Panel 13 : Language and Literature

Developing Instruction Based on the Integration

of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and Mobile Learning (ML)

to Enhance Students' Reading Ability

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Abstract

Recently, the role of English education in EFL context has been shifted to be more advanced due to globalized and internationalized adaptation. There are a lot of educational movements to raise standard in education. Developing the instruction that promotes cooperative learning and learning via technology is one of enhanced methods to develop education in this decade. Moreover, English has been used wider among global and international context not only for success in education but also real life usage. From these reasons, four English skills need to be developed through the effective instruction. Reading is one of crucial skills that leads learners interpret English and uses English in both educational and living purposes. This study aims to develop instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and Mobile Learning (ML) to enhance reading ability. The instruction designed is based on the synthesis of three instructional design models (Dick and Carey, 1978; Sims and Jones-3PD, 2003; and Morrison, Ross and Kemp, 2004). Consequently, there are ten components of the instruction as follows: 1) setting objectives, 2) analyzing teacher's roles, 3) analyzing students' roles, 4) designing the content, 5) identifying instructional strategies, 6) selecting learning materials, 7) designing instructional procedures, 8) designing and developing assessment, 9) evaluating the instruction, 10) revising the instruction. Finally, it is verified in terms of content validity and reliability before employing to enhance students' reading ability afterward.

Keywords: Instructional Design, Collaborative Strategic Reading, Mobile Learning, Reading Ability

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1. Introduction

Since globalization and internationalization have become as recent revolution nowadays, not only an English role but also the education need to be developed. In addition, developing English teaching and learning in this decade needs to be taken into account. Basically, educational feature among globalization and internationalization should be considered on how to provide the knowledge and experience for the learners that they can use with others in worldwide; for example, learning with peer in order to acquire interpersonal communication skill (Nerad, 2010), offering variety of learning activities (Heriansyah, 2014), and learning through innovation and technology (Chalapati, 2007). In doing so, collaborative learning and leaning through technology are remarkable choice in terms of developing English instruction to reach globalized and internationalized path.

Besides, being fluent in English is challenging for all language learners to live in the diverse globe. In order to increase fluency in using English, four skills including listening, speaking, reading, and writing need to be practiced. Especially, reading has been defined as a critical skill to achieve learning language (Anderson, 1999; Grabe & Stoller, 2011). In other word, reading is a fundamental skill that language learners employ to interpret language; for example, understanding meaning of words, phrases, sentences, and other information. Apart from that, reading ability can lead academic competence, interpersonal communication, language exposure, and culture as well (Perfetti, 2001; Sitthiprom, 2012). Therefore, developing reading skills can be basic step of developing language learning.

Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was firstly introduced by Klingner and Vaughn (1996) as instructional technique for teaching reading comprehension especially for students who have reading disabilities and difficulties. They also pointed that collaborative strategic reading (CSR) was developed to encourage students' reading comprehension, building vocabulary, and working together. Later on, Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was suggested to use in general education that includes students with special needs (Klingner & Vaughn, 1998). Moreover, Vaughn, Klingner and Bryant (2001) identified that Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) was designed for reinforcing educational purposes including learning needs of English-language learners and students with learning disabilities, instructional practice that enhances students' comprehension, and facilitating peer-mediated instruction.

Another approach for developing instruction is Mobile Learning (ML); Mobile Learning (ML) has been well-known widely as M-learning. There is a diverse definition of Mobile Learning (ML). McQuiggan, Kosturko, McQuiggan and Sabourin (2015) defined this term as the evaluation of educational technologies that can be learned everywhere and blur the lines between formal and informal learning. In educational perspective, Hussein and Cronje (2010) viewed Mobile Learning (ML) after doing a research toward Mobile Learning (ML) in higher education as "any type of learning that takes place in learning environments and spaces that take account of the mobility of technology, mobility of learners and mobility of learning". Besides, Mehdipor and Zerehkafi (2013) suggested that information and communication technology is an effective tool to enhance learning in terms of best practice and Mobile Learning (ML) will become the significant part in

education soon. Apart of these points of view, Mobile Learning (ML) is a challenging method to develop the instruction in order to promote education through technologies. That is why Mobile Learning (ML) is inserted as a part of instruction in this study for developing new face of the instruction.

As mentioned earlier, this study purposely develops the instruction that is used for enhancing reading ability for EFL learners. In order to develop the instruction, Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) and Mobile Learning (ML) are two major approaches that need to be integrated into the effective instruction for enhancing reading ability. Significantly, the methods of developing instruction need to be investigated by synthesizing related instructional framework and research. Instructional design is mainly used as a framework to develop the instruction. The research synthesis is based on three instructional design models (Dick and Carey Model, 1978; Sims and Jones-3PD, 2003; and Morrison, Ross and Kemp, 2004). All three models are considered to find the necessary elements and systems of how to develop the instruction. Finally, the fruitful instruction from synthesis is employed to enhance reading ability.

Research Objectives
1. to develop the instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning to enhance reading ability
2. to examine the quality of the instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning to enhance reading ability.

2. Method
This study is a qualitative study which aims to develop the instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning to enhance reading ability and to examine the quality of the instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning. In this section, the details of research design and research synthesis are presented.

Research Design
Following the research objectives, the research methodology is divided into five steps. The first and second steps are based on the first research objective to develop the instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning to enhance reading ability. For the first step, basic concepts of developing the instruction are investigated which emphasize on teacher and students. Moreover, instructional design is also crucially focused as developing instruction guideline. In addition, three models of instructional design including Dick and Carey Model (1978), Sims and Jones-3PD (2003), and Morrison, Ross and Kemp (2004) are synthesized.

The synthesis outcome is arranged into instructional procedures respectively. Then, the second step, the information from the first step is analysed. Besides, from third to fifth steps focus on the last research objective which is to develop instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning to enhance reading ability. The third step is to design the instruction. After that, developed instruction from previous step is examined the

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appropriateness by experts. The last step is to revise the instruction. Finally, the developed instruction is employed to use in the English class for EFL students.

Instruction Synthesis

According to the instruction design, three models of instructional design including Dick and Carey Model (1978), Sims and Jones-3PD (2003), and Morrison, Ross and Kemp (2004) are synthesized. They are presented as follows:

Dick and Carey Model of Instructional Design (1978)

The model of designing instruction was firstly designed by Dick and Carey in 1978 and developed as "System Approach Model" later on (Dick & Carey, 2001). This model based on systematic organization which presented steps by steps of procedures. Based on Dick and Carey Model (1978), the instruction is viewed as a systematic process that consists of teacher, students, materials, and learning environment and all components work together to reach successful learning (The Heritage Group Inc., 2004). This model also emphasizes on developing criterion-referenced test items with formative evaluation in order to achieve effectiveness and efficiency of the instruction (Hirumi, 2005). There are nine components in this model which arrange into steps respectively as follows: (1) assess needs to help identify learning goals, (2) conduct instructional analysis, (3) analyse leaners and contexts, (4) design performance objectives, (5) develop assessment instruments, (6) develop instructional strategies, (7) develop and select instructional materials, (8) design and conduct formative evaluation, (9) revise the instruction, and plus with extra process, design and conduct summative evaluation (Tan, 2014). According to nine processes of this model, they are expected to perform respectively as a linear system.

Sims and Jones-3PD (2003)

The 3PD Model stands for three-phase design model which delivered by Sims and Jones in 2003. This model is defined by Sims and Jones (2003) as an enhancement on traditional teaching and learning design process which integrating scaffolding to teacher and learners with a dynamic teaching and learning environment (Neal & Hampton, 2016). The model comprises of Phase 1: functionality, Phase 2: enhancement, and Phase 3: maintenance. Distance Education (2014) illustrated those three phases into its definition as follows:

Phase 1: functionality is the creating teaching and learning environment as well as providing target developing or scaffolding.

Phase 2: enhancement is the process of collaborating teacher to access the functional outcome and enhancing learning behaviour by delivering learning environment.

Phase 3: maintenance is to modify strategies, activities, and resources based on evaluative feedback.

Apart from those three phases, Sims and Jones also inserted peer review feedback and evaluation feedback in all phases. The 3PD model mainly bases on a non-traditional instruction but it is used in online collaborative environment (Neal & Hampton, 2016).

Morison, Ross, and Kemp Model (2004)

One instructional design has been introduced by Morison, Ross, and Kemp in 2004. This model considers on the learners rather than the content as traditional approach (Kemp, Morison & Ross, 1998). In other words, Morison, Ross and Kemp model (2004) served student-centred learning and technology-supported approach. The instructional design suggested by Morison, Ross and Kemp model (2004) comprised of nine elements including (1) identifying instructional design problems and specifying goals, (2) examining learner characteristics, (3) identifying subject content and analysing task components related to instructional goals, (4) starting instructional objectives for the learners, (5) sequencing content within each unit to sustain logical learning, (6) designing instructional strategies for each learner to master the objectives, (7) planning instructional delivery, (8) developing evaluation instruments, and (8) selecting resources to support learning activities. Even though this model consists of nine procedures as Dick and Carey model, each procedure here is more independently performed as a circular than Dick and Carey model.

Based on above instructional design analysis, the common components are considered into thirteen features as presented in Table 1.

Components	Instructional Processes		
	Dick & Carey (1978)	Morrison, Rose & Kemp (2003)	Sims & Jones (3PD) (2004)
Accessing needs	✓	-	-
Setting objectives or learning goal	✓	✓	✓
Testing the learners	✓	✓	-
Analyzing the roles (teacher and students)	✓	-	✓
Analyzing content (lesson, text)	✓	✓	✓
Designing content	✓	✓	✓
Identifying strategies used	✓	✓	✓
Designing instructional procedures	✓	✓	✓
Designing instructional materials	✓	✓	✓
Selecting resource	-	✓	✓
Designing evaluation and assessment	✓	✓	-
Develop instruction	✓	✓	✓
Giving feedback	-	-	✓

Table 1: Synthesis Table of Instructional Design

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According to Table 1, it presents the common components that can be found from three instructional designs are (a) setting objectives or learning goals, (b) analysing content, (c) designing content, (d) identifying strategies used, (e) designing instructional procedures, (f) designing instructional materials, and (g) developing instruction whereas analysing teacher's and students' role is appeared in Dick and Carey model (2001) and Sims and Jones Three-Phase Design (2003). Besides, Sims and Jones Three-Phase Design (2003) and Morison, Ross and Kemp model (2004) considered on selecting resource similarly. Testing the learner and designing evaluation and assessment appears in Dick and Carey model (2001) and Morison, Ross and Kemp model (2004). Noticeably, Dick and Carey model (2001) emphasized on analysing learners' needs before designing learning objective while Sims and Jones model focused on giving feedback in order to revise the instruction.

