The Students' Opinions towards the Teaching Learning in the Course ENL-417

Nattida Pucharoen

College of General Education and Languages

Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology

2013

ABSTRACT

The purposes of this research were 1) to study opinions towards teaching learning in the course ENL-417 (Listening and Speaking skills in English) of Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology students in five aspects: curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructor and others (evaluation and supporting resource), 2) to compare the students' opinions deviated by sex and faculty, and 3) to gather supplemental suggestions. Research samples were 120 Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology students in summer 2012 derived through simple random technique. The instruments used for gathering the data were the rating-scale and open-ended questionnaire. The statistics employed for analyzing the data were frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation and content analysis.

The research findings were as follows: 1) effects of students' opinions towards teaching learning speaking skills as a whole were at high level. When considering each aspect carefully, it was shown that the students had a high level of opinions on Curriculum, Teaching materials and Instructors, while their opinions towards teaching-learning process was at a moderate level. 2) There were no statistically significant differences from genders and faculties for male and female students. 3) Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology students had supplemental suggestion: to change the curriculum to various dimensions and to organize more activities in teaching-learning process, and to demonstrate the same standard between Thai and foreign instructors.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background

It is argued that language learning is regarded as the cornerstone of human existence. Knowing the language can help us to express our opinions, hopes, and even our dreams (Tavil, 2009). In foreign language learning context, there are various factors that influence the learning process such as motivation, attitudes, anxiety, learning achievements, aptitudes, intelligence, age, personalities, etc. (Gardner, 1960; lehmann, 2006, cited in Shams, 2008). The matter of learner's attitude is acknowledged as one of the most important factors that impact on learning language (Fakeye, 2010). This study looks into the concept of attitude as one of the major affective factors for success in learning a foreign language.

Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology has been operated under the philosophy of "disseminating knowledge, building economic base". The objective of the Institute is to generate human resources who have abilities in technological advancement and industrial management. Moreover, TNI concept of program administration is to focus on the students' language skills- the students will be able to communicate in Japanese and English. In order to achieve in the TNI objectives, TNI has provided English Listening and Speaking Skills course which was an elective course for students from all faculties from each faculty to enroll (TNI Student Handbook: 2010: 24). The assessment of satisfaction in learning, however, is one of the most significant factors to motivate learners to be interested in English learning. Due to English is the subject used for communicating in globalization age, the satisfaction in doing English activities is a pleasure derived from physical environment, a pleasure from participation and a pleasure from absorbing the activities (Allyn & Bacon. 2003). Moreover, the human satisfaction is presented in a form of abstract behavior. To recognize the satisfaction in learning is originated from observations. Now a day, TNI has offered the English courses for students from all faculties for at least 4 years. However, TNI has lacked of a well research to find out information to verify the assessment of satisfaction of the students towards English listening and speaking subject and the methodology to encourage students to learn English effectively and efficiently in order to achieve in the TNI objectives included the needs and the motivations. Nowadays, classroom teaching is to teach the students the new knowledge by lecturing and any other types of the old-fashioned techniques. The teachers must make the well-defined lesson plans to indicate the objectives of the study, teaching-learning techniques as well as the evaluation and learning outcomes (Penkhae Prachonpachanuk 2009:1-2). In addition, the teachers should introduce the learner centered technique in their classroom teaching. According to this, Malcolm Knowles (1970: 39-41), who is known as the founder of Adult Education in the United States, explained that in order to help adults to learn, we should use the special type of teaching which is called Andragogical Model or Learner Centered Model.

In addition, Penkhae Prachonpachanuk suggested the main concept of learner centered (2009:1-2) as she demonstrated that the learners have former experiences in learning

activity; the learners are dependent and able to do their own learning; learning outcomes will be more effective when the subject centered style is shifted to the problem centered style; learning activity is arranged to adapt with the learning needs of the learners to the evaluation of learning outcomes; and the teachers will facilitate the learners to learn step by step, that is to create the learning climate, diagnose the learning needs, formulate the objectives and design into the learning experiences, select the suitable techniques and experiences and finally evaluate the learning outcomes. Three most important things in learning are learning atmosphere, participation in learning and flexible teaching method and techniques (Knowles, 1970: 40). At present, the learner centered technique of teaching is accepted and applied in schools around the world. Moreover, some other new techniques are also introduced in teaching the classes. The learners' former experiences are used in their own learning. Self-study, therefore, is used as a significant part of learning activity. Hence, the language learning is arranged from various channels to the students. In Thailand, the technique of learner centered model was used in schools at all level. Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, the College of General Education and Languages has also started to use this teaching model since 2008 to teach English and Japanese language to the students.

In teaching the course ENL-417 (Speaking and Listening Skills in English) in summer 2012, the teachers will use the learner centered teaching model in teaching the course. At the end of the course, the teachers intend to find out the effectiveness of this teaching model that happens to the teaching learning of the course, by asking the opinions of the students who had studied in the course towards the teaching learning in the course.

Thus, in this research, the researcher will study TNI students' opinions towards the teaching learning in the course in summer 2012 at Thai-Nichi institute of Technology by using the questionnaire ENL-417 asking the students' opinions towards their learning teaching processes. This research will be categorized into 5 aspects: curriculum; teaching-learning process; teaching materials; instructors and others (evaluation and supporting resource). This survey research is purposely focused on TNI students from 3 faculties: Business Administration, Engineering and Information Technology in 2012 academic year who took the course ENL-417. In this way, the results gains from the research will be used as a channel to solve, improve and develop teaching-learning of the course ENL-417 as well as teaching materials to be more effective and efficient.

2. Research Purposes
The purposes of this research were 1)to study opinions towards teaching learning in the course ENL-417 (Listening and Speaking skills in English) of Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology students in five aspects: curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructor and others (evaluation and supporting resource), 2) to compare the students' opinions deviated by sex and faculty, and 3) to gather supplemental suggestions. Research samples were 120 Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology students in summer 2012 derived through simple random technique.

3. Research Method

A. Populations and Samples

Populations and samples were as follows:

The Population of this research will be 120 TNI students in 3 faculties: Business Administration, Engineering, and Information Technology who take the course ENL-417 in summer 2012.The samplings of this research will be 90% of the population or 108 students derive through Simple Random technique from the above mentioned population.

B. Variables in study

Gender

Faculty

Major

C. Research Instrument

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section consisted of personal data which were gender, faculty and major of the students. The second section consisted of 40 questions in 5 aspects emphasized on curriculum; teaching-learning process; teaching materials; instructors and others (evaluation and supporting resource). 5 point scale was applied to answer this section, which are 1= "Strongly disagree", 2="Disagree", 3="Neither agree nor disagree", 4= "Agree", and 5= "Strongly agree". The third section was open-ended questionnaire which consisted of 5 aspects mainly focused on students' opinions and suggestions to investigate the further improvement of the course ENL-417.

D. Data analysis

The data was analyzed by using computer program. The statistics used for analyzing the data were frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, t-test, F-test, and content analysis.

4. **Organization of the Study**

The study on opinions towards teaching learning in the course ENL-417 (Listening and Speaking skills in English) of Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology students is divided into five chapters:

Chapter One is an introduction to the study which provides background, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, definitions of terms, scope, significance, and organization of the study.

Chapter Two is the review of literature.

Chapter Three describes the methodology of the study.

Chapter Four is the presentation of the findings.

Chapter Five provides conclusions, discussions and recommendations for further study.

Definition of Terms

For this study the following terms were defined:

1.   Opinion - Standards or attitudes involving a readiness for a certain response which can be a cooperative decision making or identified by a verbal statement.

        1.1 In curriculum, opinions of TNI students in curriculum such as English textbooks are suitable to level of learners, contents of textbooks are arranged from basic to advance. Moreover, the contents of English textbooks are appropriate for practice and application, and schedule of time management in learning are also appropriate. Learners can also apply instruction to their daily lives which are 3 hours per weeks and curriculum. And curriculum is employed in learner-centered style.

        1.2 In teaching-learning process, TNI students' opinion such as supplementary materials are applied in the classroom, learning by doing is taught in classroom, learner-centered techniques are employed in the classroom, listening and speaking are taught by foreign teachers every week, self-study is applied in and outside the classroom, summative test is used in each unit, and criteria of evaluation is suitable.

        1.3 In teaching materials, TNI students' opinions such as video clips from YouTube, multimedia, PowerPoint, English songs and other materials are used in the classroom, sound lab room is provided for learners appropriately, and teaching materials on the internet is employed in the classroom to enhance reading, listening and speaking skills. Computer-Assisted language learning is applied in the classroom. Cooperative learning, problem solving, questioning, and small group discussion are integrated in activity of each unit, and supplementary materials are suitable to learners.

1.4 In instructors, TNI students' opinions such as instructors make learning environment to support good environment in the classroom. Instructors are such idols in learning English for learners, new contents are inserted by instructors to motivate learners in English learning, instructors develop and apply new knowledge to learners, instructors give opportunity to learners to ask questions both in the class and outside of the class, instructors explain the importance and goals in learning English language to learners, and instructors have techniques and excellent skills in teaching English.

