two groups were likely to have positive attitudes towards the course, the independent samples t-test and paired samples t-test were carried out to examine differences between groups and within the same group as illustrated below.

Between groups							
Week	Group	N	Mean	SD	t	df	sig
Week 4	Intervention	83	4.25	.71	3.75	297	.000*
	non intervention	216	3.98	.50			
Week 16	Intervention	84	4.49	.54	5.96	223	.000*
	non intervention	141	4.06	.49			

Within groups							
Group	Week	N	Mean	SD	T	df	sig
Intervention	Week 4	83	4.25	.71	5.10	82	.000*
	Week 16	83	4.49	.54			
non intervention	Week 4	139	3.98	.53	2.70	138	.008*
	Week 16	139	4.06	.49			

*The significance level is at $p < 0.05$

Table 6.3-2 Comparison of students' satisfaction with the class*

As can be seen from Table 6.3-2, the paired samples t-test correlated with the independent samples t-test indicating an increase in the participants' satisfaction from the beginning to the end of the course. There were statistically significant increases in the levels of satisfaction for both groups ($t=5.10$, $t=2.70$; $df= 82$, $df=138$ respectively; $p<0.05$ in each case, equal variances assumed). However, the independent samples t-test showed that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups. The intervention group scored significantly higher for their satisfaction both at the beginning and the end of the course, compared with the non-intervention group ($t=3.75$, $t=5.96$; $df=297$, $df=223$ respectively; $p<0.05$ in each case, equal variances assumed). The means for the intervention group were 4.25 and 4.49 (SD = .71 and .50), while the means of the non-intervention group were 3.98 and 4.06 (SD = .54 and .49). As students' feedback sheets were collected at the end of the first month when the course had already started, we can probably assume that significant differences between groups were probably a result of the teaching practices. However, as the quantitative data analyses were limited in their ability to develop a deeper understanding of conditions influencing the participants' satisfaction, the open-ended questions were aimed to examine in-depth details from their perspectives.

6.3.2 Factors influencing students' satisfaction (Question 2)

This section addresses the second question, which is an open-response asking the reasons for participants' satisfaction with the course. It is hoped that this question would reveal some underlying factors for the participants to have positive attitudes, perceptions and motivation for learning English in the course. While the quantitative analysis indicated participants' satisfaction with the class (See Section 6.3.1), the qualitative analysis of participants' responses showed that factors affecting their satisfaction were slightly different. This indicates that applications of some classroom activities could motivate the participants to approach language learning and increase their learning satisfaction (See Table 6.3-3 below). As this study was based on the actual classroom teaching practices, although the teacher cannot create immediate intrinsic motivation in the participants, by choosing and designing activities and techniques that effectively match their interests, it is possible to say that the motivation to learn of the remedial students can be improved.

From Table 6.3-3, results received from students' feedback provides support for results from both questionnaire and focus groups that the teacher is the most important factor behind students' satisfaction. The attributes behind participants' satisfaction and dissatisfaction such as learning support received from the class and personality and teaching styles of the teacher also revealed that there was a strong link between students' satisfaction and their motivation to learn English. This seems to correspond well with the SDT concept of three psychological needs and some of those basic motivational conditions suggested by Dörnyei (2001a) as presented below. Table 6.3-3 presents in order the five categories of reasons mentioned most frequently in their feedback sheets for students' satisfaction with the class.

Rank	Categories	At the beginning of the course (week 4) (N=240, 402 comments)		At the end of the course (week 16) (N=173, 368 comments)		Descriptions, Examples and quotes
		Intervention group	Non-intervention group	Intervention group	Non-intervention group	
1	Provide learning support	77 (16.6%)	37 (8.0%)	64 (15.8%)	45 (11.1%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide scaffolding, learning support (e.g. <i>I like that she walks around the classroom to check if we have any problem when she assigns us the tasks.</i>) • Provide extra input, materials (e.g. <i>She gave lots exercises which help us practice and she always checks if we understand or not.</i>) • Help students prepare for the exams (e.g. <i>I have a chance to review before the exam. The teacher helps us prepare for it.</i>) • Promote students' confidence, independent learning (e.g. <i>The teacher helps me learn to study on my own.</i>) • Respond to individual needs (e.g. <i>If I don't understand, she will starts explaining from the beginning. This makes me gain more understanding.</i>) • Use visual aids, multimedia (e.g. <i>The teacher always use varieties of teaching materials and multimedia resources in the class.</i>)
2	Personality of a teacher	43 (9.3%)	37 (8.0%)	40 (9.9%)	44 (10.9%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A nice, kind, caring, friendly, understanding teacher (e.g. <i>When having problems, I can always ask her. She is friendly and kind.</i>) • Treat students equally (e.g. <i>The teacher always cares about students' differences. She treats students equally and cares about our feelings.</i>) • No punishment (e.g. <i>She never punishes students.</i>)
3	Demonstrate good qualities of teaching	32 (8.0%)	30 (7.5%)	52 (14.1%)	35 (9.5%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Present tasks properly, Easy to follow teaching style (e.g. <i>The way she teaches is easy to understand, the teacher explains each point very clearly.</i>) • Use simple English (e.g. <i>The teacher uses simple</i>

						<ul style="list-style-type: none"> words when explaining the content. Show enthusiasm to teach (e.g. <i>My teacher is very active. I can feel her determination to provide the good teaching.</i>) Interesting, fun lessons (e.g. <i>The class is fun. There are a lot of activities and exercises to practice.</i>)
4	Gains from the class	45 (9.7%)	30 (6.5%)	33 (8.2%)	31 (7.7%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improvement in understanding and knowledge (e.g. <i>My English skills improve. I understand more of the lessons.</i>) Skills practice, development (e.g. <i>My English skills improve. I have a chance to practice and review my English.</i>)
5	Other personal preferences	45 (9.7%)	26 (5.6%)	31 (7.7%)	28 (6.9%)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Difficult level of the course content/ textbook (e.g. <i>The textbook is too difficult. I can't study on my own.</i>) Class attendance, participation checking (e.g. <i>No Class attendance please, I feel like I am being forced to learn.</i>) Task/ assignment (e.g. <i>I don't like to do the tasks individually especially in front of the class.</i>) Learning environment, atmosphere Class size, Noisy classmates (e.g. <i>It's difficult for me to concentrate on the lesson because my classmates are too noisy and the teacher does not punish them.</i>) Inappropriate length of the class, timetable The class starts too early (e.g. <i>I wish the class could start later than this, studying English at 8 o' clock is too early!</i>) The continuity of the class (e.g. <i>Studying English only for an hour a day/ three hours a week is not enough. The length of the time for each class needs to be extended for the continuity of the teaching and learning.</i>)
Total		242 (60.2%)	160 (39.8%)	220 (59.8%)	148 (40.2%)	

Table 6.3-3 reasons for students' satisfaction with the class and typical examples of responses (Feedback sheet Question 2)*

6.3.3 Three most frequently mentioned factors for students' satisfaction

In the participants' responses, three of the five most frequently mentioned factors, given by the intervention and non-intervention teaching groups for having the motivation to learn in the class, were learning support, personality of the teacher and quality of the teaching. The two groups also differed slightly in their priorities (See Table 6.3-3). However, as mentioned earlier, the numbers of returned feedback sheets especially at the end of the course were less than the actual numbers of students attending the course (See Table 3.7-2). Some feedback sheets were also left blank or incomplete. Therefore, it is necessary to note that the data presented in this section are based on comments of participants who submitted the completed feedback sheet from the beginning (week 4) and end of the course (week 16). Besides, their comments might not be able to generalise to the majority of remedial students or those who represented the non-intervention group. The following sections present some significant differences between groups, which are highlighted along with examples from participants' comments.

6.3.3.1 Sufficient learning support

In line with the results obtained from focus groups, learning support seems to be the most important condition for students' satisfaction from the beginning to the end of the course in the two groups. However, at the beginning, 16.6% of total comments from the intervention group apparently appreciated the learning support received in the class, compared with 8.0% of total comments from the non-intervention group. The participants' responses addressed the direct help received from the teacher in the class such as reviews of previous lessons, exam preparation or supplementary learning materials, which they considered as helpful in developing their understanding and learning progress. For example:

*'The teacher always **reviews the previous lesson before she begins the new lesson**. It helps refresh my memory and I can keep up with the class.'* (Intervention-week 4)

*'The teacher explains the lesson clearly and gives many exercises. I like that **the exercises help us practise and prepare for the exam**.'* (Non-Intervention-week 4)

The above examples confirm the results from both the questionnaires and focus groups analysis that the remedial students were concerned with their lack of proficiency and they need the teacher to help them improve their English skills. As

exemplified in the following comments, these seem to suggest an important role of the teacher in improving the participants' satisfaction and motivation to learn in the class. The intervention group were likely to be aware of the extra care and support they received from the teacher, especially the extra support, which matched individual learning needs, such as the teacher monitoring the class by walking around and responding to individual enquiries. For example:

*'I really like it when **the teacher walks around the class to check on individual students**. I feel like I have a private English tutor.'* (Intervention-week 16)

*'I like that the **teacher focuses on what students don't understand and keeps checking on individual students who have problems**.'* (Intervention-week 16)

Therefore, the more students' satisfaction with the class is met, the more their motivation to learn can be increased.

6.3.3.2 Kind personality of the teacher

In line with the results of focus groups, the second most frequently mentioned factor seems to be the personality of the teacher. At the beginning of the course, while the majority of participants in both the intervention and non-intervention groups seemed to agree with each other that learning support which includes scaffolding, extra input and materials and exam revision was an important combination for their learning satisfaction, another 9.3% of total comments from the intervention and 8.0% of total comments from the non-intervention groups saw the personality of the teacher as more important than other factors. The participants mentioned the teacher who is kind, friendly, understanding and treats them well, as the teacher with whom they preferred to study. Positive comments from the two groups regarding the personality of the teacher are such as;

*'The teacher is **friendly**. There is **no pressure in the class**. When having questions, I can always ask her. I feel **comfortable** studying in this class. I like this class and want to come to the class.'* (Intervention-week 4)

*'I love the teacher. She **cares about students' feelings** and I feel that she is trying to approach us and **treat us equally**. She is very **nice**. I feel **comfortable** when asking questions or answering her questions.'* (Non-Intervention-week 4)

A majority of participants in the non-intervention group seemed to consider the kind personality of their teacher as the most important factor from the beginning to the end of the course. While 11.1% of total comments from the non-intervention group

was satisfied by the learning support, there was 10.9% of total comments from the non-intervention group that still considered personality of the teacher as necessary (See Table 6.3-3). It seemed learning English could be a rather stressful experience, especially for students on the remedial English course. Moreover, at university level, students are treated as adults and there seems to be a distance between the teacher and students. Therefore, the personality of the teacher could possibly help create a pleasant learning atmosphere by bridging the gap between the teacher and students, especially for the remedial students who are not confident enough and not ready to learn on their own.

For the intervention group, the personality of their teacher did not seem to be important for most participants. Most of them were likely to be more worried about other factors such as the quality of the teaching, which was increased from 8.0% to 14.1% of total comments at the end of the course (Table 6.3-3). The results from quantitative analysis seems to show that the personality of the teacher only is not enough to sustain students' motivation in the long run (See Section 7.2.3), as participants in the non-intervention group felt happy to learn because of this reason. However, it needs be taken into consideration when teaching or planning the lessons for the remedial students.