3. Results

Research Outcomes

As stated in the research objectives, this study aims to develop the instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning to enhance reading ability and to examine the quality of the instruction based on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning to enhance reading ability. This section presents the research outcome from instructional design synthesis. Plus, the instruction is inserted with integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning as the developed instruction as shown in Figure 2 and follow by the descriptions.
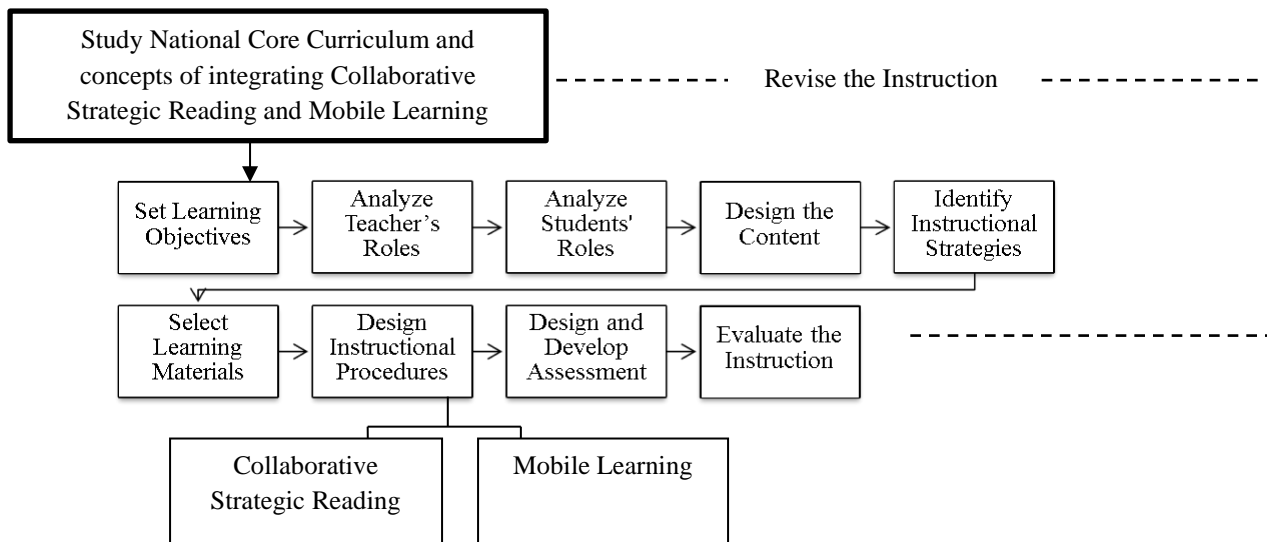

Figure 2: Developed Instruction of Integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning

1. *Study National Core Curriculum*

The instruction starts by studying the Basic Education Core Curriculum (2008) which is the core concept of designing instruction for the students. The Basic Education Core Curriculum has been established by the Thai Ministry of Education which used as the instructional guideline for formal school system. Therefore, the Basic Education Core Curriculum (2008) delivered the second step.

2. *Set Learning Objectives*

After analysing the curriculum requirement, the teacher needs to set the learning objectives appropriately together with collaborative learning in each lesson. Significantly, the learning objectives need to be measureable and observable by the teacher. This step can lead the instructional achievement not only for students but also the teacher.

3. *Analyse the Teachers' Roles*

For instructional design, analysing the teacher's role is significant because the teacher needs to perform appropriately according to his/her role. Even though this instruction focuses on Collaborative Strategic Learning, it does not mean students work with their peers alone. The teacher has to present how to use Collaborative Strategic Reading. Namely, at the first phase of teaching, the teacher teaches students about strategies used to achieve the lesson before allowing students work in group. After that, the teacher introduces and orients the lesson by using mobile device with online material e.g. video from YouTube or social media. Then, the teacher acts as the consultant when students need helps and monitors the activities throughout the lesson. In doing so, the teacher sets students as a group by assigning their roles and lesson. The teacher also monitors and controls learning procedures whether inside and outside classroom in order to ensure that the students work collaboratively. At the final phase of learning, the teacher provides areas for discussion and feedback by using online discussion website. Most importantly, the teacher needs to be aware of his/her role in terms of stimulating students to perform collaboratively in order to reach the learning objectives.

4. *Analyse the Students' Roles*

As important as analyse the teacher's roles, how to organize the roles for students is highlighted as well. In addition to this instructional model, Collaborative Strategic Reading mainly requires students' performance in peers and group learning as well as ability to use technological devices such as smartphones and tablets. The students need to be assigned their roles in order to extremely present their learning performance. All students are expected to be active and collaborative learners with their peers to achieve the tasks and learning objectives. That means they need to share their opinions, practice, and monitor the lesson actively. Besides, the students' readiness for using technological devices inside and outside classroom are considered. In addition, at the first phase, students are allowed to use mobile devices in order to

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get into the lesson and orientation. After that, they learn the strategies from the teacher. Then, students are expected to learn in group and perform as their assigned roles to complete the lesson. At the final phase, students are encouraged to use mobile devices and online materials (e.g. web blog) to discuss with their peers and the teacher.

5. Design the Context

After designing learning objectives and roles analysis, designing the learning content is followed. According to learning objectives, the students are able to (1) identify the main idea, analyse the essence, interpret and express opinions from reading feature articles and entertainment articles, (2) comprehend the lifestyles, thoughts, beliefs and origins of customs and traditions of other languages (3) understand the differences between the structures of sentences, texts, idioms, sayings, proverbs and poems in foreign languages. Therefore, the contents employed for this model relate to (a) texts, idioms, sayings, proverbs and poems in foreign languages, and (b) the lifestyles, beliefs and culture of other languages.

6. Identify Instructional Strategies

The instruction emphasizes on integrating Collaborative Strategic Reading with Mobile Learning to enhance reading ability. In addition, Collaborative Strategic Reading is the main instructional focus while Mobile Learning is employed into some parts of the instruction. Collaborative Strategic Reading has been designed for students who have reading difficulties whether in second language or foreign language. Moreover, the goal of Collaborative Strategic Reading is to improve reading comprehension by learning with peers. In addition, Collaborative Strategic Reading technique is defined as two phases that starts with reciprocal teaching instruction which the teacher teaches students toward the strategies used for achieving the lesson they read. Then peers or group learning are followed which the students learn collaboratively. There are four steps of Collaborative Strategic Reading including preview (before reading), click and clunk (during reading), get and gist (during reading), and wrap up (after reading). In other words, Collaborative Strategic Reading focuses on reading with strategies in order to comprehend the text or given task. Besides, mobile learning is put as instructional strategies that students are allowed using mobile devices such as smartphone, Tablet, and other technology gadgets whether inside and outside classroom.

7. Select Learning Materials

The criteria of selecting learning materials in this instruction bases on learning objectives as well as instruction used. That is, the materials are reading passages not only printed materials but also online resources. Other materials are mobile devices and online network in the classroom.

8. Design Instructional Procedures

Based on the identifying instructional strategies step, there is the integrating of Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning. In terms of Collaborative Strategic Reading is divided into two phases of learning including reciprocal (teacher's demonstration) and cooperative learning. In reciprocal phase, there are for steps of instructional procedure including (a) preview/before reading, (b) click and clunk/during reading, (c) get the gist/ during reading, and (d) wrap up. For cooperative learning phase, the first step is setting the stage (teacher assigns the roles for students). The second step is cooperative performing which students perform according to their roles to complete the lesson. The final step is class wrap up.

9. Design and Develop Assessment

The assessment for this instruction is pre-test and post-test. The tests are designed as an achievement test to evaluate learners' development in terms of reading ability between before and after acquiring the Collaborative Strategic Reading instruction and mobile learning. The tests mainly based on The Basic Education Core Curriculum (2008). In addition, the tests designing process include the stands and learning standard indicators of foreign languages for grade 12, the analysis, designing the tests' objective, and specifying the numbers of the tests.

10. Evaluate and Revise the Instruction

In order to evaluate the instruction, students are provided a chance to present their opinions by giving feedback and interview. In doing so, giving feedback is performed after class wraps up and interview questions are provided as well.

In accordance with the above ten instructional design procedures, developed instruction is examined by experts in order to check appropriateness of the instruction. The qualified results present that the instruction is practical to use. Moreover, the instruction is related to the concepts of developing instruction.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

Developing instruction is one of the methods of enhancing education to progressive path among globalized and internationalized adaptation. With a variety of instructional approaches, instructional design is the systematic process of delivering learning principle into practical plans (Smith & Ragan, 1999) which can support the process of learning (Gagne, Brigg & Wager, 1992). Likewise, Isman (2011) added that instructional design can help the educator visualize problems that can occur during using the instruction. This study employs instructional design from three instructional models (Dick and Carey Model, 1978); Sims and Jones-3PD, 2003); and Morrison, Ross and Kemp, 2004) as developing the instruction to enhance reading ability. Synthesis is used to figure out the common components and process that should be in instructional design procedures. The synthesized outcomes show that there are seven common components that

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appear in all models including: (1) Setting objectives or learning goals, (2) Analysing content, (3) Designing content, (4) Identifying strategies used, (5) Designing instructional procedures, (6) Designing instructional materials, and (7) Developing instruction. After gathering the data from synthesis, all components are set into the instruction but some processes are modified into ten linear steps of instruction. Moreover, in the identifying instructional strategies step, Collaborative Strategic Reading and Mobile Learning are inserted as instruction used. The developed instruction is qualified appropriateness by experts. As the result, there is appropriateness of the instruction and it is practical to use. In order to accomplish research objectives, the developed instruction is employed to enhance reading ability of the students which is the highest aim of this study.