1.5 In others (evaluation and supporting resource), TNI students' opinions such as evaluation of results of examination is suitable, evaluation of results of self-learning activity is suitable, evaluation of both practicing and theory part is suitable, Wi-Fi internet provided both in classroom and outside the classroom is suitable, computers in the classroom are modern and appropriate for learners, classroom environment is suitable and textbooks and referenced books are provided in library appropriately.

2. Students – The 120 TNI students from 3 faculties namely Faculty of Business Administration, Faculty of Engineering, and Faculty of Information Technology in summer 2012 which derived from their enrollment in Listening and Speaking skills in English course.

3. The questionnaire – The questionnaire for assessment of satisfaction with method of teaching-learning activities based on learner-centered techniques in Listening and Speaking skills (ENL-417) to TNI students which was divided into three sections. The first section consisted of personal data, such as genders, faculty and major of the students. The second section consisted of 40 questions in 5 aspects: curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructors and others (evaluation and supporting resource). Respondents used 5 point scale to answer this section, which are 1= "Strongly disagree", 2= "Disagree", 3= "Neither agree nor disagree", 4= "Agree", and 5= "Strongly agree". The third section was open-ended questionnaire which consisted of 5 aspects mainly focused on students' opinions and suggestions to investigate the further improvement of the course ENL-417.

Conceptual Framework

Independent Variables

- *Genders*
- *Faculty*
- *Majors*
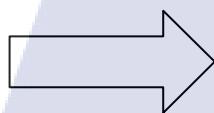
Dependent Variable

Opinions with method of teaching-learning activities based on learner-centered techniques in Listening and Speaking skills in English of TNI students in 5 aspects;
- *Curriculum*
- *Teaching-learning process*
- *Teaching materials*
- *Instructors*
_ *Others (Evaluation and Supporting resources)*

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews background of Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology and related theories: Theory of Teaching and Learning process, Theory of Learning, Theory of Listening Strategies and Theory of Teaching of Speaking.

Background of Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology

Philosophy of TNI

Technology Promotion Association (Thailand-Japan), the TNI's founder, has been operated under the philosophy of "disseminating knowledge, building economic base" reflecting the clear direction and goal in the operation and services of TPA thoroughly over 35 years which as a bridge of technology dissemination on management and engineering from Japan to the Thai personnel widely, TPA has taken a major part in cultivating human resources to be competent in knowledge and skills in order to help develop the Kingdom's economy.

TNI establishing committee contemplated that the philosophy of TPA and TNI regarding organizational operation must be in accordance with each other in order to proliferate the value of activities and services and expand the servicing role by aiming TNI to be an academic institute focusing on creating and developing the Kingdom's personnel, a resource for creating new knowledge and a channel for disseminating knowledge to society, especially industrial sector. Therefore, the TNI philosophy for operation is for operation is for "Developing knowledge, enriching industry for economy and society"

Mission

"Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology is an academic institute which was established to be an academic and high-level specific vocational centre, a resource to develop the Kingdom's personnel in industrial technology and administration to be excellent in academic

area, applying and disseminating knowledge to society by adhering virtue and social conscience"

Objective of TNI

The objective for establishing TNI is to provide education at undergraduate level focusing on technology, social sciences and humanities. The TNI's missions are teaching, producing graduates, conducting researches, providing academic services to society and maintaining arts and culture of the Kingdom which are to provide education at undergraduate and graduate levels in the fields of science, technology, social sciences and humanities by focusing on practice and theoretical knowledge, to be a leading academic institute in the area of research and development and to create modern knowledge continuously, to be the center of competent academics and consultants of the nation as well as to promote the cooperation of high level knowledge research, to strengthen the role of researchers in creating the enterprise and industry in Thailand, to transfer technology from Japan and other countries by linking the relationship with academic institutes, governmental and private organizations in Japan and other countries in order to create cooperation by exchanging in term of experts, research and development programs, educational trainings and study tours to other countries, to provide academic services to society such as short-term courses, trainings, consultancy for industrial entrepreneurs as well as the exchange of knowledge in technology to entrepreneurs, administrators, engineers and industrial technicians, to encourage activities which help preserve and arts and culture of Thailand and Japan (Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, 2010:10)

The objective of TNI Teaching and Learning Program

Graduates of TNI are competent in skills based on the demand of Thai industry, practice and theory application. In language skills, they are able to communicate in Japanese and English. Moreover, they are able to work for Thailand-Japan joint venture companies or Japanese investors, and manage their own business.

TNI Concept of Program Administration

For TNI concepts of program administration are divided in five aspects as follows.

1. Technology advancement has been rapidly changed; therefore, competency development of personnel according to the technological diversification has become significant. Therefore, TNI's concept of program administration focusing on the Competency-Based Education to prepare students for performing their job based on demand of entrepreneurs. The competency covers the following areas.

2. Technical Competency, which is the specific competency of every certain course. Every program aims their students to be practitioners and experts in applying theories, principles, concepts and technologies into their work through different teaching processes such as working in workshops, conducting projects, taking study tours and training for the entrepreneurs, inviting Thai and Japanese experts to share experiences and study tours to Japan, etc.

3. Managerial Competency, TNI provides basic knowledge and skills in business administration for entrepreneurs that can be applied in the levels of individual, group and organization, therefore, TNI graduates shall have high potentials for prospect careers.

4. Language Competency, TNI concerns about the significance of communication, knowledge and the exchange of knowledge and borderless technology. Therefore, TNI emphasizes language competency in speaking, reading and writing. Apart from English courses and elective courses, TNI students have language competency in English and Japanese business communication so that they can be competitive in labor market and have opportunity for continuing their further study in Japan and other countries.

5. Ethics and Human Relation Competency, TNI adds teamwork concept and ethics in performing their work in every program. TNI graduates can utilize their discretion to analyze and make decision in any operation by considering principles of rightfulness and justice. (Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, 2010: 12)

Theory of Teaching and Learning Process

In the 1980s several researchers developed models of the teaching/learning process that summarized much of what was known about increasing test scores (e.g, Cruickshank 1985; Proctor 1984; Squires, Huitt, Segars, 1983). At the same time that researchers were focused on accounting for all the factors related to school achievement, others developed models of effective teacher practice (e.g., Hunter, 1994; Rosenshine, 1995;

Slavin, 2003). A major problem that envelops all these models is that they focus on improving test scores; yet the public is concerned about students' character, self-esteem, and social development (Gallup, 1975, 1980). In this regard, the public seems more knowledgeable than the researchers about indicators of adult success in that student achievement, level of education, or measures of academic intelligence account for at best one third of the variance related to adult success (Gardner, 1995; Goleman, 1995). Recent attempts to hold schools, and especially teachers, totally responsible for student achievement presents a problem in that there are multiple factors not under the control of building-level educators that contribute to educational achievement (Huitt, 1999).

The following model is an attempt to consider most of the possible answers to the question: Why do some students learn more than others? According to the model, the reasons can be classified into four categories.

A Transactional Model of the Teaching/Learning Process	
Context	All those factors outside of the classroom that might influence teaching and learning
Input	Those qualities or characteristics of teachers and students that they bring with them to the classroom experience
Classroom Processes	Teacher and student behaviors in the classroom as well as some other variables such as classroom climate and teacher/student relationships
Output	Measures of student learning taken apart from the normal instructional process.

Output

The most important of these categories is the Output category because the variables in the rest of the categories are used to predict or relate to the variables measured in this one. For example, when we ask "Why do some students learn more than other students?" we must

first be clear about what we mean by "learning". We must also be clear about how we measure learning.

At the present time in this country, when we say "How well or how much has the student learned" we mean "How well has the student done on a standardized measure of student achievement in the basic skills of reading, listening and speaking?" If we change what we mean by learning (we want to know how much Science or Social Studies students have learned or we want to know if they have developed appropriate social skills) or if we change the particular measure of learning, then we may change the important variables that relate to student learning. As we will see, there are a variety of outcomes that are important in today's world (such as cognitive development and character) that are not presently discussed when we talk about student learning. I believe the most important category is Output because once that has been defined it impacts the importance of the variables in the other categories.

Classroom Processes

The second most important category, at least from the perspective of the educational institution and educational psychology, is the classroom processes category. This includes all the variables that would occur in the classroom. There are three subcategories: Teacher Behavior, Student Behavior, Other.

The category of Teacher Behavior consists of all the actions a teacher would make in the classroom and includes three additional subcategories: planning, management and instruction.

The Teaching/Learning Process
Classroom Processes
Teacher Behavior
Planning
Management
Instruction
Student Behavior (Academic Learning time)
Content Overlap
Engagement
Success
Other
Student Leadership
Classroom Climate

Planning refers to all of those activities a teacher might do to get ready to interact with students in the classroom. Management refers to controlling student behavior, while instruction refers to actually guiding student learning. There are a variety of specific teacher classroom variables that have been related to student learning. For example, Walberg (1986), in a meta-analysis of teacher effectiveness research found support for the following individual variables:

- Use of positive reinforcement
- Cues and corrective feedback
- Cooperative learning activities
- Higher order questioning
- Use of advance organizers

However, Roseshine (1995) showed that the approach to instruction labeled direct or explicit instruction was most likely to positively impact on learning as measured by scores on standardized tests of basic skills. Alternatively, changing the desired outcome measure puts the focus on different instructional methods. For example, if the desired outcome is creativity

and independence, the open education may be a better alternative (Giaconia & Hedges, 1982). Alternately, if better relationship among diverse students is the goal, the cooperative learning would appear to be the better instructional method (Slavin, 1995). Therefore, it is important to specify desired outcomes and their measures before decisions are made as to the implementation of specific instructional methods.