6.3.3.3 Good quality of the teaching

As can be seen from Table 6.3-3, another frequently mentioned factor for the two groups is the quality of the teaching. However, compared with the non-intervention group, there was a remarkable increase in the percentage of the intervention group who were satisfied by the quality of teaching from 8.0% to 14.1% of total comments at the end of the course. While 15.8% of total comments from the intervention group still expressed their need for support from the teacher, more of the comments of the intervention group considered quality of the teaching, which includes well-prepared teaching, easy-to-follow teaching styles, interesting and fun lessons, and the teacher's enthusiasm to teach, as more necessary. The intervention group seemed to view the 'easy to follow', 'easy to understand', 'fun' and 'not stressful' learning atmosphere as an important quality of a good English class as illustrated below,

*'[The teacher] is able to explain each point clearly and it is **easy to understand**. The class is **relaxed and fun**. I feel more interested to learn.'* (Intervention-week 16)

'..The teacher **explains the grammar points clearly**. Her simple techniques that help us understand difficult grammar points.' (Intervention-week 16)

'The teacher has **simple techniques that help us understand difficult grammar points**. I wish she could stay with us in the next course.' (Intervention-week 16)

Other positive comments regarding the quality of the teaching are such as;

'The teacher is good at drawing students' attention to the content of the lessons. I'm feeling good when studying with her.' (Intervention-week 16)

'The teacher is very active when giving the lesson. The teacher covers what needed for the exam and other social knowledge such as how to adjust ourselves to the university life.' (Intervention-week 16)

6.3.4 Students' preferences for class activities (Question 3 - 4)

In this section, students' preferences for class activities are presented and ranked from high to low. However, there was little feedback in the data about students' preferences for the class activities, compared to feedback received from the first and second question. Most participants seemed to answer only the first two questions and other following parts were left blank or incomplete. Table 6.3-4 below presents classroom activities reported by the participants as positive and negative factors for their learning satisfaction with the class.

Rank	Activities	At the beginning of the course (week 4)		At the end of the course (week 16)	
		Intervention group	Non-intervention group	Intervention group	Non-intervention group
Likes					
1	Class activities and skills practice with multimedia e.g. Youtube, video clips, films, songs, etc.	21 (27.3%)	5 (11.9%)	18 (27.7%)	8 (21.1%)
2	Skills practices e.g. speaking, conversation, presentation practices, reading, listening, writing	8 (10.4%)	15 (35.7%)	14 (21.5%)	19 (50.0%)
3	Grammar reviews and exercises practice	13 (16.9%)	5 (11.9%)	15 (23.1%)	3 (7.9%)
4	Exam techniques, practices, reviews and preparation for exam	14 (18.2%)	5 (11.9%)	4 (6.2%)	1 (2.6%)
5	Extra exercises, homework, class assignment	14 (6.2%)	5 (11.9%)	4 (6.2%)	1 (2.6%)
6	English games	4 (1.8%)	1 (2.4%)	3 (4.6%)	-
7	Others personal preferences	3 (1.3%)	6 (14.3%)	7 (10.8%)	6 (15.8%)
Total		77	42	65	38

Rank	Activities	At the beginning of the course (week 4)		At the end of the course (week 16)	
		Intervention group	Non-intervention group	Intervention group	Non-intervention group
Dislikes					
1	Homework, online assignment	1 (7.7%)	2 (15.4%)	13 (43.3%)	2 (16.7%)
2	Class participation and attendance checking	3 (23.1%)	7 (53.8%)	1 (3.3%)	4 (33.3%)
3	Difficult tasks, assignment	5 (38.5%)	1 (7.7%)	6 (20.0%)	-
4	Quizzes	1 (7.7%)	1 (7.7%)	4 (13.3%)	3 (25.0%)
5	Activities in front of the class e.g. presentation, role play	-	2 (15.4%)	3 (10.0%)	2 (16.7%)
6	Others personal preferences	3 (1.3%)	-	3 (10.0%)	1 (8.3%)
Total		13	13	30	12

Table 6.3-4 Students' preferences to class activities (Feedback sheet Question 3-4)*

From Table 6.3-4, there are six categories of the classroom activities, which participants said they liked and five categories of activities, which they disliked. It is also found that the participants' preferences for class activities were different between groups.

6.3.4.1 Learning English with multimedia resources

Most of participants' responses seemed to focus only on the class activities provided by the teacher in the class. From Table 6.3-4, we can see that the intervention group enjoyed learning activities with multimedia and technology from the beginning (27.3%) to the end of the course (27.7%). There was an expressed need for exam preparation, which had dropped from 18.2% to 6.2% of total comments at the end of the course (See Table 6.3-4) and a slight increase in percentage for other types of activities at the end of the course, such as grammar reviews. Although learning activities with multimedia and technology were still the most popular for this group, the intervention group also considered grammar reviews and exercises as necessary from the beginning (16.9%) to the end of the course (23.1%). The participants might enjoy learning with multimedia but it appears that the pressure to prepare for the exam also deeply affects their preferences.

Based on my own observation, it could be that the teacher's interesting activities could possibly be the students' boring activities, if the students' opinion was not taken into consideration. One good example from this study was that the students were required to finish the assignment set by a CD package, which came with the

textbook. Actually my colleagues had agreed to use this commercial package with the remedial course as they found it was easy for the students. Moreover, they felt the need to integrate a CD package into the syllabus to conform with the university policy to bring some technology into the class. However, most participants complained that the exercises were boring and the video clips were not natural, or, as they said, 'fake'.

On the contrary, when the students were allowed to decide what they actually wanted to do in the class, it was interesting to see that they enjoyed writing their ideas and voting for the best idea. Initially, the student said that he did not expect that the teacher would allow him to show the video to the class as it contained some inappropriate vocabularies. Having that impression, he volunteered himself to organise this activity. He showed the clip to the class, pointed out some vocabulary, imitated the dialogue and explained very well using both English and Thai why it was funny. He also involved his classmates in the activity by asking them to come in front of the class and imitate the dialogue. The class seemed to enjoy learning from the video clip and they were eager to find if there were any more funny clips similar to this one on the Internet.

6.3.4.2 Opportunities to practise and improve English skills

While the intervention group enjoyed learning English with multimedia, the non-intervention group preferred class activities which help practise their English skills (See Table 6.3-4). There was an increase in percentage of students' preferences at the end of the semester, which emphasised students' need for this type of activity, from 35.7% to 50%. Some participants in the non-intervention group also preferred class activities with multimedia and technology. Their preference for these type of activities increased at the end of the semester from 11.9% to 21.1%. However, the percentage was not high in comparison with their first priority.

Although the use of group activities to promote a collaborative learning atmosphere is recommended (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001b; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), as shown in Table 6.3-4, it is evident that the use of English games in the class for this purpose did not have much attention from participants in both groups. There were only a few participants who showed their preference for English games (See Table 6.3-4). Based on students' comments, what is surprising is that the majority of students tended to view class activities that were not based on a text book, or supplementary

sheets, as non-academic activities, or, as described by most of them, as 'entertaining' or 'stress relieving' activities.

Their popular activities were mostly listening and writing activities or collaborative activities such as a group project and presentation. A good example was students' project presentations at the end of the semester. When the students worked in groups, they seemed to be more creative and confident to present their project in English. Most of them had their own ways of designing and presenting the project and were excited with classmates' project presentations (See Section 6.2 for more details on Design of teaching intervention). As the participants were in the Remedial English course, they might be more concerned with their English skills (See Section 6.3.3). Therefore, the participants possibly showed their preference for the class activities which they believed could help them develop their English proficiency and they might have considered English games to be too entertaining for them.

6.3.4.3 Difficult tasks and assignments

Although the intervention group showed their preference for learning support, which includes extra inputs and materials, as can be seen from Table 6.3-4, the activities prepared for students need to be appropriate for their level of proficiency. There were 38.5% of the intervention group who did not feel happy with difficult tasks and assignments at the beginning of the course. Although the percentage of unhappy participants had dropped at the end of the course, there were 20.0% of complaints from the intervention group, from participants who still did not like to do difficult tasks and assignments (See Table 6.3-4). However, students' complaints at the end of the course were also caused by the online homework and assignments. Based on students' feedback, their complaints mainly involved access to the Internet, which seemed to be a technical issue beyond the classroom level. For example:

'I like grammar exercises and I want more to practise for the exam, but I don't like to do it online. ...it's difficult for me to gain the Internet access'. (Intervention - Week 16)

The class assignment needs to be well planned to avoid problems that might occur. Nevertheless, because of the time limit of three hours per week, most of the assignments were online. Moreover, as can be seen from Table 6.3-4, there was

little feedback in the data about the class activities that participants did not like. This could be because it was their first semester at the university and participants were in the Remedial English course, which is the basic course of all the university foundation English courses. Therefore, participants might not have much experience of English language learning at the university, nor confidence to comment about their learning preferences.

6.3.4.4 Class attendance and participation checking

Another negative factor seems to have resulted from class attendance and participation checking. This seems to be more evident with the non-intervention group as most of their complaints were likely to be the result of the class attendance and participation checking. From the students' feedback, the non-intervention group did not like to be checked for their class attendance and participation. Their complaints about this remained from the beginning to the end of the course. Although the percentages of students' complaints on this had dropped from 53.8% to 33.3% at the end of the course, it was still high, compared with other factors. As illustrated below, one participant commented that he/ she did not like to be scored for the class participation, as he/ she felt pressured and did not want to attend the class.

'The teacher often asks students to answer her questions one by one to check for the class participation. This makes the atmosphere stressful, I feel pressured and I don't want to come to the class'. (Non-intervention - Week 16)

Similarly, as they felt controlled to be checked for their class attendance, class attendance and participation checking was another reason the intervention group gave for their dissatisfaction with the class.

'I don't like to be checked for the class attendance, I feel like I am being forced to learn'. (Intervention - week 4)

As suggested by SDT scholars e.g. Deci and Ryan (2000); Noels, (2001), as teachers, we need to promote learners' autonomy to increase their intrinsic motivation to learn. Nonetheless, I agree with Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) that we still need to maintain class discipline. This is especially true with the remedial English class where English does not seem to be students' subject of interest. Checking for students' class attendance or participation can possibly help the teacher to monitor and manage the class more easily. Nevertheless, the teaching

practices for the intervention group followed the course syllabus, in which class attendance and participation checking were required as one condition to pass the course. Although 23% of the intervention group did not feel happy to be checked or scored neither for their class attendance nor participation at the beginning of the course, the percentage of students' complaints had dropped to 3.3% at the end of the course as there was only one participant who complained about this (See Table 6.3-4). A decrease in students' complaints possibly means there were other factors which drew students' attention from this matter. As illustrated below, these factors, about which the teacher still needs to be aware, were such as the quizzes assigned in the class.

'I don't like to do a quiz in every class, I feel pressured'. (Non-Intervention - week 16)

6.4 Discussion of results from students' feedback

As noted earlier in Section 3.8.3, besides the small numbers of returned feedback sheets, there was little feedback in the data received for each question on the feedback sheet, for instance, students' preferences for the class activities. Some students also left the feedback sheet blank or incomplete. On one hand, this shows the motivation of students in both groups to participate and be involved in the evaluation process of the course. On the other hand, different numbers of returned feedback sheets between the two groups show that the motivation of participants between the two groups differed significantly. Moreover, this emphasises an importance of taking students' feedback into account and responding to students' feedback to maintain the two-way communication between the teacher and students in the class. However, as mentioned earlier, due to some ethical concerns and to maintain the anonymity and confidentiality on the part of participants, feedback received from the non-intervention group was not revealed to the teachers. This probably explains the large numbers of incomplete and small numbers of returned feedback sheets at the end the course from the non-intervention groups. The following section discusses the link between students' needs satisfaction and their motivational development.