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Thai Teachers Talk Teacher Autonomy

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Abstract

Teacher autonomy is now recognized as one of the major factors in the development of learner autonomy (Little, 1995; McGrath, 2000; Thavenius, 1999). We know that teachers who perceive themselves as autonomous are likely to exercise their own autonomy in their teaching (Yuhong and Ting, 2012); however, how they go about this is not well-known. To understand how the teacher view and operationalise teacher autonomy, the study employed case study approach to closely examined the beliefs of four English teachers at a Thai university who self-identified (through a questionnaire) as highly autonomous. These four teachers were teaching undergraduate English courses that have the development of learner autonomy as one of their key goals. The study included four semi-structured interviews with individual teachers scattering throughout a semester and a focus group discussion of these four teachers at the end of the semester. Thematic content analysis and theoretical concepts of open and axial coding techniques were employed to analyze the interview and focus group discussion data. The results showed that the teacher-participants identified three dimensions of teacher autonomy, including teacher autonomy as a teacher, teacher autonomy as a learner, and teacher autonomy as a promoter of learner autonomy. This presentation will show examples of characteristics of teacher autonomy perceived to be necessary for autonomous teachers. These results will draw a number of pedagogical implications that can be used to inform initial teacher training courses as well as, teachers' ongoing professional development.

Keywords: professional development, teacher autonomy

1. Introduction

Learning is now widely seen as a never-ending process. And promoting learner autonomy has become one of the aims in many educational contexts throughout the world (Lee, 1998; Sinclair, 2000; Wenden, 1991). Benson (2006) notes that autonomy has grown fast as an area of interest in language teaching. Autonomous learners have been shown to be motivated (Dickinson, 1995; Dörnyei and Csizer, 1998; Ushioda, 1996) and willing to actively engage in the learning process. In order for learners to become autonomous, they need to have a degree of control over the learning process. Benson (2001) suggests that learners' opportunities to make decisions concerning the management of their own learning should be provided so that they can have and experience a certain extent of their control over their learning.

However, learners seldom become autonomous without support (Nunan, 1997) and benefit from guidance in a classroom context (Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 2000). Emphasizing on this point, Dam (2000) indicates that "autonomous learning can be described as what takes place in a situation in which the teacher is expected to provide a learning environment where the learners are given the possibility to be consciously involved in their own learning" (p. 49). Autonomous learners can become actively involved in the management of the learning process and exercise freedom of choice in relation to learning resources and activities. Developing learner autonomy in a classroom context has become more interesting, as Benson (2011) emphasizes "no longer primarily a matter of individualizing learning through out-of-class initiatives, and classroom-based approaches clearly predominate" (p. 17). Nunan (1997) claimed that at the beginning of the learning process learners do not know what is best for them. The learners need support and guidance until they reach the position which they know best. Therefore, it can be said that to develop learner autonomy in a classroom context, the support and guidance from teachers and collaboration of students should be integrated (Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 2000).

The ability of teachers to help learners develop autonomy, therefore, plays an important role (Benson, 2000; Hawkins, 2000). This is because while learners are learning to exercise their rights to control their own learning, teachers must learn how to let go of their control (Dam, 2008; Smith 2003; Zou, 2011). However, in practice, control that teachers have over various aspects of their teaching may be absent. As a result, they may not be able to hand over control to their learners. In classroom contexts, experimental research shows that teacher teaching styles affect learner motivation which then affect learner autonomy (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, and Ryan, 1991; Reeve and Jang, 2006). The students in classrooms with autonomy supportive teachers display more intrinsic motivation, competence, and self-esteem than the students in the classrooms with controlling teachers do. In autonomy-supportive classes, the students show positive perceptions of autonomy, which then affect learning outcome positively. On the contrary, in the class where controlling instruction is preferred, the students perceive autonomy negatively which then affect their learning outcome negatively. This may confirm the argument made by Benson (2001) that

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"autonomy is a social construct that implies interdependence rather than independence" (p. 16), in which he emphasizes the interdependence of teachers and learners.

Thus, it might be interesting to look at teachers' roles in developing learner autonomy. One of the important factors for teachers to develop learner autonomy is that teachers should have a clear view of their attitudes and beliefs about autonomous language learning (Voller, 1997). Voller suggested three roles for teachers in the classroom, including transferring control to the learners, negotiating goals and procedures of learning with the learners, and observing and reflecting teachers' own teaching strategies. However, the roles and responsibilities of teachers do not limit themselves only in the classrooms. Their areas of responsibilities deal not only with students in class but also curriculum planning, testing and evaluation, for example. If the teachers have the power to make such decision, then they can teach or manage the classes in accordance with what they believe is best for their student. But if teachers are not allowed to take part in those activities, the options in managing their classes are then limited. Learners' level of autonomy then depends on the control of power which teachers transfer to their learners (Watson Todd, 1997). Therefore, different teachers who have different levels of control over their teaching may have different ways and levels of exercising their autonomy as well as fostering learner autonomy. Unfortunately, teachers work in an environment that they may have control over one thing i.e., classroom management but may not be able to control the others such as curriculum planning, testing and evaluation. Therefore, these factors may constrain when they try to develop learner autonomy.

How teachers deal with these challenges is one of the concerns of the field of study known as 'teacher autonomy'. The literature on teacher autonomy shows a variety of definitions used of the term 'teacher autonomy'. Some authors have provided definitions taken from existing literature on student autonomy and defined teacher autonomy as freedom from control over teaching (Shaw, 2002), as the promotion of student autonomy (Thavenius, 1999), as teachers' taking charge or taking control of their own teaching (Little, 1995), as self-directed professional development (McGrath, 2000), or as teacher-learners (Smith, 2000). Autonomous teachers are the ones who are developing themselves, in a sense of their profession, all the time. For language teachers, autonomous language teachers are the ones who are self-directed in developing both their English proficiency and teaching methods. Teachers as researchers or reflective practitioners are perceived as autonomous teachers as well. In the latter term, freedom from control by others implies the capability to act autonomously (Benson, 2001).

McGrath (2000) emphasizes that the promotion of learner autonomy is one of the responsibilities of autonomous teachers. Teachers' subject matter knowledge and teaching abilities may also influence how the teachers decide what to teach in the classroom. The teachers' decision on teaching methodologies can be shaped by their values and beliefs about language teaching. That means, when defined teacher autonomy as freedom from control, it is not only freedom from control of external factors but also from control of teachers' own assumptions, and how they look at the world in which they work (Shaw 2008).

Teacher autonomy has been shown to have strong impact on the development of learner autonomy (Aoki, 2002; Benson, 2000, Little, 1995; McGrath, 2000; Smith, 2000; Thavenius, 1999). One primary goal of teachers' works might be to promote independence, autonomy, and self-control in students. This would be difficult to teachers who have no autonomy in their work. Smith (2001) empathizes "if that sort of control isn't in teachers' hand in the first place, then they have little to 'let go' of or let students 'take control' of, at least in that particular institutional setting, however autonomous students might be outside it" (p. 5). Teaching without autonomy thus may create a condition that students would notice, and would make the development of learner autonomy meaningless for both teachers and students (Hawkins, 2000).

Therefore, it is interesting to investigate teachers' beliefs about teacher autonomy and how they view their own autonomy. This leads us to our research question:

RQ: How do teachers of English in a Thai university operationalise teacher autonomy?

2. Method

The purpose of this study is to investigate how teacher autonomy is operationalised among EFL teacher in a Thai university context. A case study approach was employed as it helps generalize meaningful themes emerging from data (Merriam, 1998).

2.1 Context of the Study and Participants

To best investigate active teachers' beliefs multiple case study was employed. This study was conducted at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT) in Thailand, where learner autonomy has been a key focus of the curriculum over the past twenty years. A survey was used to identify four teachers who had a high sense of their own autonomy. The survey, aiming to identify teachers with high sense of autonomy, was distributed to all the teachers who were teaching undergraduate students in the English Language Department at the time. In the survey, teachers were also asked if they would like to voluntarily participate in further interviews throughout a semester. The four teachers agreed to participate in this study. Three of the teachers taught the same required course--General English (GE), and another teacher taught an elective course--Academic Writing 1(AW1), as shown in Table 1.

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Table1: *The participants*

Name*	Gender	Education	Teaching Experience	Teaching Course
Amnat	Male	Doctorate	11	GE
Benya	Female	Masters	30	GE
Chaiwat	Male	Masters	24	GE
Damrong	Male	Doctorate	30	AW1

Notes: Pseudonyms are used to protect participant confidentiality

2.2 Data Collection Methods and Procedures

Two data collection methods were employed to collect data for the study over a semester: individual semi-structured interviews and a focus group interview. Four individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with each teacher, one at the beginning of the semester, and another three scattered throughout a semester. After the courses ended, the four teachers participated in a focus group interview. These interviews were conducted in Thai, which was the participants' choice, and lasted from 45 to 90 minutes. All the interviews were audio-taped, transcribed, and analyzed to elaborate participants' views.

2.3 Data Analysis

In order to analyze the data obtained from all individual interviews and a focus group interview, thematic content analysis, to identify, analyze, and report patterns within the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006), and Strauss and Corbin's (1990) theoretical concepts of open and axial coding techniques were employed. This involves tagging and coding data without predetermined categories or classifications. Open coding is "the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing, and categorizing data" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 61). During this process, the data were broken down into discrete parts, examined, compared for similarities and differences, then were labeled into categories they were reflected to. Then, axial coding were employed to put the data back together in new ways by making connections between categories and discovering subcategories in each category. This analysing method would provide the research the reliable interview results regarding their beliefs about teacher autonomy.