Given the moderate correlations between teacher behavior and student learning as measured outside the classroom, however, it seems prudent to focus on student behavior within the classroom and the impact that teacher behavior has on that set of variables. Student behavior includes all of the actions a student would make in the classroom and includes one very important variable (at least in relationship to predicting student achievement on standardized tests).

A high level of Academic learning time means that 1) students are covering important (tested/evaluated) content; 2) students are "on-task" most of the class period; and 3) students are successful on most the assignments they complete. These three variables can be relatively easily measured and can be considered the vital signs of a classroom. If all of these are appropriate, there is a high probability that the classroom is functioning well. However, if any one of these variables is lower than expected, further inspection of classroom processes should be undertaken.

There are a variety of other classroom factors which have been related to student achievement such as the classroom climate and the opportunity for students to engage in leadership roles.

One of the most important concepts that has been developed in educational psychology during the past 30 years is that classroom process variables are the most direct link to student achievement (Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986). More specifically, the teacher's classroom behavior (incorporated in the categories of planning, management and instruction) has a direct influence on student behavior (most importantly, Academic learning time) which, in turn, is most directly linked to measures of student achievement.

The Teaching/Learning Process

Classroom Process

Teacher behavior

Student behavior

Other

Output

Student achievement
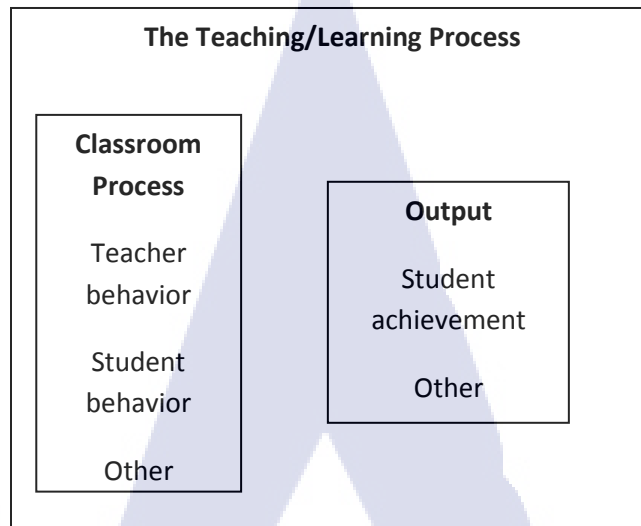
Other

Input

The third major category of variables, Input, refers to descriptions of teachers and students prior to their coming into the classroom. There are again two important subcategories: Teacher Characteristics and Student Characteristics. Some important subcategories of teacher characteristics include the teacher's values and beliefs, knowledge, thinking and communication skills, performance skills, and personality. Of course, there are many more possible subcategories, but these seem to be the most important.

The Teaching/Learning Process

Input

Teacher Characteristics

Student Characteristics

Classroom Processes

Teacher behavior

Student behavior

Other

Output

Student achievement

Other
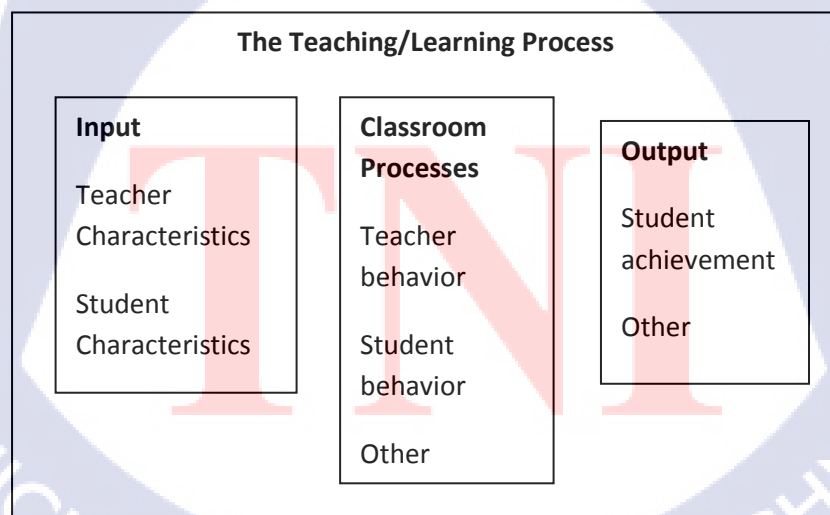
The most important teacher characteristic (in terms of predicting how well teachers will perform in the classroom as well as student achievement) seems to be the teacher's values and belief or more particularly teacher efficacy (Ashton, 1984). This variable is a measure of

the teacher's belief that students can learn and that he/she can teach. Another important set of teacher characteristics includes the teacher's knowledge with respect to the content domain (knowledge of subject matter to be taught), human growth and development (theories, topics, and stages), learning theory and the teaching/learning process (concepts and principles as well as their application in formal and informal environments).

Theories of learning

Learning is one of the most imporatant activities in which humans engage. It is at the very core of the educatioanl process, although most of what people learn occurs outside of school. For thousands of years, philosophers and psychologists have sought to understand the nature of learning, how it occurs, and how one person can influence the learning of another person through teaching and similar endeavors. Various theories of learning have been suggested, and these theories differ for a variety of reasons. A theory, most simply, is a combination of different factors or variables woven together in an effort to explain whatever the theory is about. Ingeneral, theorys based on scienctic evidence are considered more valid than theories based on opinion or personal experience. In any case, it is wise to be cautious when comparing the appropriateness of different theories.

In addition to formal theories, people hold personal theories, including theories of learning and teaching. Some typical questions such theories might involve are: How does one determine if learning has occurred? What factors determine whether or not learning occurs? Are these factors located in the environment or within the individual?

This entry focuses first on different conceptions and definitions of learning. Next, the evolution of theories and conceptions of learning over the past 100 years is discussed, highlighting some of the advantages and limitations of different theoretical perspectives. Following a discussion of the relationship between theory and practice, examples of different types of learning are presented, and the appropriateness of different theories for different learning situations is pointed out.

Conceptions of "Learning"

Understanding any theory requires a clear idea of what the theory is trying to explain. When a particular word is used, people usually assume everyone has a common understanding of what the word means. Unfortunately, such is not always the case. In trying to understand the various theiories of learning and their implications for education, it is helpful to realize that the term "learning" means different things to different people and is used somewhat differently in different theories. As theories of learning evolved over the past half-century, definitions of learning shifted from changes that occur in the mind or behavior of an individual to changes in participation in ongoing activities with other individuals to changes in a person's identify within group (e.g., a change from being a follower to being a learder). Although, most definitions of learning involve a change in an individual's knowledge, ability to perform a skill, or participate in an acitivity with other individuals, there is considerable variation among the theories about the nature of this change.

Further difficulty in understanding similarities and differences among various theories results from the frequently overlooked fact that there are different types fo learning. In many cases, the various theories are relevant to different types of learning and are not necessarily incompatible with one another. Rather, they provide different perspectives on the complex phenomena of learning and complement one another in their ability to explain different types of learning situations. Thus, radically different theories are relevant to the classroom by addressing different aspects of classroom learning.

Evolving Theories of Learning

The modern psychological study of learning can be dated from the work of hermann Ebbinghaus (1850-1909), whose well-known study of memory was published in 1885. Other early studies of learning were by Edward L. Thorndike (1874-1949), whose dissertationon problem solving was published in 1898, and Ivan Pavlov (1849), whose research on classical conditioning was begun in 1899 but first published in English in 1927. These theories focused on explaining the behavior of individuals and became known as behavioral theories. These theories use a stumulus-response framework to explain learning and dominated psychology and education for over half a century. Because behavioral theories focus on environmental factors such as reinforcement, feedback, and practice, they conceptualize learning as something that occurs from the outside in.

Behavioral theories provide very good explanations for certain kinds of learning but poor explanations for other types of learning. Operant conditioning, for example, is better than other theories at explaining the role acquisition of information, the learning of physical and mental skills, and the development of behaviors conductive to a productive classroom (i.e., classroom management). In these situations, the focus is on performing behavioral tasks rather than developing a learner's cognitive structure or understanding. Although classical conditioning frequently is dismissed as irrelevant to human learning, this type of learning provides by far the best explanation of how and why people, including students, respond emotionally to a wide variety of stimuli and situations. The many types of emotional reactions acquired through classical conditioning include: anger toward or hatred for a particular person or group, phobias to a particular subject area or to school itself, and infatuation with another person. However, they are very poor at explaining how individuals come to understand complex ideas and phenomena.

But environmental factors are not the only ones that influence learning. Serious consideration of other perspectives began to enter mainstream psychological thinking about learning during the 1960s. For example, people clearly learn by observing others, and a learner's belief about his or her ability to perform a task (i.e., self-efficacy) plays an important role in their learning. In 1963 Albert Bandura and R.H. Walters published the first formal statement of social-learning theory in their book, Social Learning and Personality Development. Social-learning theory has clear roots in behavioral theory but differs from these theories in significant ways. During the 1980s the theory became known as social-cognitive theory. Although essentially the same theory, the new name more accurately reflects the cognitive features of the theory and aids in differentiating it from behavioral theories of learning.