6.4.1 Students' need satisfaction and their motivational development

At this stage, we can see some links between the results from data analysis presented earlier and the results presented in this section. Statistically significant differences were also found between the two groups, and the results from students' feedback sheets further supported the argument that significant differences between the two groups were caused by different factors.

First of all, it is clear that learning support from their teacher helped sustain the learning motivation of the intervention group from the beginning to the end of the semester. Although statistical analysis indicated a challenging and exciting experience in the first university academic year as the most important factor for most participants in the two groups to have the motivation to learn English, statistically significant differences found between the two groups probably resulted from some specific designed class activities integrated into the class by the teacher. The majority of participants in both groups reported that they were concerned about their English, not satisfied with their learning performance and had experienced some difficulties in learning English and knowing how to improve their English. However, the higher scores on intrinsic motivation for knowledge of the intervention group, as confirmed by results from the questionnaire data, indicated that the participants still enjoyed the knowledge gained from learning English, which also enabled them to continue to learn in the area of their interests (See Table 4.2-2). Most participants of the intervention group also expressed their satisfaction at being supported by the teacher. As a result, their motivation could have been increased during the course because experiences of learning in the class had enabled them to gain understanding, confidence to learn and to do well in English, as well as fulfilling their need satisfaction.

Based on students' comments, most of them seemed to be satisfied that there was a good relationship between the teacher and students in the class, the teacher responded to their needs, listened and accepted their complaints and many class activities were also provided based on their requests. For instance, students expressed their concern with English proficiency, need for opportunities to practise and improve their English and preferences to learn English with multimedia and technology. Therefore, their motivation increased accordingly when provided with learning activities that served their needs (See Table 6.2-4). In addition to this, pair

and group activities, especially a term project, in which the students were required to give a presentation in front of the class at the end of the semester, seemed to be frequently mentioned by the participants as helpful for their skills development during the course (See Section 6.2, for more details on the design of teaching intervention and Section 6.3 for example of class activities). This supports the SDT concept of basic psychological needs that learners need to feel competence and autonomy, that they are capable of doing an assigned activity which they feel of interest at their own pace to test and exercise their capability, and to feel connected by having a chance to work with people to whom they feel connected.

While for the non-intervention group, the kind personality of their teacher might not be able to sustain students' motivation to the end of the semester, and 56 students in the non-intervention group withdrew from the course with some students reported to be lacking motivation (See Section 4.2.2 for details on withdrawn students). However, what were reported by the non-intervention group was only parts of experiences of participants in this study, not the whole population of remedial students. As mentioned earlier, due to some ethical restrictions in this study, comments received from the non-intervention group were not sufficient to claim that classroom teaching practices of the intervention was better than the non-intervention groups in terms of an ability of teachers to motivate their students. The teachers of both groups might be able to motivate their students if they were aware of needs supportive teaching practices, or if they equally had access to students' feedback, which might probably improve the students' motivation to attend and participate in their class.

6.5 Summary

The results from both qualitative and quantitative data analysis developed fuller understanding of how applications of the SDT concept of basic psychological needs into the class by bringing in class activities that matched students' need and interests is more effective than the traditional teaching practice, which tends to focus on grammar translation with excessive focus on the textbook. This study has strongly established the need for the teacher to take students' comment and feedback into account when planning and designing the class activities. The results from the data analysis also indicate that significant differences between the intervention and non-intervention groups were caused by designed learning

activities, materials brought into the class, and the teachers own behaviours, which can draw us to a convincing conclusion chapter.

Chapter 7 : Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the principal findings based on the three research questions and, in particular, looks at the kinds of learning motivation that exists among students in the university remedial English course, the effects of the designed teaching practices, and the elements of teaching practices which contribute to an increase in students' motivation during the course. The chapter starts with a summary of findings, followed by a discussion of key findings, which aims to offer a comprehensive conclusion and suggestions for further research. The results and conclusions of previous chapters are brought together with reference to the literature in the area of language learning motivation and language teaching and learning in the Thai EFL context.

7.2 Summary of the findings

7.2.1 (RQ1) What kind of learning motivation exists among the first year students in the remedial English course?

As can be seen from the previous chapters of quantitative and qualitative data analysis, the participants were either extrinsically or intrinsically motivated to learn English. At the beginning of the course, most participants seemed to have low motivation for learning English. Their motivation appeared to be constrained by a long history of failure and painful experiences in learning English. They appeared not to derive pleasure from learning and felt obliged to learn. Most of them expressed concern about having to pass the university English courses. While some were pressured by their family to get good grades, some felt anxiety that failing any English course might delay their graduation and the opportunity to get a job.

Findings of this study, however, confirm that the students did not actually lack the motivation to learn English. Besides, this study clearly established that the level of students' proficiency could not be used as an indicator to predict the degree of students' motivation. Under the learning conditions that supported their needs and interests, as well as satisfying their sense of autonomy, competence and

relatedness, the students' motivation could be improved. Most participants were highly future-oriented. They had the strongly expressed need to meet with the growing demands for English and highly competitive nature of the labour market in the future, while they were well aware of the need for English during their undergraduate study at the university. For them, the necessity and utilitarian values of knowing English seemed to play an important role in nurturing their motivation throughout the semester.

Furthermore, at the end of the course, there were a number of participants who felt motivated to learn by their perceived progress in learning English. Some of them expressed satisfaction from being able to understand a difficult word and construct in English, while some came to realise the value of knowing more than one language. Most of them stressed the importance of English as enabling them to expand knowledge and access information in their area of interest. For instance, to access information on the Internet, or to entertain themselves by playing online games, or reading online comics, which are dubbed into English. There were participants who seemed to still lack any motivation to learn English, but the proportion of this group was not high compared to the motivated students.

7.2.2 (RQ2) What effect does a specially designed teaching intervention have on students' motivation?

There was evidence of a positive change in the students' motivation and their learning behaviour in the intervention group, indicating that the 14 week teaching intervention had a positive effect on their motivation. First of all, the intervention group had started to believe that they had an ability to improve their English. Most participants clearly expressed satisfaction with their learning progress, intention, plan to improve English and current attempt to achieve their plan. While for the non-intervention group, it is necessary to note that the participants in this study might not be able to represent the majority of remedial students due to some ethical restrictions during the data collection and implementation of the teaching intervention. Participants from the non-intervention group expressed the desire to do well in English, the same as the intervention group. However, none of them mentioned their progress. Most of them still complained about the same problems and disappointment that their English class had not met their concerns and

expectations. Some of them not only appeared to lack the motivation to learn English, but also other subjects at the university.

Throughout the course, the intervention group clearly demonstrated the higher level of development in learning English and that made their negative reaction and learning behaviour change constructively. Most participants still had concerns with their English skills and admitted that learning English was difficult. However, evidence from the intervention group clearly indicates that learning English had become their own choice. The participants seemed to consider learning English as being important for their self-development. Besides, they were able to identify specific skills they needed to improve, and discussed towards the end of the course how they might acquire them.

Although some ethical restrictions in this study might limit the generalisation of findings, there were evidence to show that the intervention group had been improved throughout the course in terms of learning behaviours, attitudes and motivation. The intervention group was still aware of limits in their background knowledge and attempted to study harder to improve themselves, while the non-intervention group kept repeating the same problems in learning English. One good example which can best emphasise this point is when one participant in the intervention group expressed his satisfaction, in the second phase of focus group, that he was now able to learn on his own, although he still portrayed himself as a buffalo (See Section 5.8.1 for more details).

'Thanks that you are patient with us, I now realise that a buffalo can learn.'
(Intervention-Week 16).

It can therefore be inferred that there was probably an effect from the teaching practices, which distinguished the motivation to learn English of participants in both groups from each other.

7.2.3 (RQ3) Which elements of the teaching intervention have the greatest effect on students' motivation?

There were three main elements which contributed to an increase in the students' motivation; the teacher's own personality and behaviour, good relationships between the teacher and classmates, and the use of students' feedback in the

class to support the students' need and interests. In this study, significant effects of the teaching intervention initially came from the teacher's own personality and behaviour, which helped develop the good rapport and relationship with the students in the class. For the students, as soon as they knew that the teacher was sincere, cared about their learning development, and had real intention to help them, from feeling forced to come to the class, and hesitant to participate in the class activities, the participants seemed to be more willing to engage in the activities even if the activity itself was not enjoyable. The good relationship between the teacher and students also created the supportive and collaborative learning atmosphere, as well as the sense of membership among the teacher and students in the class.

However, without the students' feedback, which served as a means of communication between the teacher and students in the class, the teacher might not have been able to identify and design suitable learning activities that matched with the students' needs and interests. For the teacher, the students' feedback was useful for monitoring and improving her own teaching practices. While for the students, the process of writing feedback was an opportunity for them to think about their own learning and identify their real needs and interests, which could help them develop a more vivid goal for their learning. Being supported by the learning conditions that satisfied their needs, the students gradually felt committed to the class and their study, and started to engage in the learning activities from their own interest.

7.3 *Discussions of key findings*

This section discusses the main findings of this study. First, it looks at the students' motivation, which was changed constructively during the course according to the self-determination theory (SDT) perspectives. The SDT was found to be useful in capturing and explaining the process of transformation of the participants' extrinsic reasons for learning English to the more intrinsic reasons. Then, it discusses the causes of motivational, through the SDT concept of basic psychological needs satisfaction and the importance of basic motivational conditions for an increase in students' motivation, as well as improvement in their learning behaviour.

7.3.1 Students' motivation for learning English

In this study the participants were motivated to learn not only by the utilitarian values of knowing English, such as academic and career purposes, but also the growth in their understanding and confidence from learning English, and the need for achievement. They would not be able to start their own learning and continue to improve themselves, if they did not have sufficient reasons for learning. In this study, the motives for learning English of most participants seemed to be currently dominated by the fear of not being able to meet the increasing demands for English. This supports what was suggested by Noels (2001: 60) that when there is a sense of 'urgency', L2 learners may need to learn the target language only to achieve immediate instrumental ends. Most participants tended to be dominated by the need to meet the increasing demands of English in the labour market, especially to be a qualified candidate in the ASEAN labour market due to the coming of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) plan in 2015.

As frequently foreshadowed by the Thai and international media at this moment (e.g. Khamnungsook, 2013; Nagi, 2012; Fry, 2012; Fuangfu, 2012; Chancharoenchai & Saraithong, 2012), the low English proficiency of Thais is evidently their weakness among other ASEAN countries. Instead of viewing the forthcoming AEC plan as an opportunity to communicate and collaborate with ASEAN neighbours, Chongkittavorn (2012: para 5) argued in his article, *Why Thailand is crazy over the AEC*, that the 'extremely high anxieties' and 'lack of confidence' in language proficiency resulted in most Thais suddenly feeling the need to equip themselves with language ability and viewing the AEC plan as the time to compete with other ASEAN countries. His view harmonises with what was reported in the Thai media, that the younger generation in Thailand are becoming aware of the drastic change in the region in the next three years. On one hand, Nagi (2012) emphasises that the feeling of insecurity and inferiority creates anxiety and fear among Thais that they might not be able to compete with ASEAN neighbours. On the other hand, pressure from the feeling of uncertainty increasingly persuades many Thais to invest more effort in learning English, and other Asian languages, to get ready for the high competition due to the launch of AEC plan in 2015 (e.g. Chongkittavorn, 2012; Fry, 2012; Khaopa, 2012). For most participants, English was a key for both academic and career advancement. Through the quantitative and qualitative methods employed, it was

found that the reason for learning English of most participants was influenced by their concerns with the future (See also Section 7.2.1). The idea is consistent with the view of many Thai commentators that Thai learners are mainly motivated to learn English to gain access to the job market or higher education (e.g. Draper, 2012; Choosri & Intharaksa, 2011; Vanichkorn, 2009; Suwanarak & Phothongsunan, 2008; Puengpipattrakul et al., 2007).