3. Results

The four teachers participated in this study mentioned that they all were new to the term 'teacher autonomy', even though they were the teachers who perceived themselves with high sense of autonomy from the questionnaire used for recruiting participants for this study. Nonetheless, they identified a wide range of attributes of teacher autonomy. These attributes were classified and divided into three main categories, namely autonomy as a teacher, autonomy as a learner, and autonomy as a promoter of learner autonomy.

3.1 Teacher Autonomy as a Teacher

In relation to teachers' roles, the teacher-participants viewed teacher autonomy and identified three aspects of teacher autonomy as understanding students' needs and their proficiency levels, having control of what ones want to teach, when and how to teach it, and being open-minded about adapting their teaching.

The teacher-participants determined that, first and foremost, autonomous teachers should be mindful of students' needs, both academic and emotional needs, and their levels of language abilities so that they could modify their teaching accordingly. The teacher-participants thought that autonomous teachers were responsible for choosing teaching techniques that best fit their students. Chaiwat stated, "understanding students leads to better teaching techniques, at the same time, better teaching techniques leads to teachers' ability to understand students more. They are inseparable". Besides, examining students' needs and monitoring their language proficiency levels, Amnat suggested that autonomous teachers should also considered students' preferred learning or studying methods when deciding what to do in a classroom. He mentioned, "autonomous teachers are the ones who try to understand students' language abilities and their preferred studying methods in order that the teachers can make a decision on which learning activities should be used or determine if the activities used are appropriate for the students in one particular class". He added that teachers needed to interpret students' verbal and bodily clues to those learning activities so that they knew what choices, regarding teaching techniques and learning activities, they had and chose what was best for their students.

Next, the teacher-participants determined that teachers needed pedagogical spaces where they could express their desire of what they wanted to teach in the classroom. This was emphasized by Amnat, stating that being autonomous teachers, teachers ought to be free to decide on "what they want to teach or do not want to teach". He emphasized that if teachers had no freedom to do so, they were not autonomous teachers. However, the extent that teachers should have control over their teaching was not clearly identified. Amnat, Benya and Chaiwat agreed that freedom to choose teaching methods, instructional materials and learning activity were important. Amnat explained

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that teachers should, at least, be free to introduce teaching and learning classroom activities or supplementary materials in their classes if the core parts were covered. Agreeing with this, Benya added, "the core parts, those which students have to use in completing tasks, quizzes and tests are unavoidable. Once the core parts are covered, teachers want to use some other learning activities or additional materials that they think would be useful for students". This showed that even though the content to be taught in classrooms was decided by others, it was important for autonomous teachers to have some degree of freedom of how they wanted to teach. Amnat added that he felt more confident and comfortable when he could use self-prepared materials. He mainly used his self-prepared materials and learning activities, not those which the textbook provided. Preparing his own materials, Amnat carefully studied the teacher manual and the requirements, and then he identified major components and key contents. He described, "during the course preparation, we would find out which part of the material is the main part so we could plan what we would do next". Relying on the objectives and the key contents of the course which focusing on developing students' speaking skills, Chaiwat asked his students to practice pronouncing words again and again because he thought that these were low-proficiency students, so they should practice more.

In addition, teaching equipments provided in the classroom were perceived to be an important factor in exercising their autonomy. All four teacher-participants discussed how they integrated Facebook in their teaching. They created private groups for their classes. In Benya and Chaiwat practice, Facebook was used as a channel of communication between students and the two teachers. Both teachers used it to share information regarding upcoming events and suggested additional resources for out-of-class learning. The students used it for handing in their homework and assignments. Whereas, in Amnat and Damrong practice, Facebook was used as both a channel of communication and as a part of teaching and learning activities. Their students shared their works or answers on their private Facebook Group. By doing so, both Amnat and Damrong teacher-participants believed that this would encourage learner collaboration learning.

Furthermore, the interviews showed that the teachers still seek for more control over course design. Amnat suggested that the department or course coordinator should provide communication channel where teachers' feedback on teaching could be sent anonymously. He stated, "after each class teachers should be able to send an anonymous message to a Facebook page that the department administrators can read and know how the teachers feel about the course, the facilities so that the administrators know what else can be provided". This showed that teachers still wanted to have their voices heard so that the course could be developed in the way they wanted it to be.

Finally, the data also suggested that autonomous teachers were considered as teachers who were open for new teaching techniques. Benya suggested that teachers must not stick to what they thought was best. They should be open-minded and try out new teaching techniques. She mentioned, "if teachers stick to only what they are familiar, it may hinder students' opportunity to learn new things as well".

3.2 Teacher Autonomy as a Learner

Another attribute of teacher autonomy identified by the teacher-participants was that they viewed autonomous teachers as learners. Learners in this realm meant that they were willing to learn and be able to improve their professional practice. Benya emphasized, "teachers may need to keep up and open up to the changing of time and new technology in order to lessen the gap between students and teachers, and to get along with students". More importantly, she added, "we have to be initiative so that we can change".

Moreover, self-directed professional development was perceived to be one of the most crucial factors in teacher autonomy. Damrong defined teacher autonomy, in relation to learner autonomy, as the abilities to control one's own learning. He explained, "there has to be some strategy in defining their goals and how to achieve them".

Self-development is perceived to be one of the most important aspects of teacher autonomy. Becoming autonomous teachers, the teacher-participants underscored that collaborative teaching and having more teaching experience were important. Damrong stated, "being autonomous does not mean isolation. Teachers must know what they want to do, and then know where to ask for help." Amnat added that observing other teachers' teaching might help as well. He explained, "at least, in some classroom observations, we can see that the technique which we haven't tried was being used and it was working well. On the other hand, it could be that we would have taught the class using another method and not the way the teacher in the observed class did which validates the way we teach". Benya also added that she learned a lot and got new teaching ideas from her colleagues during lunch hours. She described, "some may say that I did some stupid mistakes. Or I told them that I got some problems in class today. Or I tried to open and play a file in class, but it didn't work. So what should I do? After the talking and sharing stories, we found out that there are many solutions".

Moreover, having more teaching experience might also help teachers with their professional development. Benya emphasized, "I believed that experience is important. With experience comes confidence, so some experienced teachers know that they can adapt certain things and be more flexible". Having more experience, Amnat defined, "means teaching diverse groups of student: some classes with mixed proficiency-level students or classes with non-Thai students or classes with young learners. This kind of teaching experience would help". He explained that different groups of students may respond to certain teaching techniques and classroom learning activities differently. By trying out their teaching techniques and learning activities with different groups of students, teachers might develop their teaching and be able to modify their teaching later on. Amnat further suggested that students' reflection was useful. He always asked his students to leave comments on what they thought and how they felt about the class. The students could make a request for what they wanted to teacher to do or include in upcoming classes. From these comments, he then knew what should be done in order to improve his own teaching.

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3.3 Teacher Autonomy as a Promoter of Learner Autonomy

The last attribute of teacher autonomy which the teacher-participants identified was teachers' understanding, abilities and willingness to encourage learner autonomy in their classes. Damrong, Chaiwat, and Benya agreed that autonomous teachers had to believe in autonomous learning. Benya emphasized that teachers' beliefs about autonomy was the most important component of teacher autonomy. She explained, "the beliefs teachers hold reflect the ways they behave… it then makes students realize the benefits of being autonomous and finally want to be autonomous themselves." Chaiwat suggested that even though teachers had different teaching preferences, different teaching styles, believing in autonomous learning might gear their teaching behaviours to the way that they promote learner autonomy, whether they intended or not. Besides, he suggested that autonomous teachers should know how to encourage their students to be autonomous learners.

Damrong added, "teacher autonomy depends on how much teachers understand the term 'autonomy'." And to better understand it, teachers might engage themselves in self-access training program. Damrong emphasized, "here at this university, there have had lots of teacher training for autonomous learning. That changes our 'mindset', becoming more autonomous". Chaiwat added, "I was a spoon-feeding kind of teacher for so long. But I had changed after attending those courses. We know that autonomy leads to successful learning, so we want our students to be more autonomous".

The teacher-participants emphasized that being autonomous teachers was directly related to being autonomous learners. Damrong indicated, "being an autonomous learner is a prerequisite for being an autonomous teacher". By the same token, Amnat emphasized, "teacher's autonomy affects their learners' autonomy". He explained that when teachers knew how to improve their teaching, as well as, make decisions and control their teaching, they would know how to impart these knowledge and abilities to their students. At the same time, when students realized a degree of autonomy as a learner promoted by the teacher, eventually the students may become autonomous learners.

Nevertheless, the data showed that raising students' metacognitive knowledge and giving students choices on their learning were important in order to encourage learner autonomy. The teacher-participants suggested two ways to raise students' metacognitive knowledge, including using a self-assessment test and identifying purposes of tasks and classroom learning activities. Amnat recommended that using a vocabulary size test was one of the tools which could be used to raise students' self knowledge. He said, "I want them to know how and what materials they can access. We have a lot of materials in our Self-Access Learning Centre. But if we only tell them to just go and study anything they want, that is unlikely to be useful. They can narrow down those choices and choose the ones most suitable for them". Moreover, Benya and Amnat emphasized that making the purposes of tasks and classroom activities explicit for students was important. This could help students become more aware of task knowledge so that they could get the most out of

those tasks and classroom activities. Amnat explained, "it would be good to make it explicit. We can be sure that every student knows what we want them to understand. If we do not make it explicit, some students may not understand why we do such activities". Similarly, Benya added, "when they understand what the purposes are, they know where their focus should be".

4. Discussion and Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate how teacher autonomy was operationalised in a Thai university context. The results showed that the teacher-participants viewed teacher autonomy from three perspectives, including teacher autonomy as a teacher, teacher autonomy as a learner, and teacher autonomy as a promoter of learner autonomy. Nevertheless, these three dimensions are inseparable. Neither being free from other's control alone nor being able to promote learner autonomy alone is considered as being an autonomous teacher. These three dimensions of teacher autonomy must be viewed together to understand teacher autonomy.