During the 1970s and 1980s conceptions and definitions of learning began to change dramatically. Behavioral theories gave way to cognitive theories that focused on mental activities and the understanding of complex material. An information-processing metaphor replaced the stimulus-response framework of behavioral theories. These theories emphasized that learning occurred from the inside out rather than from the outside in. During the late 1970s John Flavell and Ann Brown each began to study metacognition – the learners' awareness of their own learning, and ability to reflect on their own thinking, and the capacity

to monitor and manage their learning. During the mid 1980s the study of self-regulated learning began to emerge.

Then, especially during the later 1980s and the 1990s, these cognitive theories were challenged by theories that emphasized the importance of social interactions and the sociocultural context of learning. The work of the Russin psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1986-1934) first became available in North America and along with the work of anthropologists such as Jean Lave began to have a major influence on theories of learning. Individuals were seen as initially participating in peripheral activities of a group (known as legitimate peripheral participation) before becoming fully integrated into group activities. Apprenticeship became a metaphor for the way people learn in natural settings. The notion that people learn by observing others, first articulated in social-cognitive theory, was expanded in a new context.

Traditionally, learning has been viewed as something that occurs within an individual. Individuals may participate and learn in groups, but it is the individual person that learns. With few exceptions, the educational systems in Europe and North America have adopted this perspective, if not entirely with regard to instructional practices, certainly in the evaluation of student performance and the assignment of grades. many psychologists and educators currently consider learning to be a phenomenon that is distributed among several individuals and/or environmental affordances (such as calculators, computers, and textbooks) or situated (existing or occurring) within a "community of practice" (or community of learners). Both a social and a material dimension are involved in this distribution (Pea, 1993). For example, a student may use a calculator to help learn how to solve a three-digit multiplication problem (the material dimension) and/or work with another student to understand the proper procedures to follow (the social dimension). In either case, the student is not learning totally on his or her own but is taking advantages of resource (affordances) available in the environment. If the student is not able to solve a subsequent problem without the aid of the calculator or another student, then it is possible to see the distributed nature of learning. In such situations, participation or activity rather than acquisition becomes the defining metaphor (Greeno, 2006).

The evolution from behavioral to social to distributed to situated theories of learning was accompanied by new conceptions of knowledge (for a good discussion of these changes,

see Schraw, 2006). Traditional theories conceive of knowledge as a commodity capable to being transmitted, more or less intact, from one individual to another. According to these theories, knowledge is something an individual acquires; when a student successfully learns it, he or she can reproduce the knowledge in its original form. In contrast, more recent theories conceive of knowledge as something each learner constructs or creates afresh rather than something that is assimilated in its preexisting form. According to current theories, truly "objective" knowledge does not exist, although something similar exists in the form of collective knowledge within a particular culture or discipline. Knowledge resides in the community of learners (individuals) that creates it and is distributed among members of the community and the various environmental affordances available to the group. Because each person constructs his or her own understandings, the knowledge they acquire is unique. Communities and cultures are composed of individuals with common understandings, and these groups provide opportunities for new members (e.g., children) to construct similar knowledge of the world through schools and/or a variety of informal activities.

The 1990s were dubbed "The Decade of the Brain," and huge advances were made in neuroscience and how the brain relates to human behavior and learning. The study of how the brain relates to learning is in its infancey (for an introduction to some of the issue, see Bransford et al., 2006). An understanding of how the neurophysiology of the brain affects learning and cognition will add greatly to our understanding of human learning and have a large influence on future theories of learning. Nevertheless, a psychological component to these theories will remain critical for learning in educational settings. Education as it is presently understood is based on psychological processes and interactions capable of being influenced by instruction, and it seems likely that psychological interventions will continue to be important for the foreseeable future.

The relationship between theory and practice

The relationship between theories of learning and educational practices is complicated by several factors. One would think that instructional practices should be based on the best theories of learning available, but this relationship is not as straightforward as one might think. Schools and educational practices are far more likely to be based on philosophical beliefs than on empirical studies and theoretical understanding of learning. Schools are established according to different community and cultural beliefs about the world, the nature

of humankind and children, locus of authority, and what should be learned. Schools also differ in their beliefs about teaching and learning, but the philosophical beliefs often come first. Every educational system and instructional program contains a theory of learning, although frequently this theory is implicit and goes unrecognized.

These philosophical and theoretical differences are formidable. Many have endured for centuries, and the debate is unlikely to end anytime soon. For example, the "factory model" of schooling dominated education in the United States for many years. This model is based on production and management procedures successful during the industrial revolution. It stands in sharp contrast to the voices of Henry David Thoreau (1817 – 1862), John Dewey (1859 – 1952), and others who advocated discovery, social reform, and freedom as the appropriate means of education. Both perspectives are clearly evident in modern-day discussions of education and instructional practices.

The correspondence between these philosophical perspectives and the various theories of learning is quite apparent. Classroom activities in a traditional classroom, for example, revolve around and are controlled by the teacher, who presents the to-be-learned material and dictates the type of learning activities in which students engage. Students are expected to study the information (via classroom activities and homework) until it is mastered. The knowledge being learned is seen as a commodity being passed from one individual (the teacher) to another (the student).

Very different classrooms emerge from different philosophical perspectives. If one believes, for example, that knowledge is something created afresh by each student, that learning occurs from working on authentic tasks in a social environment, and that the mental activities of the student determines what he or she learns, then the resulting classroom is likely to be one in which students work in groups and/or on projects, discussing how best to solve a problem, or negotiating the meaning of a concept. Once again consistency exists between theoretical beliefs and classroom practices. However, it is not always clear which comes first, for there is evidence that individuals seek out and accept information that confirms their existing beliefs while tending to reject information that would disconfirm those beliefs.

This reality leads to another realization regarding the relationship between theory and practice, namely that the relationship is two-way. A common belief is that knowledge flows from scientific theories to the development of effective practices, that sound theories of learning dictate effective educational practices. Science, however, does not always operate in such a linear fashion. In both the physical and social sciences, ideas often come from observing and questioning things that occur in the real world; "Why did that apple fall from the tree?" (a question asked by Isaac Newton [1643-1727] that led to his discovery of the three laws of motion). Scientific breakthroughs also come from trying to solve a practical problem (Stokes, 1997), such as "what is the best way to teach the concept of photosynthesis?" Established educational practices that teachers have found effective can and should be a source of ideas in developing a viable theory of learning.

A third caveat in understanding the relationship between theory and practice is realizing that the student is more important than the teacher in determining what is learned. This does not mean the teacher is not important; only that it is the students' perceptions, prior knowledge, and beliefs that determine what and if they learn something approximating the instructional goals of the teacher. The bottom line in the teaching-learning process is the learning activities in this the students engage, not the instructional activities in which the teacher engages.

Modern-day conceptions of learning and teaching recognize that students are active, often proactive, participants in the learning process, even if they appear otherwise. This dynamic nature of the learning process is one reason why instructional interventions that appear the same to the teacher can result in very different student outcomes and why rather different instructional methods can result in very similar outcomes (e.g., Nuthall & Alton-Lee, 1990; Olson, 2004).

Different types of learning

The relationship between theories of learning and educational practices is complicated by the reality that there is more than one type of learning. None of the present theories is capable of explaining learning in all situations, and scholars working within a particular theoretical perspective often ignore or deny the importance of other types of learning and the relevance of other theories for different situations. Nearly every educational setting involves several types of learning, each with its unique importance to the functioning of the classroom.

There is little agreement on how many types of learning actually exist. Nevertheless, it should not be too difficult to identify different types of learning in the following examples: (a) learning to tie a shoelace or necktie, (b) being afraid (fearful in a literal sense) to work in a math class after a lengthy public ridicule by a teacher two years earlier for being unable to explain a problem to the class, (c) understanding and explaining causes of the French and American revolutions, (d) learning to cook by watching one's father or mother, and (e) negotiating an understanding of "learning" with a person holding a different theoretical perspective. Different theories are good for explaining one example but poor for explaining other examples.

When evaluating the validity or usefulness of different theories, especially from the perspective of the student doing the learning, it is helpful to consider what the person is learning and what is taken as evidence that learning has occurred. Students do not always engage in the type of learning sought by the teacher. For example, a teacher conducts a lesson on the Civil War that includes authentic activities, having students question one another about the war, and finally giving the students a quiz. It would not be at all uncommon for the teacher to conclude that a particular student understood what happened at Gettysburg when in reality he or she only memorized certain facts. Theories of learning are efforts to explain how people learn. Different theories are based on different assumptions and are appropriate for explaining some learning situations but not others. Theories of learning can inform teaching and the use of different instructional resources including technology, but ultimately the learning activities in which the student actually engages (mental, physical, and social) determine what a student learns in the classroom. Classroom learning involves social, emotional, and participatory factors in addition to cognitive ones, and theories of learning need to take these factors into emotional, and participatory factors in addition to cognitive ones, and theories of learning need to take these factors into account. Most current theories of learning presuppose that the goal of education is to develop the ability of students to understand the content and to think for themselves, presumptions that are consistent with the majority of modern-day schools.