The participants' motives for learning English were also influenced by people in their social context such as their parents, family members, teachers and friends. For the majority of participants, the real purpose for learning English seemed to be the need to satisfy their parents, which mean that they had to do well and get good grades in an English class. Findings of this study showed that the Thai tertiary students might not be different from the Japanese students in Ryan's (2009) study, who do not actually know the real value of English, nor have a commitment to learn it. Apart from getting a high salary job or continuing their Masters study abroad, the participants were not certain about the real value of English knowledge. Some participants mentioned the need for communicative English in the workplace, e.g. email correspondence or communication with foreign colleagues, while some mentioned the possibility of communicating with foreign tourists or customers who might visit their hometown, which actually seemed to be rare.

7.3.2 Students' needs satisfaction and their motivational development during the course

In this study, many examples suggested that the participants could be motivated to learn by either the extrinsic or intrinsic values of learning English, or both. Apart from the extrinsic factors mentioned earlier, findings of this study demonstrated that the participants were motivated and tended to engage with learning activities that related to their needs and interests. As most of them were highly future-oriented, they seemed to prefer learning activities that improved their communicative skills, which would enable them to meet with the academic requirement at the university, as well as the growing demands for English and highly competitive nature of the labour market in the future. For example, one student said that she wanted to be a flight attendant, so she took an extra English course at weekends to achieve a higher level of English fluency. In another focus group session, two students expressed their need to communicate with exchange students from America, so

they had started practising conversational skills by learning from an online tutorial practice. Most of them expressed their appreciation for the teacher, who provided them with learning activities that gave them opportunities to develop themselves and build up their own self study group with the classmates.

In the second phase of focus groups, there were more participants who were motivated by their perceived growth in understanding and confidence during the course. Most of them were able to relate benefits of learning English with their other personal interests such as reading online comics, or watching an American series or even a Korean series which were dubbed in English. As mentioned by Ushioda (2011a: 205), learners' 'transportable identities' which are related to their other social roles outside the class can stimulate a 'higher level of personal involvement, effort and investment' in order to use the target language as a medium to help them pursue their interests. Some participants also shared their learning goals which they aimed to complete during the four years of tertiary education. The participants mentioned their need to achieve the higher level of English proficiency as the reason they wanted to come to the class regularly, investing more time and effort. Some participants viewed their progress as one step of achievement in learning English, while for some, the progress in their learning was the reason they decided not to withdraw and intended to study harder to pass the course.

SDT theorists e.g. Niemiec & Ryan (2009); Reeve & Ryan (2004); Vallerand & Ratelle, (2002) link the more self-determined form of learning motivation with the learners' sense of self such as their ego or self-esteem. Although remedial students seemed to be 'help seekers' (Falout et al., 2009: 411) who still need sufficient and appropriate learning supports to continue to learn on their own, findings of this study strongly confirm that if they had sufficient learning supports, the students had an ability to transform the reasons for their learning, from only learning to meet the external pressure to learning from their own feelings of interest and enjoyment. Feeling that they had made some growth in their learning did not only motivate the students to participate and engage in the class, but also to continue to learn to improve themselves. This study confirms that the more learners could see values in their learning, accept these values as important or see the values as their own personal goals, the more effort and intention they would invest in their own learning, and continue to learn, to gain success or achieve the higher level of proficiency.

7.3.3 Teachers' motivational teaching practices and students' motivation

For remedial students, there is no doubt that the teacher has a strong effect on their English learning motivation. As recommended by Dörnyei & Csizer (1998) and Cheng & Dörnyei (2007), when students feel more secure to learn, this helps increase and sustain students' motivation. As a result, one aim of this study was to apply the SDT concept of need supportive teaching and basic motivational preconditions suggested by Dörnyei (2001a) into the real classroom context of the remedial English course to create a more relaxed and supportive language-learning atmosphere, which could make learning English easier and more interesting.

This study shows that the SDT concept of basic psychological needs and Dörnyei (2001a)'s basic motivational preconditions are useful for explaining the necessity of applying motivational teaching theory into the real classroom practices. The SDT concept of basic psychological needs seem to link to the basic motivational preconditions, which, as mentioned earlier, seemed to be absent from the Thai EFL context. The motivational preconditions include (1) the teacher's appropriate behaviours e.g. enthusiastic, approachable and able to build a good relationship with the students; (2) supportive classroom atmosphere, and (3) a sense of membership among learners and group norms, which are proposed to be essential for the growth in the students' motivational development. As showed by results from the qualitative data analysis, these attributes are useful, especially for the class of remedial students who are not confident enough and not ready to learn on their own.

Findings of this study suggest that satisfying students' sense of relatedness, or the need to belong in the social community, is the most essential element for the remedial students, and there is a need for Thai teachers to consider benefits of using these motivational elements to create the motivating English learning atmosphere which is rarely found in the Thai context. As suggested by Dörnyei & Csizer (1998); Dörnyei (2001a); Cheng & Dörnyei (2007), taking the students' learning seriously is one of the most important motivational teaching practices found to be effective in most language learning contexts. This study suggests that if the teachers of non-intervention groups could have access to students' feedback, knowledge of need supportive teaching practices as well as benefits of providing basic motivational preconditions in the class, they might probably be able to

improve students' motivation to attend and participate in their class, the same as the intervention group.

7.3.3.1 Students' motivational changes as a result of teacher's caring personality, willingness to listen, and accept their voice

This study has established that the teacher's willingness to listen and accept students' voice is crucial for the motivational development of the students. Teacher's behaviours and practices have been regarded as an essential motivational element in L2 motivation studies over the decades (e.g. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007 and Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). In this study, it emphasises the essence of a teacher's basic qualities which are being open-minded, sincere, caring, understanding, willing to change their role in the class and committed to students' development. As the students' motivation needs to be developed from inside themselves e.g. their own needs and interests (Ushioda, 2012), this study emphasises that there is a need for two-way communication between a teacher and students in the class to maintain the good relationships among them.

A good example in this study is the use of the students' feedback, which was proved to support the students' motivational development as well as positive change in their learning behaviours throughout the semester (See Table 6.2-4). If the students' opinion is not taken into consideration, the teacher's interesting activities can be the students' boring activities (See Section 6.3.4.1 for an example). Based on my own experiences with remedial students, they were willing to do and finish the class assignment, including their so called boring grammar and vocabulary exercises, if they felt that the teacher was sincere and had real intention to listen to them. Moreover, when the students had freedom to decide what they actually want to do, it was interesting to see that the remedial students, who normally avoided sharing their opinions, enjoyed writing their ideas on the post-it notes, putting them on my desk and voting for the best idea. One student, who was a participant in the focus groups, told me that he was surprised that the teacher was flexible enough to allow them to share ideas and select the class activity. He was impressed that the teacher kept her promise and allowed him to show the video clip to the class when it was voted. This once again confirms that the remedial students had an ability to learn and regulate their own learning if they

learned from their own interests (See Section 5.7.3). Even so, it is necessary to note that many students have a long painful history with previous English teachers. Therefore, instead of expecting them to approach the teacher, the teacher needs to start to communicate and build a trust with them.

The idea of prioritising and accepting students' opinion is also consistent with Reeve & Halusic (2009) and Assor et al. (2002) who suggest that the teacher should understand and accept students' opinions even if they are negative opinions and complaints. However, evidence of this study seems to contrast with what is mentioned by Chen et al. (2005) and Warden & Lin (2000), that EFL learners who viewed learning English as a requirement tend to ignore teacher's teaching styles or techniques. Nonetheless, this study strongly suggests that, even in the EFL context, where English is considered as a required subject, it is possible that the teacher's behaviours or teaching styles can be an effective motivational tool to improve the learning atmosphere in the class, if they match with students' needs and interests.

7.3.3.2 Students' motivational changes as a result of the teacher's role in the class

Findings of this study provide support to Ushioda (2012) and Dörnyei (2001a) who urge the teacher to treat their students as real people. In this study, there was sufficient evidence to show that the participants were sensitive to the role of the teacher in the class (See Section 5.7.3). Their comments clearly indicate the teacher as a main source of demotivation in the classroom. The participants portrayed their bad memories of the English teacher in school who treated them as foolish, discouraged or embarrassed them, compared them with peers or gave unnecessary punishment, as a reason they dislike learning English, are reluctant to communicate with the English teacher, participate in lessons or even attend the class (See Section 5.7.2). The participants' experiences of their English classes apparently showed that there are school and university teachers of English in Thailand who still enjoy having the dominant role in the classroom. In this case, Baker (2008: 139) regards the 'high status' given to the teacher in the Thai context, as an expert or 'giver of knowledge', as a problematic issue in the Thai EFL context. It also appears that this cultural way of thinking gives absolute power to the

teacher, limits students' freedom in the class and restricts the means of communication in the class to that from the teacher only.

In the Thai context, the need to treat students as real human being is found to be essential to motivational conditions. This study provides support to Ushioda (2012) that there is a need for Thai teachers to view the students as real human being who have their own feelings, needs and interests and to treat them properly, not only as a learner in a language class. It is therefore the teacher's responsibility to recognise and link class activities with the multi-facets of students' identities. For instance, the experience of first year university students who had just started their tertiary education, and had a need to get adjusted to the new environment, as well as teenagers who need to feel accepted and belonged to the social community. This is especially with the class of less-able or slow learners, who tend to view themselves as inferior and are ignored frequently in the class (Noom-ura, 2008). The teacher may need to start by changing his/her own attitude from traditionally viewing himself/herself as a master or 'a presenter of knowledge' (Warden & Lin, 2000: 536) and 'take off his/her authoritarian mask' (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007: 164) to be open-minded and ready to listen and accept students' views. In this study, there is sufficient evidence at the end of the course to show that the remedial students do not entirely lose their motivation to learn English. However, their motivation can be changed through variation in their learning experiences and the support they receive from the teacher and other people in their learning context.

7.3.3.3 Students' motivational changes as a result of a collaborative learning atmosphere

The following sections confirm the point mentioned earlier that the students' sense of belonging is essential for the remedial students. Most participants said that they did not like to show off if they were not familiar with their classmates. This study shows that using collaborative activities, such as ice-breaking activities, could reduce the tension from peer pressure during the beginning weeks of the course, and increase the students' motivation to attend the class, as well as their willingness to participate and engage in the class (See Table 6.2-4). In addition, it can be inferred that collaborative activities, such as a term project or group presentation, successfully got the students to know each other (See Table 6.2-4). The activities probably created the bond between students during four months of

the course, which was strong enough to make them forget about the feeling of anxiety that they would make a mistake or lose face in front of their peers (See Section 5.8.1).