From the perspective of teacher autonomy as a teacher, the teacher-participants described three aspects of teacher autonomy, including understanding students' needs and their levels of proficiency, having control over what they wanted to teach and how to teach it, and being open-minded about adapting their teaching. These aspects seem to match with the concept of autonomy as freedom from control by others (McGrath, 2000; Pearson and Moomaw, 2005) and a capacity to exercise choices of possibilities (Benson, 2000; Littlewood, 1999). The results in this study further suggest that teachers should take students' needs and proficiency levels into considerations so that they know what choices they have in their teaching. This idea corresponds to Webb's (2002) study which the teachers directly investigate students' needs and modify mandated curricula and assessments to benefit students. This shows that perceptions of freedom provided alone is not enough to develop teachers' own autonomy. Moreover, the data show that teaching equipments provided in the classroom were perceived to be an important factor of teacher autonomy. This suggests that the degree of teacher autonomy might be limited if providing teaching equipments are restricted. This supports Mustafa and Cullingford's (2008) findings of constraints on teacher autonomy, as they emphasized that lacking of particular pieces of equipment is one of the teacher autonomy constraints since it "inhibits freedom of maneuver" (p. 84).

From the next perspective of teacher autonomy as a learner, two aspects of teacher autonomy were indicated, including teachers being autonomous learners themselves and teachers engaging in collaborative teaching. These aspects of teacher autonomy are directly related to the point that Little (2000) highlights, teachers can only develop learner autonomy when they are autonomous themselves. This emphasizes the need to encourage autonomy in teachers themselves which can be done through teacher education processes and self-directed professional development (Benson and Huang, 2008; Smith 2001; Smith and Erdögan, 2008). Moreover, collaborative

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teaching was pointed out in this study as one of the methods teachers may use to develop themselves in relation to their pedagogical skills. This method is clearly supported by Wang and Zhang (2014) that this helps develop teacher autonomy. However, administrator or course coordinators have to keep in mind that collaborative teaching only to the extent that teachers go to observe other teachers' classes or providing technical and emotional supports are essential for teachers to develop teacher autonomy. Nevertheless, team teaching where each teacher involved in each other's teaching cannot support teacher autonomy as the teachers no longer have control over their teaching, as they are not free from their colleagues (Ostovar-Namaghi, 2012).

Finally, teacher autonomy was viewed from the perspective of teacher autonomy as a promoter of learner autonomy. Two aspects of teacher autonomy were pointed out, namely believing in autonomous learning and willing to promote learner autonomy. The role of autonomous teachers to encourage learner autonomy in their teaching is emphasized by many scholars (Breen and Mann, 1997; Dam, 1995; Little, 1995; Sinclair, 2000). Teachers are responsible for helping their learners gradually learn how to manage their own learning and lead them to change their attitudes towards autonomous learning.

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Teacher Perceptions, Practices, and Challenges of Learner Autonomy:

A Case Study of Northeastern Thailand Rajabhat Universities

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Abstract

The current study aimed to investigate 1) northeastern Thailand Rajabhat University instructors' perceptions of promoting learner autonomy, 2) the instructors' practices in promoting learner autonomy, and 3) the instructors' challenges in promoting learner autonomy. The participants were 84 instructors teaching in northeastern Thailand Rajabhat Universities selected by purposive sampling. The research instruments were a questionnaire and an interview session. The data were analyzed by mean score, standard deviation, and descriptive analysis. The results of the study showed that even though the instructors understood concept of learner autonomy, they only partially felt that they supported learner autonomy in their classes as the result of difficulties in systematic structure of Thai education and leaners themselves. The result of the study could benefit both teachers and scholars who seek to study situation of learner autonomy in the region.

Keywords: Learner autonomy, teachers' perception, learner autonomy practice, teaching challenges

Introduction

In the new trend of learning in the 21st century, teachers becomes less empowered in the classrooms (Gua, 2014). Instead, learners are expected to be more independent about learning goals, styles, evaluations, strategies etc. The idea of learner autonomy (LA) has become an ideal learning setting for decades as it is believed to be the supportive environment to learning and acquisition of knowledge (Hui, 2010)

In language classrooms, scholars has been encouraged instructors to pay more attention to the promotion of learner autonomy to their classrooms (Benson and Voller, 1997; Littlewood, 1996, 1999; Palfreyman, 2003). For instance, Littlewood (1996, 1999) claimed that active involvement of learners should be promoted by enabling autonomous learning that allows learners to take roles that normally belong to teachers such as setting learning objectives, selecting learning materials, and assessing learning progresses. Moreover, Palfreyman (2003) also portrayed benefits of LA in the sociological point of view. According to the researcher, a classroom with learner autonomy environment could improve quality of language learning, support democracy and human right, and promote life-long learning.

Nevertheless, learner autonomy could not be promoted without the role of teachers. Benson (2011) claimed that "in order to foster learner autonomy, teachers themselves must display a degree of autonomy in their approaches to teaching and learning" (p.185). Teacher autonomy does not mean that learners completely control the class; however, teachers should act as the felicitators in order to promote democratic learning community (Little, 2004). Therefore, it is important for teachers to know their role in the classes since it is impossible to promote LA with the absence of teacher autonomy.

However, teacher autonomy could not simply promoted in the EFL context especially in such a country with culture of seniority dominance. To explain, instructors, respected as the senior leader of classes, dictate all the processes of learning without negotiation and agreement of learners who also are pleased to be involved in the class as passive recipients doing whatever written in the curriculum (Keyuravong & Maneekhao, 2006). Even though the government attempts to change the teacher dominance in Thai classrooms have been put since the mid-90s, the teacher-centred teaching approach still remains a problem in the Thai EFL context (Naruemon, 2013). Although it is not easy to change the behaviours of Thais in teaching and learning, understanding current situation might lead to relief of the problems and promotion of learner autonomy. Therefore, the purpose of the current study was to study current situation of Thai EFL context regarding to teacher perceptions, practices, and challenges of learner autonomy.

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Literature Review

Definition of learner autonomy

Scholars have put attempts to describe the concept of learner autonomy (LA(, and one of the well-known definition was "ability to take charge of ones' own learning " (p .193(given by Holec)1981 .(Later, the concept of LA was described into more concrete meaning .For example, Nunan)1997 (present five principles in promoting learner autonomy including raising awareness of learners, involving in goal setting, intervening in goal modification according to learner needs, creating own learning materials, and moving beyond their own role -from learners to facilitators for others .Benson)2001 (insisted that self-management and sense of responsibility in learning process are the main components of autonomy .Moreover, process of learning management, cognitive process, and learning content should belong to learners in order to promote learning autonomy. White)2003 (added that sustainable collaboration of learning experiences between learners and instructors could be managed with learners ' responsibility and control of learning process . To sum up, learner autonomy could be promoted by learners ' chances in decision making, independence of learners to instructors, psychology of learning)e.g., motivation and confidence (, and level of autonomy)awareness, involvement, goal setting, connection between classes and real world.(

Teacher role in promoting learner autonomy

As mentioned before, learner autonomy could not be promoted without teacher autonomy .Little)2004 (indicated that teachers need to aware of learner autonomy in all processes of their instructions .Scholars have presented ideas of how teachers should act in order to promote learner autonomy .For example, Knowles)1975 (indicated that teachers should act as facilitators, helpers and consultants for learners instead of class dictators who take control all processes of classes .Nunan（1997）urged that active participation, monitoring, consultation, and guidance should be main responsibilities of teachers in classrooms with learner autonomy .In addition, learning strategies instruction should be one of the main responsibilities for teachers as it supports learner autonomy)Yang, 1998 .(Moreover, Xu & Xu)2004 (indicated that psychological issues are also important for promoting learner autonomy, therefore; the role of teachers should be encouragers of learner motivation and confidence in learning with autonomy environment .

Related studies

Several studies have been conducted to investigate EFL instructors' perceptions on managing classrooms with learner autonomy (Camilleri, 1999; Chan, 2003; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012; Shahsavari, 2014; Duong, 2014; Doğan & Mirici, 2017). The results of the study reveal different perceptions of teachers toward learner autonomy. For example, the study of Chan (2003) indicated that instructors in Hong Kong believed that their learners have right to study in the learner autonomy setting. However, the restriction of education policy forced teachers to take control the learning processes. Moreover, they believed that teaching methodological decision should belong to teachers. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) studied 61 Oman instructors' perception on learner autonomy and found that teachers believed in theoretical benefits of learner autonomy, however; they were in doubt in feasibility of the method. In Thailand, Doung (2014) studied EFL teachers' perception on learner autonomy with the majority of Thai participants. The result of the study showed that although the instructors seemed to understand the concept of learner autonomy, they found it was very difficult to practice.

This study

Because of the importance of learner autonomy in the learning of 21st century, scholars have put attempts to generate leaner autonomy environment to language classrooms. In Thailand, although the idea of children-centered classrooms has been promote for decades, it seems that the situation of active teachers and passive learners could not be solved easily. In order to promote learner autonomy, the understanding of teacher perceptions could shed the light on its success. The previous studies showed the different results of teachers' perceptions, practices and challenges in promoting learner autonomy. The current study aimed to investigate the similar aspects of learner autonomy in Rajabhat universities in northeastern Thailand where the instructors face the different types of learners in order to provide information for promoting learning autonomy in the future with the following research questions.

1. What are northeastern Thailand Rajabhat university instructors' perceptions of the concept of learner autonomy?
2. Do the instructors promote learner autonomy in their classroom?
3. What are challenges of promoting learner autonomy faced by northeastern Thailand Rajabhat university instructors?

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Methodology

Participants

The participants were 84 instructors teaching in 5 northeastern Thailand Rajabhat universities and selected by purposive sampling method. The participants had more than 1 year teaching experience and hold at least master degree in the fields related to English. All the participants were treated anonymously.