Theory of Listening Strategies

Successful listening can also be looked at in terms of the strategies the listener uses when listening. Does the learner focus mainly on the content of a text, or does he or she also

consider how to listen? A focus on how to listen raises the issues of listening strategies. Strategies can be thought of as the ways in which a learner approaches and manages a task, and listeners can be taught effective ways of approaching and managing their listening. These activities seek to involve listeners actively in the process of listening.

Buck (2001 : 104) identifies two kinds of strategies in listening:

- **Cognitive strategies**: Mental activities related to comprehending and storing input in working memory or long-term memory for later retrieval

  o Comprehension process: Associated with the processing of linguistic and nonlinguistic input

  o Storing and memory processes: Associated with the storing of linguistic and nonlinguistic input in working memory or long-term memory

  o Using and retrieval processes: Associated with accessing memory, to be readied for output

- Metacognitive strategies: Those conscious or unconscious mental activities that perform an executive function in the management of cognitive strategies

  o Assessing the situation: Taking stock of conditions surrounding a language task by assessing one's own knowledge, one's available internal and external resources, and the constraints of the situation before engaging in a task

  o Monitoring: Determining the effectiveness of one' s own or another's performance while engaged in a task

  o Self-evaluating: Determining the effectiveness of one's own or another's performance after engaging in the activity

  o Self-testing: Testing oneself to determine the effectiveness of one' sown language use or the lack thereof.

Goh (1997,1998) shows how the metacognitive activities of planning, monitoring, and evaluating can be applied to the teaching of listening.

Metacognitive strategies for self-regulation in learner listening (Goh 1997, 1998)
Planning   This is a strategy for determining learning objectives and deciding the means by which the objectives can be achieved.

General listening development

- Identify learning objectives for listening development.
- Determine ways to achieve these objectives.
- Set realistic short-term and long-term goals
- Seek opportunities for listening practice.

Specific listening task

- Preview main ideas before listening.
- Rehearse language (e.g., pronunciation) necessary for the task.
- Decide in advance which aspects of the text to concentrate on.

Monitoring   This is a strategy for checking on the progress in the course of learning or carrying out a learning task.

General listening development

- Consider progress against a set of predetermined criteria.
- Determine how close it is to achieving short-term or long-term goals.
- Check and see if the same mistakes are still being made

Specific listening task

- Check understanding during listening.
- Check the appropriateness and the accuracy of what is understood and compare it with new information.
- Identify the source of difficulty.

Evaluating   This is a strategy for determining the success of the outcome of an attempt to learn or complete a learning task.

General listening development

- Assess listening progress against a set of predetermined criteria
- Assess the effectiveness of learning and practice strategies.
- Assess the appropriateness of learning goals and objectives set.

Specific listening task

- Check the appropriateness and the accuracy of what has been understood.
- Determine the effectiveness of strategies used in the task.
- Assess overall comprehension of the text.

Another approach to incorporating listening strategies in a listening lesson involves a cycle of activities, as seen below.

Steps in guided metacognitive sequence in a listening lesson from Goh and Yusnita (2006)
Step 1   **Pre-listening activity**   In pairs, students predict the possible words and phrases that they might hear.   They write down their predictions. They may write some world in their first language.
Step 2   **First listen**   As they are listening to the text, students underline or circle those words or phrases (including the first-language equivalents) that they have predicted correctly. They also write down new information they hear.
Step 3   **Pair process-based discussion**   In pairs, students compare what they have understood so far and explain how they arrived at the understanding. They identify the parts that caused confusion and disagreement and make a note of the parts of the text that will require special attention in the second listen.
Step 4   **Second listen**   Students listen to those parts that have caused confusion or disagreement areas and make notes of any new information they hear.
Step 5   **Whole-class process-based discussion**   The teacher leads a discussion to confirm comprehension before discussing with students the strategies that they reported using.

Theory of Teaching of Speaking

The mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second-language or foreign-language learners. Consequently, learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the basis of how much they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency. Oral skills have hardly been neglected in EFL/ESL courses (witness the huge number of conversation and other speaking course books in the market), though how best to approach the teaching of oral skills has long been the focus of methodological debate. Teachers and textbooks make use of a variety of approaches, ranging from direct approaches focusing on specific features of oral interaction (e.g., turn-taking, topic management, and questioning strategies) to indirect approaches that create conditions for oral interaction through group work, task work, and other strategies (Richards, 1990).

Advances in discourse analysis, conversational analysis, and corpus analysis in recent years have revealed a great deal about the nature of spoken discourse and how it differs from written discourse (McCarthy an dCarter, 1997). These differences reflect the different purposes for which spoken and written language are used. Jones (1996: 12) comments:

> In speaking and listening we tend to be getting something done, exploring ideas, working out some aspect of the world, or simply being together. In written, we may be creating a record, committing events or moments to paper.

Research has also thrown considerable light on the complexity of spoken interaction in either a first or second language. For example, Luoma (2004) cites some of the following features of spoken discourse:

- Composed of idea units (conjoined short phrases and clauses)
- May be planned (e.g., a lecture) or unplanned (e.g., a conversation)
- Employs more vague or generic words than written language
- Employs fixed phrases, fillers, and hesitation markers
- Contains slips and errors reflecting online processing
- Involves reciprocity (i.e., interactions are jointly constructed)
- Shows variation (e.g., between formal and casual speech), reflecting speaker roles, speaking purpose, and the context

Conversational routines

A marked feature of conversational discourse is the use of fixed expressions, or "routines," that often have specific functions in conversation and give conversational discourse the quality of naturalness. Wardhaugh (1985:74, cited in Richards 1990) observes:

> There are routines to help people establish themselves in certain positions: routines for taking off and hanging up coats; arrangements concerning where one is to sit or stand at a party or in a meeting; offers of hospitality; and so on. There are routines for beginnings and endings of conversations, for leading into topics, and for moving away from one topic to another. And there are routines for breaking up conversations, for leaving a party, and for dissolving a gathering…It is difficult to imagine how life could be lived without some routines.

Consider the following routines. Where might they occur? What might their function be within these situations?

- This one' s on me.
- I don't believe a word of it.
- I don't get the point.
- You look great today.
- As I was saying,...
- Nearly time. Got everything.
- I'll be making a move then.
- I see what you mean.
- Let me think about it.
- Just looking, thanks.
- I'll be with you in a minute.
- It doesn't matter.

Pawley and Syder (1983) suggest that native speakers have a repertoire of thousands of routines like these, that their use in appropriate situations creates conversational discourse that sounds natural and native-like, and that they have to be learned and used as fixed expressions.

In designing speaking activities or instructional materials for second-language or foreign-language teaching, it is also necessary to recognize the very different functions speaking performs in daily communication and the different purposes for which our students need speaking skills.

Implications for teaching

Three core issues need to be addressed in planning speaking activities for an English class. The first is to determine what kinds of speaking skills the class will focus on. Is it all three of the genres described in the preceding section, or will some receive greater attention than others? Informal needs analysis is the starting point here. Procedures for determining needs include observation of learners carrying out different kinds of communicative tasks, questionnaires, interviews, and diagnostic testing (e.g., Tsang and Wong 2002). The second issue is to identifying teaching strategies to "teach" (i.e., provide opportunities for learners to acquire) each kind of talk.

Teaching talk as interaction

Talk as interaction is perhaps the most difficult skill to teach since interactional talk is a very complex and subtle phenomenon that takes place under the control of unspoken rules. In my experience, these are best taught by providing examples embedded in naturalistic dialogs that model features such as opening and closing conversations, making small talk, recounting personal incidents and experiences, and reacting to what others say. One rule for making small talk is to initiate interactions with a comment concerning something in the immediate vicinity or that both participants have knowledge of. The comment should elicit agreement, since agreement is face-preserving and non-threatening. Hence, safe topic, such as the weather, traffic, and so on, must be chosen. Students can initially be given models such as the following to practice:

A: Nice weather today.

B: Yes, it is.

A: I hope the weather is nice for the weekend.

B: Me, too.

A: The buses to school are always so crowded.

B: Yes, they are.

Later, students can be given situations in which small talk might be appropriate (e.g., meeting someone at a movie, running into a friend in the cafeteria, or waiting at a bus stop). They can then be asked to think of small talk topic comments and responses.

Giving feedback (or back channeling) is another important aspect of talk as interaction. It involves responding to a conversational partner with expressions that indicate interest and a wish for the speaker to continue, such as "That's interesting," "yeah," "really," and so on. To practice using back channeling in this way, students can examine dialogs from which feedback expressions have been omitted. They can consider suitable ways of providing them and then practice using them. For example, they can come up with difference responses to use in the following dialog:

A: I'm going to Hawaii for my next vacation.

B: _____.

A: Yeah, my parents are taking me there as a graduation present.

B: _____. And what do you plan to do there?

A: Well I guess I'll spend a lot of time on the beach.

B: _____.

A: But I also want to do some snorkeling.

B: _____.

Another technique to practice the use of conversation starters and narratives about personal experiences involves giving conversation starters that students respond to by asking one or two follow-up questions. For example: "I didn't sleep very well last night." "Look what I bought on Sunday. How do you like it?" "Did that thunderstorm last night wake you?"