This study indicates that remedial students prefer a class activity that supports their learning development. Their popular activities were mostly listening and writing activities with the use of video clips, or collaborative activities such as a group project and presentation (See e.g. Section 6.3.4.1 and Section 6.3.4.2). Most of them also expressed their appreciation for the variety of class activities that I provided for them and considered me to be a well prepared, supportive and active teacher (See e.g. Section 5.7.2 and Section 6.3.3.3). At the beginning of the course, although students commented that they did not like the teacher who strictly followed the content of the textbook, there were students who seemed to be doubtful about the benefits they could receive from participating in their so-called entertaining activities. Based on my own observation at the beginning weeks of the class, there were some students who seemed to wait for the teacher to move back to the content of the textbook. This seems to suggest that, in the class of the remedial students, the teacher may need to explain why activities would benefit students. Then, they would probably fully participate and engage in the class if the activities match their own needs and interests.

7.3.3.4 Students' motivational changes as a result of having a clear goal for learning English

The study demonstrates that when the students have a clear learning goal, even the remedial students can learn English from their own interest and that can change their learning behaviours constructively. This supports Ushioda's (2012) contention that the students' motivation needs to be developed from inside themselves. Besides, in line with other English teachers in both Western and Asian contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007 and Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), this study emphasises the essence of goal setting as another essential motivational element, particularly with the remedial students.

As meeting students' basic needs is important for their motivational development process, Reeve (2006), Kusurkar et al. (2011) and Assor et al. (2002) emphasise that the teacher has a primary role in identifying students' needs and interests by

providing learning activities that are relevant to them. However, Assor et al., (2002) point out that not every student has a clear learning goal and interest. Therefore, it is a teacher's responsibility to help students see the connection between a learning activity and their interests. In this study, the remedial students entered the course with different goals for learning English. While some students talked about the desire to be as fluent in English as their friends in the International programs or higher levels of English courses, some seemed to study only to pass the course (See Section 7.3.1). Based on my own experiences, the remedial students have a tendency to resist the teacher's explicit instruction. This corresponds with Reeve & Halusic's (2009) warning that a teacher needs to be careful of using explicit classroom instruction as the students might consider it as the teacher's order.

This study has shown that it is more effective to let the remedial students learn through the experiences of their peers (See Section 6.2.1). A goal setting activity in a class of remedial students could not be done by asking them to list what they like to achieve most, or by setting a monthly or weekly plan and asking the students to achieve it. In fact, such explicit activities could yield worse outcomes in the remedial class. The remedial students seemed to believe that it is not the job of their English teacher to set a goal for their learning. They tended to be motivated by examples or experiences of their classmates that gave them some thoughts and reflections about themselves. Some also shared that they would rather go to their seniors or friends if they needed someone to help them. This study shows that the goal orientated students can be used as an example to influence other students in the class. Even though the students were placed in the same basic level of English course, it is not possible to rely solely on their low-level of English proficiency as an indicator of their English learning motivation, or assume that only simple and explicit activities would be effective and of benefit to their class. In this study, some students mentioned that their motives were emerging from meeting with new people at the university, from whom they could learn and gain more experiences, while some mentioned their participation in the focus groups gave them an opportunity to think about themselves (See Section 5.2). Some specifically mentioned their peers as a role model who had stimulated them to set goals for their own learning and to start to workout how to achieve the goals (See Section 5.7.2).

However, from my experiences as a teacher of the low-achieving students, passing on students' personal information has to be done with caution. Low-achieving students are very sensitive if the teacher treats anyone as more superior or inferior. Moreover, as the teacher needs to maintain the trust between himself/ herself and the students, the teacher needs to be sure that students' information is not too personal. Even though the students' identity is kept anonymous, the teacher still needs to make sure that students feel comfortable if their personal information is being shared with their peers.

Nevertheless, the ability to synthesise the reasons for learning depends on an individual's level of motivational intensity, and how much the students can see values in their learning and transform this value into their own personal goals. This study confirms Reeve & Halusic's (2009) suggestion that the teacher should be patient with the students' learning development. The remedial students need some time to start opening their minds and accepting the teachers' attempts to communicate with them, especially at the beginning weeks of the course (See Section 5.6 and 5.7). As mentioned earlier, even though they were in the less achieving groups, and still in the beginning stages of their tertiary education, the participants showed throughout the 14 weeks of the course that they could have a vivid goal for their future. Therefore, from learning helplessly in the past, the students were able to motivate themselves, put in more effort and study harder to complete their goals (See Section 7.2.2).

7.4 Summary

This chapter discusses and interprets significant findings of both quantitative and qualitative data, which develops fuller understanding of how using the motivational teaching practices in the class was more effective than the traditional teaching practice. Significant effects of the teaching intervention came from the supportive learning atmosphere, teacher's own personality and behaviour, as well as students' feedback, which helped develop the good rapport and relationship with the students in the class. Participants in both groups started the course with similar attitudes and motivation. However, the intervention group improved throughout the course in terms of learning behaviours, attitudes and motivation, while the non-intervention group kept repeating the same problems in learning English. It can therefore be

inferred that there was an effect from the teaching intervention, which distinguished the students in both groups from each other.

Chapter 8 : Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

I started this study with an intention to explore why most Thai tertiary students have such limited motivation to learn English in the class and to provide evidence whether teachers of English, especially those with a group of remedial students, can improve the motivation of their students. The study was carried out with the first year students in the Remedial English course at a public university in Bangkok. This final chapter aims to turn the findings of this study into a set of implications and recommendations. I first discuss limitations of the study, contributions for future studies, then, I deal with implications of the study, especially for teachers with a group of remedial students in the Thai tertiary and other similar EFL contexts, and make some final remarks.

8.2 Limitations of the study and recommendations for future studies on language learning motivation

8.2.1 Generalisability and transferability of the study

This study has some limitations that call for caution when interpreting the results. The first limitation concerns the generalisability of findings of this study. First of all, the participants in this study were volunteers. Due to some ethical concerns, I could not involve the whole population of remedial students in this study. The distribution of questionnaires was conducted only in the classes where I received official permission from the teachers and students who did not want to participate had the right to leave the class at any stage. For focus group sessions, students who wanted to participate would return a memo with their contact details, or leave the memo in the mail box at my office. It could be assumed that the focus group participants were likely to be students who were more motivated than the majority and they might not represent the general population of remedial students.

Second, findings of this study were limited to a short period of four months of the first university academic semester. Future studies could possibly employ a longer period e.g. a whole academic year. The longer period of time will allow the

researcher to gain more insight into students' learning experiences and their motivational development, which would probably enable the researcher to identify more effective implementation and to explore whether the students are still able to maintain their motivation when they move to a higher level of English courses and learn in a new learning context where the teacher and classmates are not the same. In addition, findings of this study are limited to experiences of learning English of first year university students who had just started their tertiary education. There are actually a different group of senior students, from higher years of study, who are still struggling in the university Remedial English course, and are required to take the course repeatedly until they can pass the course. Future studies may be conducted with this group too, who may have slightly different perspectives based on their long, and perhaps bitter experience of the remedial courses.

Concerning the generalisability of findings, it is necessary to address some specific cultural characteristics of the Thai EFL context where this study was conducted. This study demonstrates that good relationships with the students, and the students' sense of belonging in their learning context, are essential motivational preconditions which need to be of concern in the Thai EFL classroom. Moreover, in the Thai classroom context, there is a greater than normal power distance between a teacher and students. Most Thais have been raised to show respect to the teacher, who is considered to be a giver of knowledge and the only authority in the class, and that results in most Thai students normally having a tendency to avoid having conflict with the teacher. This fact limited my own ability to diagnose and respond to students' needs and to persuade the students to give informative and meaningful feedback to me. Some participants in this study told me that they felt guilty to criticise the class and the teacher, and they felt it was more appropriate to give only general comments. In the Thai context, it is also difficult to predict the students' degree of learning motivation by observing their learning behaviours in the class. Thai students tend to remain silent, only listening, and even avoid having eye contact with the teacher. It is even more difficult for the class of remedial students where a teacher actually needs to give special attention to the students. Sometimes I needed to look for other non-verbal cues, for example, whether the students look at each other or frown at the teacher, showing that the teacher talks too fast, the content is too complicated or they need more clarification.

Another limitation concerns the generalisability. Findings of this study were derived from students' experiences in a regular class size of around 45 – 50 students, where the participants from different faculties are randomly placed by the university registration office and the classroom conditions are varied. Although variation in populations and classroom conditions was not found to be statistically significant when measured through the quantitative data analysis, based on the students' feedback received during the course, there were factors that affected their motivation to learn English in the class (See Table 6.3-3 for more details). For example,

- balance between students' gender and their majors;
- timetable of the class (early morning, or during lunchtime);
- frequency and duration of the class (an hour/ two or 1.50 hour/ three times a week);
- conditions of the classroom and classroom facilities (seating organisation, availability of the air conditioner or amplifier).

Some participants also mentioned these factors as demotivating factors which obstructed them from having the motivation to attend the class or fully participate in the class.

Concerning the variation in populations, another issue is the Thai education system, which is generally classified into fundamental and vocational education. This study was conducted with a combination of populations whose educational background could possibly influence their motivation to learn English at the university. Compared with high school graduates, the graduates from technical and vocational college have less experience of learning English in the class and that possibly reduces their motivation for learning academic English at the university. Future studies could possibly employ a more systematic research sampling method and design to limit the variations of participants or classroom conditions.

Nonetheless, I feel that this study has to be implemented in an actual English classroom. A classroom with a good balance of student populations, and fully-equipped immaculate conditions, is too ideal to be true in most public universities in Thailand, where restrictions exist regarding finances, time and the granting of authoritative permission.

8.2.2 Possible research bias

Apart from the transferability of this study, other limitations concern possible research bias which might exist in the data. First of all, it was an effect of me as a researcher who was, at the same time, a teacher of the intervention group. The intervention group had been in the course with me for four months and this could develop feelings of familiarity and intimacy with the students. Besides, because of my presence as a moderator for all the focus group sessions, some possible bias could probably exist in the data received from the sessions of the intervention group. Given that fact, the participants might attempt to exaggerate their feelings and experiences of learning English in the class to impress me, their English teacher. Considering the power distance between the teacher and students in the Thai context, the participants might not also want to criticise the class, or express and share their negative feelings while talking with me.

In this study, however, there were both direct and indirect anonymous channels provided for the intervention group in giving feedback for the class. Their feedback would be used to validate the focus group data and to reduce the effects of my presence in the focus groups session. As one aim of teaching practices in this study was to create an effect on the motivation of students in the intervention group to learn English, it should not be surprising if there was an effect resulting from the presence of the teacher. In addition, the fact that I was the teacher of the intervention group possibly reduced the power distance between the teacher and students, which normally exists in the Thai context. This may have yielded other positive outcomes in this study, for instance, I may have gained insightful information which the participants might normally not be willing to share in public or even with their teacher (See Section 5.3).

Another issue necessary to discuss in this section relies on the data from two phases of questionnaire, focus groups and students' feedback. As mentioned earlier, findings from focus groups are based on a small sample size of populations, which are not a statistically representative sample of the majority students. However, although comments and views of these participants might not be fully transferable or represent general populations of the remedial students, this study provides convincing evidence, hope and positive feelings for the teachers and educators, especially in the Thai tertiary context, that there is a possibility of helping

the remedial students to start coming to the English class and approach learning activities from their own needs and interests. Other research techniques such as classroom observation or individual interview may be useful for future studies. The use of classroom observation may enable the researcher to explore and observe the teacher's real classroom teaching practices and students' learning behaviours in the class, while the use of an interview with individual students may provide insightful information from individual students with no influence from their peers.