Research instruments

Two research instruments were employed: a questionnaire and an interview. The questionnaire was adopted from Doung (2014) which found internal reliability of Cronbach's alpha at .77. The questionnaire consists of three parts which are background information, instructors' perception of learner autonomy with 13 question items and instructors' activities that support learner autonomy including 8 question items. The questionnaire aimed to investigate instructors' perception and practice of learner autonomy in terms of decision making, independence of learners, psychology of learning, and level of autonomy. In order to check understanding of autonomy concept, false concepts of learner independence were added to the questionnaire. Moreover, 5 participants randomly selected from each university were interviewed with the purpose to investigate challenge of promoting learner autonomy.

Data collection and data analysis

The data were collected in August 2017 using the questionnaire. The result of the data collection was analysed by mean score and standard deviation. The selected participants were later interviewed on the topic of challenges in promoting learner autonomy in Thai context. The data were analysed by descriptive analysis method.

Results of the study

Instructors' Perception of Learner Autonomy Promotion

Table 1 instructors' perception of learner autonomy

Question items	Mean	S.D.
Autonomy means that learners can make choices about how they learn.	4.12	0.78
Learner autonomy is promoted when learners have some choice in the kinds of activities they do.	3.93	0.75
Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials.	3.88	0.81
Total	*3.97*	*0.78*
Learner autonomy requires learners to be entirely independent of the teacher.	2.44	1.16
Learner autonomy is promoted by independent work in a self-access centre.	2.51	1.14
Total	*2.47*	*1.15*
Learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed.	3.12	1.05
Motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated.	4.59	0.67
Confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence.	4.41	0.84
Total	*4.04*	*0.85*
Learner autonomy means that learners are aware of their own learning (e.g., setting goals, developing strategies, and determining content of materials).	4.39	0.59
Learner autonomy means that learners are involved in making choices from a variety of goals, content, and strategies.	3.83	0.84
Learner autonomy means that learners can modify the goals and the content of the learning program.	3.33	1.12
Learner autonomy means that learners can create their own learning styles (e.g., setting goals, developing content of materials, and creating learning tasks).	3.54	1.00
Learner autonomy means that learners can make connections between the content of classroom learning and the world.	4.32	0.79
Total	*3.82*	*0.86*

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According to the table, it is shown that instructors reported their perceptions of learner autonomy concept in terms of decision making at the level of high ($\bar{x}$ = 3.97, S.D. = 0.81), independence of learners at the level of low ($\bar{x}$ = 2.47, S.D. = 1.15), psychology of learning at the level of high ($\bar{x}$ = 4.04, S.D. = 0.85), and level of autonomy at the level of high ($\bar{x}$ = 3.82, S.D. = 0.86). It could be inferred that participants understood general concepts of learner autonomy since they agreed with the true concepts of leaner autonomy and were not be distracted by the false concepts consisted in the questionnaire.

Instructors' practice in promoting learner autonomy

Table 2 Instructors' activities in learner autonomy promoting

Question items	Mean	S.D
Decisions are made on the basis of teacher - learner agreement and negotiations.	3.54	0.84
Learners can make choice about learning materials.	2.63	1.04
Total	*3.05*	*0.94*
Learners are encouraged to develop learning strategies to achieve their own goals.	3.78	0.76
Learners develop their own study plans.	2.78	1.13
Learners identify their own needs.	3.15	1.24
Total	*3.23*	*1.04*
Learners evaluate their own learning.	3.49	1.10
Learners reflect on their own learning.	3.59	1.07
Learners monitor their progress in learning English during the session.	3.73	0.95
Total	*3.6*	*1.04*

According to the table, it could be seen that the participants reported that they performed activities to promote learner autonomy in terms of decision making at the level of average ($\bar{x}$ = 3.05, S.D. =0.94), learner independence at the level of average ($\bar{x}$ = 3.23, S.D. =1.04), and psychology of learning at the level of frequent ($\bar{x}$ = 3.6, S.D. =1.04). It could be inferred that the participants could not insist that they promote leaner autonomy while teaching in terms of decision making and learner independence. However, they report that they promote learner autonomy by promoting psychology of learning.

Challenges in Promoting Learner Autonomy

The interview session was held to gather information of challenges that the participants face in teaching. 5 participants gave the information which could be categorized as follow.

- *Decision Making*

In terms of decision making, most participants report that they found the problems at the systematic level. They reported that the requirement of submitting lesson plan in the form of the TQF 3 (Thai Qualifications Framework for Higher Education) was the great challenge. The document informs how instructors would teach and evaluate the students and is normally required to be submitted before the semester starts. Therefore, it was very difficult to make an agreement with students about the content, material, and evaluation methods.

- *Lerner Independence*

In terms of learner independence, it is reported by the interviewees that challenges in guiding learners to set their own goals of learning was the great challenge. In Rajabhat Universities, learners came to the system without the clear goals. Some of them just wanted to study in the university without knowing what they were going to do. Therefore, encouraging goals of study was not an easy task. Moreover, the participants were afraid that if they let the students to be too much independent, the students might think that the teachers did not do their work.

- Psychology of learning

In the case of psychology of learning, the participants reported that it was the practicable aspect. They felt encouraging students to be motivated and confident was the instructors' job, and progresses of learning could be monitored all the time if the evaluation were done regularly.

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Discussions

The results of the study showed that even though the instructors understood concept of learner autonomy, they only partially felt that they supported learner autonomy in their classes as the result of difficulties in systematic structure of Thai education and leaners themselves. The result of the study supported the study of Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) and Shahsavari (2014). It seems that learner autonomy could not be easily established in the EFL context since it has limitation in pedagogical management.

However, comparing to the similar study of Doung (2014), it found that the belief of instructors in managing classrooms with learner autonomy has been changed. In Doung's study, participants reported that they did not manage classes to have characteristic of learner autonomy and felt it was not feasible to encourage autonomous learners. However, in this study the participants reported that they saw possibility to encourage students to learn and allow them to see their learning progresses.

In addition, the result of the study also showed tendency in promoting learner autonomy in EFL context. In the study of Chan (2003), teachers reported that even though they respected learner rights, they still felt that class activities should be in their hands. However, it seems that instructors are more likely to accept the importance of learner autonomy as it has been reported in the results of several studies (Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) and Shahsavari, 2014; Doung; 2014). Moreover, the result of the current study also reports changes in instructors' belief. Consequently, it seems that the situation of learner autonomy has been improved, and the method may be fully established in EFL context in the future.

Conclusion

The study could be summarized that instructors in northeastern Thailand Rajabhat University understood the concept of learner autonomy. However, they partially supported learner autonomy in practice since there were many difficulties related to pedagogical policy and learners' way of thinking.

The result of the study could benefit instructors in terms of adaptation to learning and teaching in the 21st century. It could not be denied that instructor role has been lessened. Teachers need to adapt themselves and promote learner autonomy for the sake of their teaching and learners' achievement. Moreover, the result of the study could benefit scholars who seek to investigate the situation of leaner autonomy in Thai EFL context. The information reported in this study might be a part of establishing learner autonomy in the context.

Even though the research questions were answered by the results of the study, there were some limitations in the design of the study. First, the study was designed only to survey the participants' opinions which might not be reliable. The next studies should be conducted with mixed method design in order to gain more reliable information. Moreover, the number of the participants might be considered too low. The future studies might expand the size of samples. Lastly, the questionnaire consisted of only three aspects of leaner autonomy in the instructors' teaching activities session which was not equal to the instructors' perception session. Therefore, it was quite dubious to compare the results of the two sessions. The future studies might redesign the questionnaire in order to get more reliable information.

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Student politics in higher education: Of Grants, Funds,

Fees Must Fall and the lack thereof:

A comparative study of South African and Zimbabwean University

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Abstract

In this presentation, I attempt to make a comparison of university students from South Africa and Zimbabwe in relation to protests. I attempt to answer why students with learning resources, such as scholarships, and grants engage in violent activities such as burning of the university properties, yet students in social and economic (without scholarship and grants) deprived society like Zimbabwe are able to sail through studies without violent means? Could it be the militarisation of universities in Zimbabwe/ South Africa? In responding to these question, I used questionnaires and interviews of students in both countries and I also draw from my personal experiences as student and lecturer in both countries. I ground this presentation in decoloniality theory. I conclude the presentation by arguing that non-violent teaching and learning in universities is the lack (not) of scholarship, grants and learning resources but political forces which are always at contestation via university students and that Zimbabwe and South African universities need to reconstruct, re-imagine and re-engage students incognisance of emerging lived realities premised in new understanding of democracy and free education.

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Language Transfer: Spanish Errors Influenced by L1 Interference

in Thai Students of Spanish

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Abstract

In the process of foreign language learning, there are many factors influencing the language acquisition. One of the most controversial factors is Language Transfer, which has been extensively investigated in the past few decades. This study focused on the interference or negative transfer with the aim of discovering types of interference of Thai language that cause errors or non-Spanish constructions in Spanish writing. The data used in this research was 22 Spanish 10-days diary written by Thai students of Spanish language of Khon Kaen University. The results claimed that there were eight common types of errors influenced by Thai interference which were (1) misuse of prepositions, (2) absence of the verb *Ser*, (3) misuse of the verb *Tener* and *Haber*, (4) misplace of adverbs, (5) misuse of infinitive (6) L1 sentence structure (7) lexical analogy, and (8) misuse of number and gender of noun and adjective

Regarding to the results, it is shown that L1 interference can involve significantly in various aspects of language transfer. Those types of interference are discussed respectively. Thai learners of Spanish not only make mistakes influenced by their mother tongue, but also produced other errors, which were not considered interference errors, such as misuse of articles, verb conjugation, tenses, word misspelling and misuse of punctuations which need to find possible solution in the learning strategies.

Key words: Language transfer, interference, negative transfer, Spanish and Thai

1. Introduction

Language Transfer can be defined as «the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired» (T. ODLIN 1993:27).

Interference or negative transfer is the linguistic terms used for describe the influence of native language toward the target language and this influence provokes a significant error in learning other languages. Even though the mother tongue (L1) interference is not a new trend in second language acquisition research, it is still playing as an important factor to be considered and to be treated by proper solutions.