Two simple activities I use to practice topic management are "in the hot seat" and "question time." In the first activity, a student sits on a chair in front of the class and makes a statement about something he or she did recently (e.g., "I saw a good movie on Sunday"). The other members of the class ask three or more questions about the topic, which the student has to answer quickly. The "question time" activity, introduces students to a lesson on a new theme. I prepare up to 15 questions related to the theme and put them on a handout. For example, if the next unit covers sports, the students' handout would include questions such as "What sports do you play?" "How often do you play sports" "What sports are popular in your country?" "What sport have you never tried?" I first ask students around the class to answer the questions quickly. Then students practice asking and answering the questions in pairs.

Teaching talk as transaction

Talk as transaction is more easily planned since current communicative materials are a rich resource of group activities, information-gap activities, and role plays that can provide a source for practicing how to use talk for sharing and obtaining information, as well as for carrying out real-world transactions. These activities include ranking, values clarification, brainstorming, and simulations. Group discussion activities can be initiated by having students work in groups to prepare a short list of controversial statements for others to think about. Groups exchange statements and discuss them, for example: "Schools should do away with exams." "Vegetarianism is the only healthy lifestyle." "The Olympic games are a waste of money." Role-play activities are another familiar technique for practicing real-world transactions and typically involve the following steps:

- Preparing: Reviewing vocabulary, real-world knowledge related to the content, and context of the role play (e.g., returning a faulty item to a store).

- Modeling and eliciting: Demonstrating the stages that are typically involved in the transaction, eliciting suggestions for how each stage can be carried out, and teaching the functional language needed for each stage.
- Practicing and reviewing: Assigning students roles and practicing a role play using cue cards to provide language and other support.

An issue that arises in practicing talk as transaction using different kinds of communicative tasks is the level of linguistic accuracy that students achieve when carrying out these tasks. One assumption is that form will largely look after itself with incidental support from the teacher. Grammar has a mediating role, rather than serving as an end in itself (Thornbury 1998:112). "The teacher and the learner have a remarkable degree of flexibility, for they are presented with a set of general learning objectives and problem-solving tasks" (Kumaravadivelu 1991:99). As students carry out communicative tasks, the assumption is that they engage in the process of negotiation of meaning, employing strategies such as comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and clarification requests. These are believed to lead to a gradual modification of learners' language output, which over time takes on more and more target-like forms.

Despite these optimistic claims, others have reported that communication tasks often develop fluency at the expense of accuracy. For example, Higgs and Clifford (1982:78) reporting experience with foreign language teaching programs in the United States, observed the following:

In programs that have as curricular goals an early emphasis on unstructured communication activities –minimizing, or excluding entirely, considerations of grammatical accuracy –it is possible in a fairly short time …to provide students with a relatively large vocabulary and a high degree of fluency … These same data suggest that the premature immersion of a student into an unstructured or "free" conversational setting before certain linguistic structures are more or less in place is not done without cost. there appears to be a real danger of leading students too rapidly into the creative aspects of language us, in that if successful communication is encouraged and rewarded for its own sake, the effect seems to be one of rewarding at the same time the incorrect strategies seized upon in attempting to deal with the communication strategies presented.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes: (1)(1) the subjects, (2) the materials, (3) the procedures used in the collection and analysis of the data, and (4) the data analysis.

3.1   SUBJECTS

A. Populations and Samples

Populations and samples were as follows:

The Population of this research will be 120 TNI students in 3 faculties: Business Administration, Engineering, and Information Technology who take the course ENL-417 in summer 2012.

The samplings of this research will be 90% of the population or 108 students derive through Simple Random technique from the above mentioned population.

B. Variables in study

Gender

Faculty

Major

3.2   MATERIALS

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section consisted of personal data which were gender, faculty and major of the students. The second section consisted of 40 questions in 5 aspects emphasized on curriculum; teaching-learning process; teaching materials; instructors and others (evaluation and supporting resource). 5 point scale was applied to answer this section, which are 1= "Strongly disagree", 2="Disagree", 3="Neither agree nor disagree", 4= "Agree", and 5= "Strongly agree". The third section was open-ended questionnaire which consisted of 5 aspects mainly focused on students' opinions and suggestions to investigate the further improvement of the course ENL-417.

Rating score	Interpretation of the score
4.21-5.50	Strongly agree
3.41-4.20	Agree
2.61-3.40	Neutral
1.81-2.60	Disagree
1.00-1.80	Strongly disagree

The last part of the questionnaire which is an open-ended question is provided for additional comment on teaching and learning in ENL-417.

3.3   PROCEDURES

3.3.1 Research Design

This research is a cross-sectional design (non-probability design) to examine opinions of participants on teaching learning in the course ENL-417. The study's aim is to collect information on the participants' opinions via a structured questionnaire using the Likert's scale, close-ended questions and an open-ended question.

3.3.2 Data Collection

This study required primary data from a target group. During March, 120 respondents who took in the course ENL-417 were asked to fill in the questionnaire voluntarily. The instrument was sent to the respondents personally.

3.4   DATA ANALYSIS

The data was analyzed by using computer program. The statistics used for analyzing the data were frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, t-test, F-test, and content analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS OF RESEARCH

This chapter presents the findings of the study in 5 areas which are opinions of students on: curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructors, and evaluation and supporting resource.

Results of Data Analysis

The result of this research divided into 3 phases.

Phase 1: The results of demographic variables of TNI undergraduate students.

TABLE 1: The results of demographic variables of TNI students

1.1 Genders

Genders	n	%
male	58	54.2
female	49	45.8
total	107	100.0

1.2 Faculties

Faculty	n	%
Engineering	34	31.8
Information Technology	36	33.6

Business Japanese	37	34.6
total	107	100.0

The table presented that there were 100 samples which consisted of 58 male students (54.2%) and 49 female students (45.8%). All samples were from 3 faculties: 34 Engineering students (31.8&); 36 Information Technology students (33.6%); and 37 Business Japanese students (34.6%).

Phase 2: The results of opinions of TNI students towards the Teaching Learning in the course ENL-417

TABLE 2: Table of mean and standard deviation of TNI students' opinions on curriculum

	Questions	$\overline{X}$	SD
1.	The content in both practical and theory is appropriate	4.11	0.649
2.	The target of the subject is related to the students' needs	4.06	0.799
3.	The students can apply their knowledge with their everyday lives in society.	4.16	0.791
4.	The curriculum helps students applying their knowledge to further study in a higher degree.	4.07	0.785
5.	The curriculum helps students to communicate in real life.	4.08	0.766
6.	The content is modern and updated with the current event.	4.05	0.757
7.	The students can apply their knowledge with their future careers.	4.07	0.780

The table pointed out that mean of applying the students' knowledge about listening and speaking in the course ENL-417 with everyday life ($\overline{X}$ = 4.16) and the appropriate content in theory and practical were high ($\overline{X}$ = 4.11).

TABLE 3: Table of mean and standard deviation of opinions of TNI students on teaching-learning process.

Questions	$\overline{X}$	SD
8. Teachers provide listening activity from CD every class.	4.40	0.671
9. Teachers provide listening practices from CD in the class regularly.	4.42	0.630
10. Teachers assign out class activities for example watching news, movies including variety of TV programs.	3.57	0.953
11. Teachers provide listening class not less then 3 hours per week.	3.93	0.768
12. Students are able to practice real listening from native teachers.	4.16	0.814
14. Teachers provide pre-test both speaking and listening skills.	4.03	0.829
15. Students discuss and exchange opinions in English after listening in the class.	3.78	0.883
16. Students have a chance to communicate in English in the class.	4.19	0.870

As reported in table 3, the findings clearly reveal that opinions of TNI students towards

teaching – learning process about teachers providing listening activity from CD every class

and providing listening practices in the class regularly were the highest ($\overline{X}$ = 4.40 and $\overline{X}$ =

4.42 respectively). However, the mean of teachers' assignment for out class activities was the

lowest ($\overline{X}$ = 3.57).

TABLE 4: Table of mean and standard deviation of opinions of TNI students on teaching
materials.

	Questions	$\overline{X}$	SD
17.	Teachers always use new teaching materials.	4.12	0.786
18.	Teachers search for new materials to teach in the class.	4.04	0.889
19.	Applying teaching materials with the class helps inspire the students to learn more.	3.97	0.884
20.	Teaching materials are stimulating, unlikely to make the boring class.	3.91	0.906
21.	Teachers apply teaching materials which are suitable for each lesson.	4.02	0.879
22.	Concept, method and content of teaching materials are interesting.	3.90	0.846
23.	The students learn from teaching materials relating to the content.	4.02	0.752
24.	The students have a chance to response to teaching materials appropriately.	4.14	0.818

The table indicated that there was no significant difference of TNI students' opinions on teaching materials. When considered each aspect, it was found that the students strongly agreed that they are free to response to teaching materials appropriately ($\overline{X} = 4.14$). They also thought they could learn from new teaching materials ($\overline{X} = 4.12$)

TABLE 5: Table of mean and standard deviation of opinions of TNI students on instructors.