This section addresses some limitations of this study concerning the generalisability, transferability and possible existence of research bias. It is not certain how the replication and generalisability of this study will be in, other different learning settings e.g. where the characteristics of students, cultural influence, classroom conditions, management and organisations could be different.

8.3 Contributions of the study

8.3.1 Contributions to the Thai tertiary context

This study is the first in the Thai tertiary context which offers empirical evidence to inform improved practice aimed at raising the motivation to learn English of the remedial students. Previous studies on similar groups of students were conducted in Asian EFL contexts like Japan and Korea, where there seems to be established policies on English Language Teaching. Also, literature in the Thai EFL contexts about the low-achieving students is limited. There are no recent studies on the motivation to learn English of remedial students, nor on motivational classroom teaching practices for this group of students. Absent from the literature are, for example, motivational profiles of the students, as well as guidance for how teachers might develop motivating classroom teaching practices by themselves.

To the best of my knowledge, the only one to date, which focused on teaching low-achieving students in the Thai tertiary level, was conducted by Noom-ura in 2008. However, even the researcher herself comments that her study, which involves only 28 volunteers in a specially designed intensive English course during three weeks of the summer semester, is too ideal to be implemented in a regular English class of around 45-50 students in the Thai tertiary setting (See Section 2.6 for more details on her study). This study, thus, aims to fill the gaps by providing a sample of

practical motivational classroom practices for teachers of English and teacher educators to develop a pedagogical framework for making their teaching practices more motivating. This study is also in line with Ushioda's (2013) comment on a need for the research study on teacher's own classroom experiences and practices, which seems to be rare in the field of L2 motivation studies. In this study, I have established that it is possible for the teacher to improve the English learning motivation of remedial students. Moreover, evidence from this study clearly confirms that there are some valid research instruments, which the teacher can use to identify and bring in learning activities to enhance the motivation to learn English of their students, as well as monitor their classroom teaching practices. This study, therefore, provide a useful reference for researchers and educators with professional and academic interest in the groups of less-able and low-achieving students.

This study demonstrates that remedial students are as eager to gain success in learning English as their peers who have higher levels of proficiency. Apart from the special care and attention they might need from the teacher, it is interesting to discover that the remedial students have an ability to regulate their own learning, improve themselves and continue to learn on their own. Although they seemed to lack the confidence to learn and to believe that they have a capacity to improve themselves, they have strong concerns for the future, which are sufficient for the teacher to motivate them to start coming to the class and approach learning activities from their own needs and interests. This also confirms what I doubted at the beginning of this study, that is, whether the students' level of proficiency could be used as an indicator to predict the degree of their motivation.

It can now be said that remedial students do not entirely lack motivation for learning English. However, their motivation varies through time and is influenced by the learning experiences they receive. In particular, the study provides support to Ushioda (2011b) that the teacher has to identify and link the class activities with other aspects of students' identities, not only as a learner in an English class. Findings of this study strongly emphasises the important role of the teacher in preparing the basic motivational conditions as suggested by Dörnyei (2001a), monitoring the motivational development of their students closely and to provide them with sufficient learning supports.

This study establishes the need for such teachers to be open-minded and understanding. They will need to accept that it may require extra time, effort and patience in order to re-motivate and bring back the motivation for learning English in the remedial students, but that this approach is more likely to raise the students' achievement. Based on this fact, this study confirms the importance of 'teacher's skills, understanding and readiness' to respond to needs and interests of language learners in the modern globalised world as suggested by Ushioda (2013: 236). Therefore, there is a matter of urgency that a clear institutional policy to support teacher development and training is necessary in the Thai tertiary level. Besides, there is a need to establish the placement test in order to stream students with the same ability into the university Foundation English courses and to create a course syllabus that support students' learning development to help the students to continue to study English in the higher level throughout their undergraduate study.

8.3.2 Contributions to literature on L2 motivation, SDT and its applications

This study is one of the rare studies that have employed the Self-Determination Theory framework (SDT) to explore English language learning motivation, and the only one specifically looking at teacher's motivational teaching practices in the class of remedial students. The study has established the need for the Thai researchers, and other similar EFL contexts, to look at a group of remedial students who tend to be ignored and invisible in the class. The report on this study has attempted to demonstrate that the SDT is a valid framework for understanding the nature of remedial students, their motivation for learning English, and change in their motivation. From SDT perspectives, students' motivation is seen as a developmental process of their ability to synthesise and transform a reason or goal for their learning, e.g. from learning to meet a course requirement, to learning from their own interest or enjoyment. The SDT concept of basic psychological needs is therefore shown to be valuable in this study as meeting students' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness can promote the process of internalisation and transformation of external motives.

The concept of psychological needs satisfaction is also useful for explaining and understanding the necessity of teacher's motivational classroom practices, especially in a class of remedial students where the teacher is strongly urged to take students' basic psychological needs as a primary consideration (See Section

7.3.3). Findings of this study demonstrate that a language classroom, that fulfils students' basic psychological needs can improve their learning motivation and behaviour. This study also highlights a role of a teacher as a facilitator who can create basic motivational conditions as suggested by Dörnyei (2001a) and support the growth of students' motivational development by using students' feedback to bring in learning activities that support students' senses of basic psychological needs as well as to monitor the teacher's own teaching practices in the class (See Section 7.2.3). In addition, findings of this study call for the need to employ qualitative research methods (Lamb, 2004; Ushioda, 2001), or a mixed methods approach (Dörnyei, 2007) to provide broader and more credible understanding of L2 learning motivation in various socio-educational settings.

8.4 Pedagogical and research implications

8.4.1 Pedagogical Implications: for an EFL teacher with a class of remedial students

The findings indicate a need for teacher education and continuous professional development. As reported in the previous chapters of findings, for remedial students, their English teacher is the most demotivating factor. Based on this, there is a need to provide knowledge and sufficient support for the teachers and educators who teach or are interested in teaching the remedial students. To ensure that the teachers have sufficient support, the teachers' development plan needs to include; either

- a basic training before the beginning of the semester, or
- a series of continuous training throughout the academic year.

In addition, the teachers may need to have some basic knowledge about remedial students - how to deal with individual students and how to manage the class of remedial students, as follows.

8.4.1.1 Teacher's own attitude and behaviour

First of all, it is necessary that a teacher is open-minded and willing to change his/her attitudes and perceptions of this group of students. In this study, the teachers' lack of knowledge, confidence and ability to support the group of remedial students is found to be a strong barrier which prevents teachers from having a positive

attitude and motivation to teach the remedial English class, from building up trust and from having a good relationship with the students (See Section 5.7.3). Besides, I found that the teacher must have a basic understanding that the characteristics and learning behaviours of the remedial students are rather different from their peers, especially in terms of self-confidence (See Section 5.7).

In general, this group of students are labelled as low proficiency, less-able, less successful, or low-achieving students, labels which actually reflect a general negative perception of society towards this group of students as having a low tendency to succeed. Unfortunately, this kind of negative attitude and perception is common in Thai society, where there is strong social respect and recognition given to intellectual, talented and gifted people. The teachers and parents of these remedial students may possibly be among those who have this negative attitude and perception. From my own experiences as a course coordinator of the foundation English courses at two public universities in Bangkok, most teachers were not interested in educating this group of students. There were actually a number of teachers who refused to teach the Remedial English course and considered it a low status and non-credit course. From time to time, the English department could not assign the teachers for this group of students until the beginning of the semester. Normally it appeared that the course coordinators had to take more teaching loads and teach the remedial classes by themselves. Otherwise, the department had to recruit part-time teachers and MA students or other teachers from different departments such as German, French, Chinese or Thai, who volunteered themselves to help. In addition, a lot of teachers, including me, sometimes complained about the students' limited motivation for learning English, and some of them eventually give up hoping of seeing any progress and stop providing learning supports for the students. However, this study has given me an opportunity to get to know the remedial students more closely and realise why they are not normally able to change their negative attitudes and perceptions and so cannot do well in learning English.

8.4.1.2 Students' feedback as a means of communication in the class

This study has established that the use of students' feedback in the class can be an effective channel which allows the teacher to build up and maintain a good relationship with his/her students. In the previous chapters, I discussed some

advantages of the students' feedback. In brief, the students' feedback is useful for the teacher to improve their own teaching practices, and monitor and facilitate the students' motivational development. The teacher's response to students' feedback provides a means of communication between the teacher and students in the class. This not only creates a good relationship between them, but also a supportive learning atmosphere in the class. However, as mentioned earlier in Section 3.8.3, there is a need for the teacher to train his/ her students in how to give informative and meaningful feedback.

Some suggestions emerging from this study are that types of class activities and training provided for the remedial students in how to give informative and meaningful feedback can be conducted either through explicit lectures or collaborative activities including brainstorming, pair and group activities (See Section 6.2, 6.3.3 and 6.3.4). The teacher can simply give a lecture on types of feedback expected, tell the students what they need to do, and pair or group the students together to do feedback exercises. However, I found that the students enjoyed participating in discussion and working with each other (See Section 6.3.3). Besides, it is more effective to let the students think by themselves and learn from examples of other students' feedback. In the class, I showed the students some examples of anonymous feedback from other classes and asked them to decide which piece of feedback they thought was useful for the teacher in identifying their needs and responding promptly. As a result, the students seemed to be more cautious when writing their own feedback, and that was reflected in the improvement in the feedback they gave to me throughout the course. This once again confirms that remedial students have an ability to learn and improve themselves, but they need to have freedom and opportunities to learn to think on their own. Moreover, it emphasises the need for the teacher to be patient with this group of students and that he/ she will eventually come across more effective techniques or methods for their students.

8.4.1.3 Cooperative network among the teachers with a class of remedial students

Equally important, this study has identified that the teacher's willingness to teach the class is equally as essential as the students' motivation to learn. Based on my experience, I found that I was motivated by the students' enthusiasm and the

friendly atmosphere in the class to monitor their learning development closely and prepare learning activities for them. From SDT perspectives, it could be said that my own satisfaction of basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness were also met, just as much as the students' needs satisfaction. Teaching and researching the class of the remedial students were both my own choice. Although there were some difficulties in managing the class, I felt that the students' learning behaviours, as well as their attitude and motivation, gradually improved throughout the course (See Section 5.5 and 6.3.2). Besides, the students gradually became involved in helping me build up the supportive atmosphere in the class.

A good example was at the end of the course; at that time, the university campus was at risk of flooding and had announced that it would soon be closed. However, there were students who still expressed their intention to participate in the focus groups. Some of them who lived in the inner area of Bangkok, which was not affected by the flood water, called me to confirm their participation, arranged the time of the sessions and made sure that I had enough participants. The friendship between the teacher and students was essential not only for improving the students' motivation to learn, but also the teacher's motivation to teach the class (See Section 5.2.2).

Given the above evidence, I feel convinced that satisfaction of the teacher's basic three psychological needs is also important. Therefore, it is necessary for the teachers, especially those with a class of the remedial students, to establish a supportive network, both inside and outside their institution, to share their knowledge, support each other and continue to identify more effective classroom practices to help their students. This idea could be initiated first as a small project within the department. One or two of the younger generations of teachers, who do not have much administrative responsibility, and have positive feelings towards and intentions to help remedial students, would be ideally placed to initiate such a project, which could then be extended to outside the institutions.