When refer to language transfer, it's necessary mentioninterference or negative transfer, and cross-linguistic interference because all mentioned terms are trying to explain systematically the same linguistic phenomenal: the negative influence of L1 on the performance of the target language. This type of interference error is also known as *interlingual* errors which unavoidably link with Interlanguage, another term influenced by interference.

It is undeniable that Thai students get used to their mother tongue, when learning Spanish they often turn to the help of mother tongue and maintain the cognitive process in L1 to produce their own languages which is no L1 or L2, and often causes erroneous effects. Many times Thaistudents will think in their Thai and then literally translate it into the Spanish so the Thai interference does interfere significantlytothe use or learning process ofSpanish.

This article aims to explain Thai interference thatoccurs in Spanish sentence in many aspects because it is one of the main problematic language phenomenal caused by distinctive linguistic elements of two different language families. The language transfers between Spanish and Thai cab be either positive and negative but this study will not concentrate on similarities between both languages, the focusing point will be the differences existing between both.

2. Review of Literature

Language Transfer can be defined as «the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired» (T. ODLIN 1993:27).

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This concept is therefore connected to that of interlanguage influence. This transfer can be either positive or negative. Positive Transfer occurs when those similarities in the mother tongue and the target language can facilitate the learning. Negative Transfer, however, refers to the negative influence that the knowledge of the first language has in the learning of the target language due to the differences existing between both languages.

When learners of second language want to write or speak in the target language, they tend to rely on their firstlanguage structures. If the structures are different, then a lot of errors occur in L1thus this indicates an interference offirst language on second language (Decherts&Dllis, as cited in Bhela, 1999, p. 22). Interference is the errors that canbe traced back to the first language, while the learners use the second language (Lott, as cited in Bhela, 1999, p.22). Dulay et al (1982) define interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. A learner has difficulties in second language such as phonology, vocabulary and grammar due to the interference of habits from L1 and L2 (Beardsmore, 1982). Those errors that occur in learning of second language cause interference which are categorized asfollows: 1. Developmental errors: the errors that are not related to learner's first language. 2. Ambiguous errors: the errors that involve interference and developmental errors. 3. Unique errors: those errors whichcannot be categorized neither in interference nor developmental errors.

Interference is the result of old habits of the firstlanguage, and it must be unlearned before the learning of the new hobbits of second language (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen,1982).The causes of errors found were mainly from the interference of L1 in relation to the direct translation, the differences of syntactic properties between L1 and L2, and the transfer of L1 systems in L2 writing.Olsen (1999) notes that some EFLwriters cannot create an effective written work due to the inadequacy of syntactic and lexical competence, whichat times makes them confused with the systems of the target language they are learning.

Besides, to quote Weigle (2002), "*because of the constraints of limited second-language knowledge, writing in a second language may behampered because of the need to focus on language rather than content*" (p. 35). She also claims that it isimpossible for L2 students to write in a second language properly without linguistic knowledge regardinggrammar and vocabulary. That is, L2 writing can be more difficult if syntactic properties of the two languagesare very different, which makes L2 students rely on their first language when writing in a second language.

Bhela (1999) explored errors in L2 student writers. The participants from four different contexts, includingCambodian, Italian, Spanish and Vietnamese, were assigned to write stories according to the pictures given.Then the L1 interference types found in each written story were classified. The errors caused by the mothertongue were as follows: 1) Apostrophe, 2) Punctuation, 3) Spelling, 4)

Prepositions, 5) Capital letters, 6) Present & past continuous tenses, 7) Subject pronouns, 8) vocabulary, and 9) Passive & active voice.

Thep-Ackrapong (2005) points out that grammar is perceived to be the most difficult aspect of learning Englishfrom the Thai students' points of view. She divides the influence of the mother tongue into six main categories: 1)Subject-verb agreement, 2) Topic-comment structure, 3) Passive voice, 4) Relative clause, 5) Participial phrase,and 6) Subordination. She urges that these six discrepancies are often made by Thai students not only in writingbut also in translating the target texts. Watcharapunyawong,S and Usaha, S. (2013) figures out in their researchThai EFL Students' Writing Errors that the first language interference were classified into 16 types : *verb tense, word choice,sentence structure, article, preposition, modal/auxiliary, singular/plural form, fragment, verb form, pronoun,run-on sentence, infinitive/gerund, transition, subject-verb agreement, parallel structure, and comparison structure.*The Interference of the First Language thatBennui (2008) did his research on L1 interference found in Thaiuniversity students' paragraphs. He applied the Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis concepts to identifyL1 interference types. According to the study results, he classified L1 interference into three main categories: (1)L1 lexical interference: This sort of interference happens because of the lack of lexical competence.Furthermore, the vocabulary levels of the two languages are different; therefore, when writing or translating inEnglish, Thai students normally use a form of direct translation, which leads to the errors in terms of wordchoice. The sub-categories of L1 lexical interference are *1) Literal translation of vocabulary use, and 2) The useof Thai words (*2) L1 syntactic interference: This category is related to grammatical errors found in students' writing. Hedivides this interference into seven sub-categories as follows: 1) *Word order of Thai structure, 2) Subject-verbagreement, 3) Tense,4) The infinitive, 5) The verb 'have', 6) Prepositions, and 7) Noun determiners.*

To be more specific about the Spanish and Thai study of L1 interference, it is found unfortunately that there is still no academic movement related to this field. For this reason, the author decided to collect the document review from other similar studies related to language transfer and L1 interference of other languages to be a reviewing resource. This study will be the pioneer work in the field ofcontrastivestudy between Spanish and Thai where we can find the patterns of language interference.

3. Statement of the problem

Thai students often use the L1 strategies in their L2 writing because of some similarities in L1 and L2. Many cases were found that the students' competence of the Spanish is not enough; they chose to trust on their mother tongue structure to express their ideas. Even though this reliance can be positive, most of time negative effects were found and leading to the problem that needed the solution to avoid communication problem in writing.

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4.Objective of the study

To find out common types of interference of Thai language that cause errors or non-Spanish constructions in Spanish written task of Thai students. The statistic result will be not discussed in this study.

5. Subject of the study

22 third-year-Spanish major students who enrolled in Spanish Writing II course of the 1/2016 academic year at Khon Kaen University were the subject of this study. All of them have a similar academic background in writing Spanish as they had studied in Spanish Writing I course from the previous semester.

6.Instrument

10 days' diary written in Spanish by 22 third-year-Spanish major students was used as instrument of this research. Student were allowed to use dictionary when redacting their diary and had a plenty of time to complete what they do during 7 days.

7. Analysis of the data

7.1 Misuse of prepositions
(1) Quiero ver la televisión y navegar (por) internet.

I want to watch television and serve the internet.
(2) Llamé *a* un taxi para ir al aeropuerto.

I called a taxi to go to the airport.
(3) Es muy difícil *para* olvidarlo.

It is very hard to forget it.

As for prepositions, most of the errors correspond to the use of a verb + preposition structure. Use of preposition in Thai is quite flexible that most of time is not a question about errors. The preposition can be neglected or added in the same sentence that express the same meaning without error, just a small distinctive sense of language register. So, Thai students make a lot of errors when using Spanish prepositions. Thai grammar is soft and full of elasticity, not so strict in the grammatical correction.

The sentence (1) is the omission of the preposition *por* (*for* or *by* in English), which is incorrect in this Spanish sentence, in this case preposition is necessary to correct the sentence. Sentence (2) as well the overuse of preposition occurs, no need to use preposition *a* (to in English). This kind of prepositional overuse is affected by Thai interference and *intralingual* effect. In Thai we don´t need any preposition to express this meaning meanwhile in Spanish needs it when the verb is transitive using with human being direct object. In this case the direct object is not a human being, so it´s incorrect to put the preposition. The Spanish grammar of prepositions is quite rigid and has no elasticity. On the other hand, sentence (3) shows the overuse of preposition *para* (for in English) this kind of sentence in Thai sentence structure there are possible way to use or no use preposition in this case. The common sense of Thai native speakers is to put preposition to connect the adjective to the verb. That´s the reason why Thai students makes this similar error influenced by L1 cognition. From this grammatical point, it is considered an error from interference because Thai native speakers get used to use a preposition to connect this type of structure. Thai prepositions in can be used very differently and many of them are acceptable in both written and spoken languageThe sentence (2) is an absence of the Spanish preposition *a* (to in English), which is incorrect in Spanish.

7.1.1 Overuse of prepositions

(1) *En* la semana pasada fui al mercado para hacer las compras.

Last week I went to the market to do the shopping.

(2) *En* aquí la gente nos llama...

Herepeoplecallus...

(3) Me gusta la asignatura y para el tema *en* hoy es interesante.

I like this subject and the topic today is interesting.

Sentence (4) -(6) show that students use unnecessary prepositions. As mentioned previously Thai language owns a flexible rule of using preposition and in many cases no consider error. Sentence (4) the preposition *En* is found as error because in Spanish it is incorrect to use any preposition, but in Thai it is widely found prepositions when expressing about timing: days, weeks or months. Sentence (5) the preposition *En* is overused before the adverb of place like *aquí*, *allí* or *ahí* (here, there, over there). In Thai it is quite common to say ณ ที่นี่, ณ ตรงนั้น(in here, in there). The same case as sentence (6) students put *en* before hoy. *En* hoy is translated literally ในวันนี้ (in today). These example sentences show clearly the influence of mother tongue when using Spanish prepositions.

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7.2 Absence of the verb *Ser*

    (1) En esta semana es el fin de semana que *(es)* muy largo…

       This weekend is the long weekend…

    (2) BuriramUnited, el equipo de fútbol que *(es)* muy famoso en Tailandia.

       Burriram United, the football team that very famous in Thailand.

    (3) Mañana será el festival SongKran que *(es)* más famoso en Tailandia.

       Tomorrow will be SongKran Festival that most famous in Thailand.