	Questions	$\overline{X}$	SD
25.	The students in the class are taught by both Thai and foreign teachers.	4.34	0.911
26.	Teachers have an ability to teach so that the students can understand the lesson very well.	4.19	0.715
27.	Teachers have a variety of teaching techniques.	3.93	0.785
28.	Teachers evaluate the students appropriately and regularly.	3.92	0.902
29.	Teachers have a good psychological teaching skill that doesn't make the classroom boring.	3.99	0.874
30.	Teachers teach the lesson effectively by using English.	4.17	0.841
31.	Teachers allow the students to think, analyze and share ideas.	4.21	0.727
32.	Teachers are open-minded and exchange ideas with the students.	4.07	0.876
33.	Teachers evaluate the students knowledge by doing pre-test and post-test.	3.97	0.783

As reported in table 5, the findings clearly revealed that the students' opinions from three faculties had no statistically significant differences in total. However, the students strongly agreed that they could study with both Thai and native teachers ($\overline{X}$ = 4.34) and allowed to think, analyze and share ideas in the class ($\overline{X}$ = 4.21). They agreed but not to the same degree that they had been evaluated regularly and taught by using various techniques ($\overline{X}$ = 3.92 and $\overline{X}$ = 3.93 respectively).

TABLE 6: Table of mean and standard deviation of opinions of TNI students on others (evaluation and supporting resource).

	Questions	$\overline{X}$	SD
34.	Classroom facilities are supportive to the needs of the students to study.	3.86	0.874
35.	The students can concentrate because classroom surroundings are not noisy.	4.08	0.814
36.	Forming the students into each section is neither too much nor too few.	4.34	0.713
37.	There are enough equipment for teaching such as computers, stereos and projectors provided in classroom.	4.01	0.966
38.	There are enough learning and searching resources of this course for the students.	3.86	0.874
39.	There are teaching documents relating to the course content.	4.12	0.749
40.	The audiovisual aids provided in the classroom are high quality.	3.91	0.937

In table 6, it was found that the students strongly agreed that the number of students showing up in each group was appropriate, around 20 to 25 students per section ($\overline{X}$ = 4.34). Moreover, mean of opinions towards teaching documents that relating to the content was high which was at 4.12. However, they agreed at the same degree ($\overline{X}$ = 3.86) that classroom facilities played an important role for their needs to study and searching resources of this course were provided enough for them.

Phase 3: The results of comparing mean and standard of opinions of students according to genders, faculties and majors. In case of statistical significance at .05 was found. Scheffe's method will be tested.

Table 7: Table of comparison of curriculum, teaching learning process, teaching materials, instructors and others in each aspect according to genders

| Components | Genders | | | | t-test | P-Value |
| | Male (n=58) | | Female (n=49) | | | |
	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.		
1. Curriculum	4.06	0.56	4.20	0.56	-1.336	0.185
2. Teaching-learning process	3.95	0.61	4.09	0.52	-1.268	0.20
3. Teaching materials	3.93	0.69	4.12	0.59	-1.51	0.13
4. Instructors	4.03	0.68	4.16	0.49	-1.11	0.26
5. Others	4.05	0.55	4.00	0.67	0.43	0.66
Total	**4.00**	**0.53**	**4.12**	**0.48**	**-1.16**	**0.24**

Statistical Significance at .05 level

The table revealed that students with different genders had no statistically significant differences in overall and in each aspect. When considered in each aspect, it found out that male and female students had the highest perception in curriculum ($\overline{X}$ = 4.06 and $\overline{X}$ = 4.20 respectively). However, the lowest perception from male students was at teaching materials ($\overline{X}$ = 3.93) and female students was at others which were evaluation and supporting resource ($\overline{X}$ = 4.00)

Table 8: Table of comparison of curriculum, teaching learning process, teaching materials, instructors and others in each according to faculties

Components	Eng (n = 34)		IT (n = 36)		BJ (n = 37)		F	Sig.
	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.		
1. Curriculum	4.07	0.44	3.39	0.58	4.36	0.57	6.17	0.003*
2. Teaching-learning process	4.03	0.51	3.79	0.60	4.21	0.53	5.42	0.006*
3. Teaching materials	4.06	0.68	3.79	0.60	4.19	0.62	3.75	0.02*
4. Instructors	4.06	0.66	3.98	0.60	4.22	0.54	1.50	0.22
5. Others	4.16	0.46	3.78	0.53	4.14	0.72	4.62	0.012*
Total	4.08	0.45	3.86	0.49	4.23	0.52	5.10	0.008*

Statistical Significance at .05 level

The table indicated that students with different faculties had no statistically significant differences in total. However, when considered in each aspect, it was found that students

from Business Japanese had the highest perception in overall aspects ($\overline{X}$ = 4.23) but students

from Information Technology had the lowest perception in overall aspects ($\overline{X}$ = 3.86).

Phase 4: The results of study opinions and suggestions of curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructors and others. In this phase, frequency and content analysis were presented.

Table 9: Table of frequency and percentage of number of opinions and suggestions of curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructors and others.

Opinions and suggestions	Fre	%
Curriculum	41	38.82
1. The content is appropriate, interesting and can be applied in real life.		
2. There are listening and speaking skills with theory and practical for the students in order to get used to natives' accents.		
3. Some students suggest that the content should be more difficult and provide more speaking lesson while other students suggest that the content is under time limit especially during summer semester		
Teaching-learning process	39	36.45
1. Teachers have good techniques to make the students enjoy the classroom.		
2. The teaching-learning process is done step by step to make the students want to study.		
3. Teacher should provide more communicative practice and extra activities rather than listening by the CD.		

4. Teachers should provide brain storming prior the communicative lesson.		
5. Teachers should provide practicing reading phonetic as well.		
Teaching materials	42	39.25
1. Teaching materials in overall aspects are appropriate.		
2. The text book is quite expensive and not used as much as needed.		
3. Teachers should provide more teaching materials such as movies.		
4. Some audio visual aids should be fixed because some visual aids are found broken and too old.		
Instructors	40	37.38
1. Teachers are punctual, polite and have good teaching techniques and always available to give advices for the students.		
2. Native teachers make the students to have listening and speaking skills with accurate accents and more confidents to speak.		
Others	5	4.67
1. Teachers should provide extra activities such as adding role play, situational dialogue rather than in the textbook and introducing some scenes in the movies.		

To sum up 5 areas of opinions, the respondents highly showed the positive attitudes toward the teaching-learning in the course ENL-417. The students who participated in this course could be more confident to apply for a job that requires English listening and speaking skills and could apply the course with multicultural environment.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents discussions of the results and the conclusions, as well as recommendations for further study.

5.1 DISCUSSIONS

The following discussions are based on the findings of the study.

According to the table above, the results of the study could be analyzed as follows:

1. The findings indicate that the majority of respondents showed positive attitudes towards English teaching-learning in the course ENL-417 which was about Listening-Speaking skills. The result is related to the study of Woodrow (2005) who stated that in terms of learning styles, participants of this sample considered themselves as communicative learners. More importantly, the findings of this study revealed that there was a statistically moderate significant positive association between listening strategies and learning styles. Learning style preferences have a significant effect on the listening strategies employed by the students. When the students are aware of their own learning styles, they employ the appropriate strategies to improve their learning in general and listening and speaking in particular. Being aware of listening strategies, students can adjust themselves with their own types of learning styles and learn in an effective way.

When consider in each aspect, it found out as follows:

1.1 For curriculum aspect, the result showed that students' opinions towards this aspect were high. This might be because students were taught by the appropriate and interesting content which could be applied in real life. Furthermore, they could practice both with theory and practical skills in order to get used to natives' accents. Listening and speaking lessons require students to concentrate on the content and make fast responses to what is heard. If students are passive and apprehensive during listening training, they will probably feel nervous and wary of taking chances. Teachers need to take a non-punitive

approach and structure lessons that are varied, vivid and interesting. Teachers need to select a wide range of materials to increase listening content besides using textbooks. Students need to listen to different levels of English in order to be exposed to natural, lively, rich language, such as listening to English songs, seeing films with English text. In these ways it is possible to raise students' enthusiasm, cultivate their listening interests, and achieve the goals of learning English.

1.2 For teaching-learning process aspect, the result of students' opinions was at high level as well. This is similar to the study of Wu Zhengfu (1991) who advocates that in the teaching learning process teachers should cultivate students' ability to select main information and instruct students to control the general meaning of listening and speaking materials on the whole. In class, for example, teachers can ask students to listen to the general meaning of passage, and to sum up key points and main information. Before listening training, teachers might ask students questions related to listening materials, or introduce relevant background knowledge to enlighten students' thinking to allow students a clear recognition of the goals and requirements of listening training.

1.3 For teaching materials aspect, it found out that students' opinions was at a high level. Students could learn from many new teaching materials. According to Hsu's study (2005), subjects frequently practiced English by watching films or TV programs, listening to English songs, radio programs, and English lectures and interesting topics and some popular songs could attract students' learning motivation.

1.4 For instructors aspect, the result showed that he students' opinions from all three faculties had no statistically significant differences in total. They agreed that they could study with both Thai and foreign teachers and allowed to think, analyze and share ideas in the classroom. This study implied that lectures should make their students to identify their own learning styles in order to help them become self-aware learners. Listening and speaking strategies instruction based on learning styles would provide lecturers with information on the kinds of strategies to be employed to cope with learners' various learning styles (Jie and Xiaoqing, 2006).

1.5 The last aspect of this study was others (evaluation and supporting resource). The result from students' opinions was at a high level. Therefore, according to Oxford (2003), if there is harmony between students in terms of their learning style an strategy preferences and

the combination of instructional methodology and materials, then students are likely to do well, feel confident, and experience low anxiety.