8.4.2 Pedagogical Implications: for an authority and policy maker at the tertiary level

This study provides some thoughts for the authority and policy makers, especially those in the Thai tertiary context, for the importance of the placement test at the beginning of the first academic semester and the need to stream students of the same English proficiency together in the class. At present, some Thai public universities mix students of different abilities together in the same foundation English courses, due to the financial constraint and teacher shortage (See Section 2.5). The low ability students seem to have no hope to pass the course, especially if the grading criteria are based on average group performance. This actually hurts rather than helps the students and there is a strong likelihood that the students will give up learning English at the earliest opportunity. Some possibly give up their intention to further their tertiary education.

8.4.3 Research Implications: for researcher and future studies with a group of low proficiency students

The following sections provide some thoughts for the researcher and future studies, concerning how to select appropriate methodology to conduct research on language-learning motivation.

8.4.3.1 Using focus groups to create a friendly atmosphere

First of all, I found some advantages in using focus groups in exploring the motivation of the remedial students to learn English. As the participants are low-achieving students who tend to hide their feelings and thoughts, using the focus groups clearly reduces the tension that they might feel when responding to interview questions individually, and allows them to talk in a friendly atmosphere where other participants also share similar background knowledge and experience. It is necessary to emphasise that the students do not like to be the centre of attention. They are very sensitive and possibly feel annoyed if they are being observed. Therefore, conducting the research with this group of students needs special care. The implementation of the research, including the design, recruitment of the participants, research assistant and data collection methods, needs to be carefully planned if the researcher wants the students to fully participate and provide real information (See Section 3.5 for more details on research design).

In this study, the focus group sessions were conducted during the weekend at a small staff meeting room at the Self Access Language centre. During the weekend, the students are not required to wear a university uniform to get into the building. They seemed to enjoy the fact that they could dress casually, had freedom to select or form a group for the focus group sessions on their own, and could share their experiences and ideas with friends and teacher in an informal atmosphere. This suggests that informal settings might somewhat reduce the power distance between the teacher and students.

8.4.3.2 Establishing and maintaining a good relationship with the participants

Actually I feel that designing the research study with the group of remedial students is similar to the ways I plan the lessons for their class (See Section 5.5 and 6.3.2). A good relationship with the participants seems to be necessary. The students fully participate and engage in the sessions if they feel that the researcher is sincere and has a real intention to get to know them. The benefits of this were also evident throughout the data collection process, as the participants were willing to provide more details and in-depth information about their English learning experiences, that quantitative data alone could never have produced. While the quantitative data from questionnaire survey shows the students' general positive attitudes towards their learning experience, findings from two phases of focus groups strongly reveal the long history of failure and painful experiences of learning English of the participants and factors underlying their limited motivation. Based on this, my understanding of the motivation for learning English of this group of students has expanded (See Section 3.5 for more details on research design).

8.5 Concluding statement

Finally, I have come to the end of four years of my doctoral study. I started this study with a strong motivation to help the low-achieving students who, based on my previous teaching experience, were extremely lacking in motivation to learn English. My hope was that I could find a way for them to learn English with more a positive attitude and feeling of enjoyment, so they would continue to study English throughout their undergraduate study. In this study, most of the low-achieving students have proved that they actually had an ability to develop themselves. They learned with the more self-determined form of motivation, which reflected their

improved confidence and learning behaviours. Apart from that, they had developed a good relationship and cooperation with me, their teacher during the four months of the course. These experiences have been meaningful for my teaching career and professional development as I discovered that I could find a more effective way to help the students with limited ability and motivation to learn with more confidence and enjoyment. The experience with the students has also been meaningful to my professional development and I have more effective ideas to pass on to my colleagues and other teachers in Thailand in the future.

For the intervention group, I was able to offer them strong learning supports. In return, most students offered to help me in any way they could. I felt that the students had a real intention of helping me conduct this study by sharing their history of learning English, which for some of them seemed to be one of the shameful and embarrassing times of their lives. In the process of working with this group of students, I had several complaints from them about what they thought the teacher should do and not do. When the course was ended, I felt relieved, and realised the importance of continuing to support them and not giving up hope. However, given the time and ethical restrictions, I was overwhelmed with feelings of guilt that I was not able to intervene in the other classes that belonged to my colleagues, or help the non-intervention group who told me later that their participation in this study was came from the hope that I could pass on some information about their needs to their teacher.

As a teacher, I hope to explore the possibility of changing some of the institutional policies, particularly at my university, for instance, to establish the placement test to stream the students according to their level of ability as well as a design of the course syllabus that support students' learning development. As a researcher, the PhD process has equipped me with insightful knowledge and skills in designing research instruments. I have gained valuable skills of independent thinking, and critical and academic writing. In particular, I was delighted to find that I finally understood some complicated statistical elements and methodology which I previously tried to avoid using in my study. The contribution of this study is limited to the remedial students. However, I hope the findings of this study will be useful to others who wish to conduct research with university students and to teachers of remedial students, that it inspires them not to give up hope, but to continue positively supporting the students. Finally, this brings back my favourite quotation

by Hahn (2010), which begins the introductory chapter. I hope that this study at least inspires other teachers to want their students' learning development and motivation to flourish.

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Appendices

Appendix A Ethical clearance letter

Research Support
3 Cavendish Road
University of Leeds
Leeds LS2 9JT

Tel: 0113 343 4873
E-mail: j.m.blaikie@adm.leeds.ac.uk



Nitchaya Boonma
School of Education
University of Leeds
Leeds, LS2 9JT

AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee
University of Leeds

18 September 2013

Dear Nitchaya

Title of study: An investigation of the motivation to learn English of low proficiency students in the Thai tertiary context
Ethics reference: AREA 10-121

I am pleased to inform you that the above research application has been reviewed by the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee and I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion on the basis described in the application form and supporting documentation as of the date of this letter.

The following documentation was considered:

<i>Document</i>	<i>Version</i>	<i>Date</i>
AREA 10-121 Ethical_Review_Form_nitchaya boonma.pdf	1	13/04/11
AREA 10-121 letter.pdf	1	13/04/11
AREA 10-121 questionnaire_first page.pdf	1	13/04/11
AREA 10-121 Participant Consent Form.pdf	1	13/04/11
AREA 10-121 focus group discussion guide.pdf	1	13/04/11

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any amendments to the original research as submitted at date of this approval. This includes recruitment methodology and all changes must be ethically approved prior to implementation.

Please note: You are expected to keep a record of all your approved documentation, as well as documents such as sample consent forms, and other documents relating to the study. This should be kept in your study file, which should be readily available for audit purposes. You will be given a two week notice period if your project is to be audited.

Yours sincerely

Jennifer Blaikie
Research Ethics Administrator
Research Support
On behalf of Dr Anthea Hucklesby
Chair, [AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee](#)

CC: Student's supervisor(s)

Appendix B Participant Consent Form

Participant Consent Form (English version)

An investigation of the motivation to learn English of low proficiency students in the Thai tertiary context

*Nitchaya Boonma
Department of Foreign Languages,
Faculty of Humanities, KU
nitchaya.b@ku.ac.th
ednb@leeds.ac.uk*

Initial the box if you agree with the statement to the left

- | | | |
|---|---|--------------------------|
| 1 | I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet explaining the above research study and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2 | I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3 | I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4 | I agree for the data collected from me to be used in future research | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5 | I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the principal investigator should my contact details change. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

_____	_____	_____
Name of participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of person taking consent	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Researcher	Date	Signature

Appendix C A sample of a course syllabus

Course Syllabus First Semester

- 1. Faculty of Humanities** **Department of Foreign Languages**
- 2. Course Code:** **Course Title: Foundation English I**
- 3. Course Description**

Exposure to significant structures of the English language abilities: listening, speaking, reading and writing through language skill integration with emphasis on communicative competence at a fundamental level.
- 4. Course Objectives**

To enhance students' knowledge and practice of grammatical points, language functions, vocabularies and four macro skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking).
- 5. Methods of teaching:**
 - 5.1 The student center is focused for teaching.
 - 5.2 Lecture and explanation are also provided for the language points.
 - 5.3 Group work, pair work and individual work are also employed depending on the content and activities in each lesson.
- 6. Instructional Materials**
 - 6.1 New English File
 - 6.2 Supplementary hand outs and exercises
 - 6.3 Computer, white board, and audio-visual aids
- 7. Score distribution**

1. Midterm Exam	75 points
2. Final Exam	75 points
3. Oral Exam	10 points
4. Listening Exam (2)	10 points
5. Ellis	10 points
6. Class Assignments	10 points
7. Attendance	10 points
Total	200 points

8. Evaluation

The criteria for the course will be P and NP. Students in this course are required to pass at least 50 %, 100 points from the total 200 points.

9. Course Outline & Tentative schedule

Week	Date	Units	Note
1	11 June - 15 June	Orientation/ Unit 1	
2	18 June - 22 June	Orientation/ Ellis training/ Unit 1	
3	25 June - 29 June	Orientation/ Ellis training/ Unit 1	
4	2 July - 6 July	Unit 2	5 July: Wai Khru Ceremony
5	9 July - 13 July	Unit 2	
6	16 July - 20 July	Unit 3	14-17 July: Graduation Ceremony
7	23 July - 27 July	Unit 3	2 Aug: Asarnha Puja Day
8	30 July - 3 Aug	Listening I : 30-31 July	3 Aug: Buddhist Lent Day
9	4 Aug - 12 Aug	Midterm Exam : To be announced	
10	13 Aug - 17 Aug	Unit 4	13 Aug: Substitution H.M. The Queen' s Birthday
11	20 Aug - 24 Aug	Unit 4	
12	27 Aug - 31 Aug	Unit 5	
13	3 Sep - 7 Sep	Unit 5	
14	10 Sep - 14 Sep	Unit 6	
15	17 Sep - 21 Sep	Unit 6	
16	24 Sep - 28 Sep	Listening II : 24-25 Sep/ Speaking	
17	1 Oct – 12 Oct	Final Exam : To be announced	

Appendix D A sample of students' questionnaire

Students' questionnaire (English translated version)

Dear Students,

I am researching how we could improve English courses at the university to make them more effective for you. Your responses to the questionnaire will be helpful to make the future plan for English teaching and learning at the university. By completing this questionnaire, you will also help me in my research to understand students' motivation better. Each questionnaire item is about your experiences and opinions in English language learning. There is no right or wrong answer and no score. The questionnaire is anonymous. Your name is not required and your teacher will not know your answers. Please read the questions carefully, then, check one box or write a short answer that best describes how you feel.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Part I: How true are the following statements for you?

Instruction: Choose one box that best describe yourself

4	3	2	1
←	→		
Very true	True	Not true	Not true at all

Example:

	4	3	2	1
'I like Som-tam'	4	3	2	1

Section A: Why are you learning English?