The use of verb *ser* is a big problem not only for Thai learners, but also for almost every non-native Spanish learner. The confusion of using the ser is mixed with the verb *estar*. Both of the act like verb to be in English, but it is more complicated in use. In the case of Thai transference, it is not really about the confusion between *ser* and *estar*, but the absence of *ser* appears in sentence after relative pronoun *que*. Many Thai students don't put *ser* between que and adjective as in the example sentences (7), (8) and (9). Thai students often forget, or unconsciously making error, to connect verb *ser* after *que* to the following adjective. The hypothesis of L1 interference is in Thai syntactic structure there is no need to put verb between subject and adjective. The explanation to show, (direct translation in English);

-   คุณสวยมาก   You(are) very beautiful.
-   ข้อสอบนี้ยาก   This test (is) difficult.
-   ฉันอยากกินอาหารอร่อย   I want to eatfood delicious.

7.3 Misuse of verb *Tener* y *Haber*

    (1) Hoy *hay* la fiesta de graduación de los matador6.

       Today is the graduation party of the sixth matador.

    (2) Me dijo (ella) que *hay* los medicamentos nuevos.

       She told me that there are new medications.

    (3) Esta semana *hay* muchos deberes y un montón de proyectos que entregará….

       I have a lot of homework and a lot of projects to do this week that I will handon…

According to Thai meaning to express the existence of things and personal possession, we have only one common use. We use the same verb มี, no matter is about existence of things or personal owing. The difference between then is the subject of the sentence. From this reason L1 influences directly when Thai students use Spanish verbs *Tener* and haber to talk about existence and possession. Both Spanish verb have their unique use: *Tener* need a subject and the verb will be conjugated agreeing with it subject to show the personal owing. On the other hand, *Haber* is commonly used to show the general existence of things. It is impersonal use of possessing and

normally it is used as only singular form. So, the hypothesis for this error is quite clear why Thai students get confused and commit very often this kind of error influenced by L1

7.4 Misplace of adverb

(1) No voy de compras *mucho* porque no tengo dinero.

I won´t go shopping often because I don´t have money.

(2) Normalmente no hablo español *mucho*.

I don´t speak Spanish often.

(3) En mi tiempo libre voy de copas *mucho* con mis amigos.

In my free time, I often go to drink with my friends.

One of the most common error influenced by L1 is the misplace of adverb. Due to word order in Thai, in this case about adverbs of quantity, *mucho* in sentence (13) - (15) must be placed at the last position, which is incorrect in Spanish word order. In this case the adverbs have to be changed the position immediately after the main verb as the following correction (13) No voy *mucho* de compras. (14) Normalmente no hablo *mucho* español. And (15) En mi tiempo libre voy *mucho* de copas. The interference of Thai for adverb position affects obviously in Spanish sentence.

7.5 Misuse of infinitive

(1) Después de *volví* del viaje,...

After returning from the trip,...

(2) Cada día después de *me levanté*,...

After getting up every day, ...

(3) Antes de *conozco* a ese amigo,....

Before meeting that friend, ...

Thai language doesn´t have infinitive verb form. This grammatical inexistence has caused a big problem for Thai students. Sentence (16) – (18) show us that students don´t have enough level of sentence analysis or don´t possess enough level of syntactic knowledge. They produce this kind of sentence quite often without realizing the errors. The verbs (volví, me levanté and conozco) have to maintain the infinitive form when appearing after preposition. Such as, después de *volver*, después de *levantarme* y antes de *conocer*.

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7.6 L1 sentence structure

(1) Bebí agua más que 2 litros.

I drank more than 2 litres of water.

(2) A mí me gusta la comida japonesa más que la comida coreana.

For me I like Japanese food more tan Korean food.

(3) En dos semanas que viene hay un festival en mi ciudad.

In next two weeks, there is a festival in my city.

The negative transfer of L1 sentence structure is quiet strong. Most of time the grammatical errors were not found and the language can be understood by native speakers but it doesn´t sound native or natural. Sentence (19) the student tried to use Thai structure in the sentence by using literal translation and the exactly same word position in Thai in Spanish sentence. The correction should be *Bebí 2 litros de agua*. Sentence (20) also shows the Thai comparative structure where *más* and *que* show up together, so the students tried to copy the L1 structure into the target language structure. The correct versión should be *A mí me gusta más la comida japonesa más que la coreana*. Sentence (21) as well, shows the interference of Thai literal translation and sentence structure. Even though grammar errors are not found but it is hard to understand easily.

7.7 Lexical analogy

(1) Por la tarde *encontramos* un gran problema en la granja.

In the afternoon we have a big problem in the farm.

(2) Ahora estoy muy *seria* con esta tarea.

Now I am very focusing on the task.

(3) Tuve un accidente y mi sangre *no paró fluir*.

I had an accident and I still was bleeding.

Another Thai interference is lexical comparison between Thai words and Spanish words. When students have to use similar words in meaning like *encontrar (meet), buscar (find) or tener (have)*, they have a big problem and commit errors as we see in sentence (22). It is not about grammatical error but a sense of sentence not being clearly expressed. For sentence (23), students are misunderstood the word *seria* (serious) and the word *atento* (attentive). In Thai *seria*can be seen as attentive or pay attention, in Thai word จริงจัง or ตั้งใจ. So, this kind of lexical analogy form mother tongue was found quiet often. Sentence (24) is both grammatical and communicative error. *Mi sangre no paráfluir (*my blood no stop flowing) was used in the meaning of bleeding but it is the very direct translation by using Thai word in Spanish sentence where it is difficult to understand. The simple correction is *estoy sangrando* instead of *no paró fluir* to send the reasonable meaning.

7.8 Misuse of number and genderof noun and adjective

(1) Nuestras actividades fueron *bueno*.

Our activities were good.

(2) Hoy voy a conocer ciudades muy *bonitos*

Today I am going to see nice cities.

(3) Mis amigos no vinieron a *nuestro cita* en el estadio.

My friends didn´t come to our meeting in the stadium.

(4) La gente son muy *amables*.

People are very kind.

One of the most frequent errors is the misuse of number and gender. The main cause for the error is Thai language doesn't have the system of number and gender of nouns or adjective. The Spanish grammatical can be ignored easily because the students are distracted by another more complicated grammar use. Sentence (25) and 28 show the misuse of number of adjective that must be agreed with the subject; plural subject. Meanwhile, sentences (26) - (27) are the error of wrong gender of the adjective that must be followed the gender of the subject; feminine subject.

8. Discussion and Conclusion

Spanish and Thai are two different languages that stay far away geographically and linguistically from each other. There is no doubt that Thai students make many errors when using Spanish in writing and speaking. From this reason it is very curious the way that how Thai Influences Spanish sentence construction and those influences become officially the L1 interference.

This study tried to figure out that curiosity by using 10 days' written diary of 22 Thai students of Spanish to be a tool of this study. The results revealed that Thai students produced frequent errors caused by Thai interference categorized into 8 types of errors which are (1) misuse of prepositions (2) absence of the verb *Ser* (3) misuse of the verb *tener* and *haber* (4) misplace of adverbs (5) misuse of infinitive (6) L1 sentence structure (7) lexical analogy, and (8) misuse of number and gender. The statistic result was not mentioned in this study. We focused especially on how Thai language interferes Spanish and which are the interference errors.

(1) Misuse of preposition is one of the interference result that has become a big obstacle for Thai students. We found three kinds of errors regarding to misused prepositions: 1. Overuse of preposition 2. Wrong choice of preposition. The finding cause was the variety and the

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flexibility of Thai prepositional use. Many aspects of Thai preposition are accepted and considered correctly without remarkable notification of errors.

(2) Absence of the verb *Ser*. Thai students shared the same problem when writing long sentence and that sentence is connected by the relative pronoun que followed by adjective. They often omitted verb *ser* when have to connect que and adjective because of in Thai construction there is no need to apply any verbs to joints the relative pronoun to adjective, in this case.

(3) Misuse of the verb *Tener* and *Haber*. According to Thai grammar we don't differentiate the verb form when expressing the existence of things in generally and the personal possession. From this reason when Thai students use the verb tener and *haber*, its meaning is to have, they feel free to use either of them to express the same thing, which is incorrect in Spanish.

(4) Misplace of adverb, in this case relating to adverb of quantity. Thai students still maintain their cognition to L1 when using Spanish. They get used to place any adverb of quantity, in this case is *mucho* at the back of the sentence. In Thai this position is correct but in Spanish is opposite.

(5) Misuse of infinitive. As we discussed in the result section that Thai language have no use about verb conjugation or have no grammatical rule about verb form. Thai students when using verb after preposition they don't realize the error of verb form that have to keep the infinitive form to hold the grammatical correction. They often don't be careful enough because when using verb, the conjugation is needed of all time.

(6) L1 sentence structure. It is one of the most interesting phenomenal of linguistic between L1 and L2. It can refer to another important linguistic term Interlanguage as well. In this study we found some errors that show obviously the application from Thai to Spanish. It can be considered as well the literal or direct translation from Thai to Spanish. Although any grammatical mistake was not found, the sentence didn't make native sense and caused bad communication.

(7) Lexical analogy. It is a natural habit for L1 learners of a foreign language. When their lexical competence is not good enough, they tried to apply and compare L1 words to use in target language pattern. Thai students most of time get confused with the words that can change meaning in distinctive situations and they were not able to make a right choice for the best word in that context.

(8) Misuse of number and gender of noun and adjective. It's not a surprising error for the two different languages as Spanish and Thai. Due to the inexistence of this grammatical element, Thai student make frequently this type of errors. In this study we found the error about no-agreed number singular and plural between nouns and adjective, and no-agreed gender between masculine and feminine.

The eight types of errors show very remarkably that Thai interference is playing very important-negative role in Spanish construction, both grammatical errors and non-Spanish sense errors, although L1 interference is not the unique problem in learning target language. This leads us to realize the importance of the existing language interferences. The next possible question is how to handle with them effectively in order to create the proper didactic tools in order to reduce or relieve the negative transfer as much as possible.

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