Instruction: Choose one box that best describe yourself

4	3	2	1
←	→		→
Very true	True	Not true	Not true at all

Part I Section A: Why are you learning English?	4	3	2	1
1) I want to be able to speak more than one language. (<i>identified regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
2) I need English to apply for a job (<i>external regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
3) I will feel guilty if I cannot speak English (<i>introjected regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
4) I like hearing other people speaking English (<i>stimulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
5) I intend to learn to improve my English language skills for my future (<i>identified regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
6) It is important for me to do well in English (<i>identified regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
7) Learning English is what I'm supposed to do for my future (<i>external regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
8) I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning English. (<i>knowledge</i>)	4	3	2	1
9) I feel good when speaking English with teacher and friends (<i>stimulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
10) Knowing English is a gateway to other opportunities in life (<i>identified regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
11) I will feel stupid if I cannot speak English. (<i>introjected regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
12) I enjoy the challenge of learning English language (<i>stimulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
13) I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning about other language communities and their ways of life. (<i>knowledge</i>)	4	3	2	1
14) My family will be proud of me, if I can succeed in my English learning. (<i>introjected regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
15) I can use the knowledge of English in other areas of my life (<i>identified regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
16) I need English for my study in higher education (<i>external regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
17) Learning English language is boring (<i>amotivation</i>)	4	3	2	1
18) I enjoy the feeling of accomplishment when I pass any difficult subjects such as English (<i>accomplishment</i>)	4	3	2	1
19) After my graduation, I would not find a good job with a good salary without English (<i>external regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
20) I would feel bad if I cannot communicate with foreigners in the future (<i>introjected regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
21) There is a social pressure in Thai society that learning English is necessary and university graduates need to know English. (<i>introjected regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
22) Learning English is a burden for me. (<i>amotivation</i>)	4	3	2	1
23) I want to pass this course and I want to graduate (<i>external regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
24) I don't know why I need English and I don't care. (<i>amotivation</i>)	4	3	2	1
25) Eventually my English knowledge will enable me to choose the job market in a field that I like. (<i>identified regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
26) (<i>introjected regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
27) Knowing English broaden my knowledge in other areas of my interests (<i>knowledge</i>)	4	3	2	1

Section A: Why are you learning English?

Instruction: Choose one box that best describe yourself

4	3	2	1
←			→
Very true	True	Not true	Not true at all

28) I enjoy the experiences when I can understand difficult words and construct in English (<i>accomplishment</i>)	4	3	2	1
29) I am wasting my time in an English class (<i>amotivation</i>)	4	3	2	1
30) I may once have good reasons of studying English, but I cannot think of any good reason right now. (<i>amotivation</i>)	4	3	2	1
31) English courses are a part of the university requirement, I want to gain all the course credits on my university transcript (<i>external regulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
32) I enjoy the experiences when I can express my ideas with difficult words or complex sentences in English (<i>accomplishment</i>)	4	3	2	1
33) It is for English majored students and I do not see any reason why I need to take English courses (<i>amotivation</i>)	4	3	2	1
34) Knowing English allows me to continue to learn other subjects which interest me. (knowledge)	4	3	2	1
35) I feel that learning English is enjoyable. (<i>stimulation</i>)	4	3	2	1
36) I enjoy the experiences that I can read the words, which I was not able to before. (<i>accomplishment</i>)	4	3	2	1

Section B: In an English class, how do you feel?

Instruction: Choose one box that best describe yourself

4	3	2	1
←			→
Very true	True	Not true	Not true at all

Part I Section B: In an English class, how do you feel?	4	3	2	1
37) I feel pressured while studying English in the class (<i>autonomy</i>)	4	3	2	1
38) I am satisfied with my performance (<i>competence</i>)	4	3	2	1
39) I have a chance to show how capable I am (<i>competence</i>)	4	3	2	1
40) I feel pressured to follow the teacher when I am in class (<i>autonomy</i>)	4	3	2	1
41) My teacher cares about me and my classmates (<i>relatedness</i>)	4	3	2	1
42) I feel I am skillful to do well in English (<i>competence</i>)	4	3	2	1
43) My teacher and friends are friendly (<i>relatedness</i>)	4	3	2	1
44) My teacher and classmates do not seem to like me much (<i>relatedness</i>)	4	3	2	1
45) I can get along with my teacher and other students (<i>relatedness</i>)	4	3	2	1
46) My teacher encourage students to help each other to learn (<i>relatedness</i>)	4	3	2	1
47) I feel confidence to do and finish class assignments (<i>competence</i>)	4	3	2	1
48) I feel pressured to memorized words and sentences in the textbooks (<i>autonomy</i>)	4	3	2	1
49) I am confidence to help my classmates to learn (<i>competence</i>)	4	3	2	1
50) I know which English skills (e.g. listening, speaking, reading, writing) I need to improve (<i>autonomy</i>)	4	3	2	1
51) I need help from my teacher to improve my language skills (<i>competence</i>)	4	3	2	1
52) I can decide which activities I want to practice (<i>autonomy</i>)	4	3	2	1
53) Different activities in the class make me feel closer to other students (<i>relatedness</i>)	4	3	2	1
54) I can share my ideas and opinions in class with my teacher and classmates (<i>autonomy</i>)	4	3	2	1

Part II: About you

- 1) Age: _____ Gender: M/ F
- 2) Faculty: _____ Year of study: _____ Major: _____
- 3) Where are you from? Your province? _____.
- 4) Which school did you graduate from?
_____. (Public/ Private School) Where? _____.
- 5) What was your English score in the university entrance exam?
(ONET test / ANET test): _____.
- 6) Can you speak other foreign languages? Yes/ No
If yes, what are the languages? _____.
- 7) Is this the first time you are taking this course? Yes/ No
If no, this is the _____ time I take this course.

Appendix E A sample of focus groups discussion guide

Focus group discussion guide (English version)

Introduction:

Thank you very much. I really appreciate your contribution for participating. There are a few questions I want to ask you during the discussion. The purpose of this discussion is to know about your ideas and opinions about your English language learning and motivation to learn English. Please remember that I am only interested in what you think and feel. It is not necessary whether you agree or disagree with the opinions or feelings of your friends. Besides, I need to tell you that the discussion will be recorded and transcribed. However, your name and opinions will remain anonymous.

Discussion questions

Pre-Intervention:

- 1) What is your impression/ how do you feel about learning English? Why?
- 2) How was your English learning experience? Is it different between learning English in school and at the university? Why?
- 3) Have you ever had any favourite English class where you enjoyed learning? Why is it your favourite?
- 4) Are you confident with your English skills? Why?
- 5) Do you have your own goals in learning English? What are they? Why?

Post-Intervention:

- 1) At this moment, what is your impression/ how do you feel about learning English? Has your impression/ feeling changed during the semester? Why?
- 2) How is your English learning experience at the university? Between learning English in school and at the university, which one do you like? Why?
- 3) How is your English class? Do you enjoy learning in your English class? Why?
- 4) At this moment, are you confident with English skills? Has your confidence changed during the semester? Why?
- 5) Do you still have the same goal in learning English? Has it changed during the semester? If yes, why is it changed?

Appendix F A sample of focus groups' transcript

A sample of focus groups transcript (translated from Thai)

Group Details: Intervention group 1
Moderator: Nitchaya Boonma (researcher)
Location: KU-Self Access Language Learning Centre
Date: Saturday 26th June, 2011 (Pre-intervention session 1)
Group size: 6 attendees
Gender: 2 male, 4 female

Transcript of Focus groups discussion

- M [Introductory remarks and explanation of group process]
- Thanks again for coming today. I really appreciate your contribution for participating. Before we begin the session, I'd like to confirm that you have read and signed the informed consent form, that you understand that the session will be recorded and transcribed. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary; you may refuse to answer any questions, and withdraw from the study at anytime.
- There are a few questions I want to ask you during the discussion. The purpose of the session is to know about your experiences, ideas and opinions, and motivation for English language learning. I am researching how we could improve English courses at the university to make them more effective for you. Your participation will be helpful in making the future plan for English teaching and learning at the university, and also help me in my research to understand students' motivation better. Do you have questions before we proceed?
- Ss *No.* [cross talk]
- M Great. Let's get started. Please remember that I am only interested in what you think and feel. It is not necessary whether you agree or disagree with the opinions or feelings of your friends. There is no right or wrong answer and no score. Your name is not required. Your opinions will remain anonymous, and your teacher will not know your comments and ideas. So, have you decided which question we shall start first?
- Ss *Question 1.* [cross talk]
Number 1. [cross talk]
- M OK. Number 1. What is your impression? [Short pause] How do you feel about learning English? And, why? Can we go around the room? Who wants to start?

*In 2015, there will be free-flow goods, services, investments, capital and skilled labor among the 10 countries, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Thailand, Philippines, Singapore and Vietnam.

- S1 *I like studying English.*
- S2 *Me too. Very much.*
- S3 *I like it, but I'm a bit scared.*
- M What makes you feel scared?
- S3 *Before the exam.*
- S4 *Yes. Before the exam. Before the speaking test. And, when asking and answering questions with [the teacher]. [The teacher] often asks the questions. Like.. Hmmm. [Short pause] Speak! [English word] [Group Laughter]*
- M How about other people? How do you feel about learning English?
- S5 *When I speak English in front of the class. I was excited. But I like it. English is like an alternative language. It's important. Because even my textbook, they are in English. The lecture slides are in English and I need to translate when I study. I need a dictionary by my side and I use it quite often. But, I'm not good at English.*
- S4 *English's still not necessary at my faculty. I may need a dictionary, but most of the content is what I have already been familiar with.*
- S6 *I don't like studying English. It's difficult. Also, I feel like people favour English. That's too much. [Laughter] I love to speak Thai.*
- S4 *Me too. I'm not good at English. And... the more I learn the more I feel more confused. I don't understand.*
- S3 *Me too. I don't feel I understand. I don't get it. Hmm... I don't get it.*
- S5 *I'm not good at learning English. Learning maths is easier. [Laughter] Doing the maths exercises is easier.*
- Ss *Uhmm. [cross talk]*
- Ss *Yes. [cross talk]*
- S4 *Maths is easier because it's in Thai. Also, English is a foreign language which we were not familiar with when we were young. It's more difficult to learn to understand.*
- S6 *I think so. There are too many grammar rules which are difficult to understand.*
- S5 *Yes. Yes. I agree. English grammar rules are much more than Thai. When speaking, I'm not sure if it's correct like the tenses.*
- S4 *Grammar and English is not my mother tongue so I don't like it.*

- S5 *Even the spoken sentences. When translating, it's different from the sentence patterns in Thai. Thai is simpler. Translating English into Thai, I feel like it needs to be translated from backward. The translation rules and word orders are also different. Besides, it's different from learning maths. For maths, when calculating, you get the exact result.*
- S4 *I think we learn English only for the exam.*
- M Any other reasons? Is it only for the exam?
- S3 *I think so.*
- S6 *Yes, I agree. That's the reason why we don't have a mind to love studying English. English is the subject that I don't like.*
- S5 *Yes, I think so. It's like you study because it's your job to read for the exam. Read read read for the exam. When it's done, you let it go. I think we need to change our attitudes. At the university, we are adult, no one tell us what we need to do.*
- S6 *It's because I want the practical use of English. When I learn, I want to apply what I learn to my everyday life. I want to know English for communicative purposes in the future. It's to your advantage if you're good at English. It's also more helpful when you go to work.*
- S5 *I want to further my study abroad. So I think I need English as it's a medium of communication. When travelling anywhere, if I know English, I can communicate with people there no matter if it's Europe, Asia or America. But just now, I think I had better finish my bachelor degree, and then I can go anywhere even in Asia.*
- M How about people who like English? What are the reasons?
- S1 *I like speaking English. I like to communicate. Now English is very very important for our life.*
- S2 *I agree. [Laughter]*
- S3 *I prefer to listen. Now I'm feeling that I can't speak English that fluently, so I prefer to listen.*
- S2 *Hmm... Me too.*

[The session continued]

Appendix G A sample of students' feedback sheet

Foundation English: Feedback sheet I (English Version)

Section _____

Answer the following questions.

1. How do you feel with the class?

___ Highest ___ High ___ Average ___ Low ___ Lowest

2. From No. 1, the reasons are;

3. What are the class activities that you like? Why?

4. What are the class activities that you dislike? Why?

5. Any comments to improve the class;