5.2 CONCLUSION

The results of opinions of students in teaching-learning in the course ENL-417 in all 5 aspects were shown at high level. When considered in each aspect, it was found out that all aspects – curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructors and others were at a high level as well ($\overline{X}$ = 4.16, 4.40, 4.14, 4.34, 4.34 respectively).

The results of comparison on curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructors and others as well as suggestions according to genders and faculties were shown as follows:

1. Students with different genders had no statistically significant differences in all 5 aspects in total.

2. Students with different faculties had no statistically significant differences in overall 5 aspects in total as well.

3. The various opinions and suggestions provided by students were briefly summarized as: the content should be a bit more difficult and provide more speaking lesson and the lesson was under time restrict. Teachers should provide more communicative practicing skills and other extra activities; and teaching materials should be more various.

5.3 RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Comparisons of curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructors as well as other aspects between universities in Bangkok or rural area should be tested in the next study.

2. A survey of curriculum, teaching-learning process, teaching materials, instructors and other aspects should be done with every faculty as well as every major for the next study.

REFERENCES

Anderson, J. R. (2005). *Cognitive psychology and its implications* (6th ed.). New York: Worth Publishers. Company.

Allyn & Bacon. Ministry of Education. The National Center for Learning Reform (2003). *Learning Reform,Learner-centered Approach*. Bangkok: Prikwan Publishing.

Brown, Gillian, and George Yule (1983). Teaching the Spoken Language.

Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, P., and S. Levinson (1978). Politeness: Some Universals in Language

Use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Buck, G. (2001). Assessing Listening. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Buck, G. (1995). How to become a good listening teacher. In D. Mendelsohn

and J. Rubin (eds.), A Guide for the Teaching of Second Language

Listening. San Diego, CA: Dominie Press, pp. 113–128.

Burns, Anne (1998). Teaching speaking. Annual Review of Applied

Linguistics 18:102–123.

Clark, H. M., and E. V. Clark (1977). Psychology and Language: An

Introduction to Psycholinguistics. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Fakeye, D. (2010). Students' Personal Variables as Correlates of Academic Achievement in English as a Second language in Nigeria. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 22(3), 205-211.

Feez, S., and H. Joyce 1998. Text-Based Syllabus Design. Sydney: Macquarie

University.

Field, John (2003). Promoting perception: lexical segmentation in second

language listening. ELT Journal 57:325–334.

Field, John (1998). The changing face of listening. English teaching

Professional 6:12–14.

Foster, P. (1998). A classroom perspective on the negotiation of meaning.

Applied Linguistics 19(1):1–23.

Gardner, R. & Lambert, W. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Gardner, R. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning*. The role of attitudes and motivation. London: Edward Arnold

Goh, C., and T. Yusnita (2006). Metacognitive instruction in listening for

young learners. ELT Journal 60(3):222–232.

Goh, C. (2005). Second language listening expertise. In K. Johnson, (ed.),

Expertise in Second Language Learning and Teaching. UK: Palgrave

Macmillan, pp. 64–84.

Goh, C. (2002). Teaching Listening in the Language Classroom. Singapore:

SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Goh, C. (2000). A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening

comprehension problems. System 28:55–75.

Goh, C. (1998). How learners with different listening abilities use

comprehension strategies and tactics. Language Teaching Research

2(2):124–147.

Goh, C. (1997) Metacognitive awareness and second language listeners. ELT

Journal 51(4):361–369.

Harmer , Jeremy. (1992).*The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London : Longman.

Harris, David P. (1969).Teaching English as a Second Language. New York : Mc Graw –
Hill Inc.

Hatch, E. (ed.) (1978). Second Language Acquisition. Rowley, MA:

Newbury House.

Higgs, T., and R. Clifford (1982). The push towards communication. In T.

Higgs (ed.), Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher.

Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company.

Hsu, W.C. (2005). *An Investigation on Students' Meaning Comprehension and Expression
While Learning Stories Presented in Various Formats: The Context of Guei-Ren
Junior High School*. Unpublished master thesis, Southern Taiwan University.

Jones, Pauline (1996). Planning an oral language program. In Pauline Jones

(ed.), Talking to Learn. Melbourne: PETA, pp. 12–26.

Knowles, M.S. (1970). *The Modern Practice of Adult Education. Andragogy versus

Pedagogy*. New York: Association Press.

Krashen, Stephen D. (1987). "*Theoretical Research and Second Language Acquisition
Theory*." In Methodology in TESOL: A Book of Readings 8 – 15. New York :
Newbury House Publishers.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1991). Language learning tasks: Teacher intention and

learner interpretation. ELT Journal 45(2): 98–107.

Luoma, Sari (2004). Assessing Speaking. Cambridge: Cambridge

University Press.

McCarthy, M., and R. Carter (1997). Language as Discourse: Perspectives for

Language Teaching. London: Longman

Mendelsohn, David (1995). Applying learning strategies in the second /

foreign language listening comprehension. In David Mendelsohn and

Joan Rubin (eds.), A Guide for the Teaching of Second Language Listening.

San Diego, CA: Dominie Press, pp. 132–150.

Musumeci, D. (1996). Teacher-learner negotiation in content-based

instruction: Communication or cross purposes? Applied Linguistics 17(3):

377–384.

Office of the National Education Commission (1999).*National Education Act B.E. 2542*,

Office of the Prime Minister, Kingdom of Thailand.

Oxford, R. L. 2003. Language learning styles and strategies. *An overview, Learning Styles &
Strategies/Oxford, GALA*, 1-25.

Pawley, A., and F. Syder (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Native-like

selection and native-like fluency. In Jack C. Richards and Richard Schmidt

(eds.), Language and Communication. Harlow, UK: Longman.

Penkhae Prachonpachanuk (2009). *The application of learner centered concept and

technique in teaching language to the business and technique students*. Research
Report. Bangkok: Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology.

Richards, Jack C., and Charles Lockhart (1994). Reflective Teaching in Second

Language Classrooms. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, Jack C. (1990). Conversationally speaking: Approaches to the

teaching of conversation. In Jack C. Richards, The Language Teaching

Matrix. New York: Cambridge University Press, pp. 67–85.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning.

Applied Linguistics 11(2):129–159.

Schmidt, R., and S. Frota (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in

    a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In

    Richard R. Day (ed.), Talking to Learn: Conversation in Second Language

    Acquisition. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Shams, M. (2008). Students' attitudes, motivation and anxiety towards English language
    learning. *Journal of Research*. 2(2), 121-144.

Tavil, Z. (2009). Parental Attitudes towards English Education for Kindergarten Students in
    Turkey. *Kastamonu Education Journal*. 17(1), 331-340.

Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (2010). *TNI student handbook*, Bangkok.

Woodrow, L. 2005. The challenge of measuring language learning strategies. *Foreign
    Language Annals*. 38(1), 90-99. Retrieved July 15, 2010 from HighBeam Research:
    http://www.highbeam.com/doc/1P3-902666561.html

Appendix

<u>ตอนที่ 1</u>

<u>ด้านข้อมูลส่วนตัว</u>

<u>คำชี้แจง</u> โปรดให้ข้อมูลโดยใส่เครื่องหมาย ✔ ลงในช่องหน้าข้อความหรือเติมข้อความลงในช่องว่างตาม
ความเป็นจริงเกี่ยวกับตัวท่านมากที่สุด

1. เพศ ☐ ชาย

☐ หญิง

2. คณะที่สังกัด

☐ วิศวกรรมศาสตร์

☐ เทคโนโลยีสารสนเทศ

☐ บริหารธุรกิจ

3.วิชาเอกของท่าน...

ตอนที่ 2
ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาสถาบันเทคโนโลยีไทย-ญี่ปุ่น
เกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอนในรายวิชา ENL-417

คำชี้แจง   ท่านมีความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอนในรายวิชา Enl-417 อย่างไรบ้าง โปรดอ่าน
ข้อความข้างล่างนี้แต่ละข้อ แล้วใส่เครื่องหมาย ✔ ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด

5	หมายถึง	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
4	หมายถึง	เห็นด้วยมาก
3	หมายถึง	เห็นด้วยปานกลาง
2	หมายถึง	เห็นด้วยน้อย
1	หมายถึง	เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด

ข้อ	รายการ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
		5	4	3	2	1
	ด้านหลักสูตร					
1.	เนื้อหาวิชาของหลักสูตรมีความเหมาะสม ทั้งภาคทฤษฎีและภาคปฏิบัติ					
2.	จุดมุ่งหมายของหลักสูตรมีความสอดคล้องกับความต้องการของนักศึกษา					
3.	นักศึกษาสามารถนำความรู้จากหลักสูตรมาใช้ได้ในชีวิตประจำวันและในสังคม					
4.	หลักสูตรช่วยให้นักศึกษานำความรู้ไปใช้เพื่อเรียนต่อในระดับที่สูงขึ้นได้ในอนาคต					
5.	หลักสูตรช่วยให้นักศึกษานำมาใช้ฟังและพูดได้ในชีวิตจริง					
6.	เนื้อหาของหลักสูตรมีความทันสมัยและทันต่อสถานการณ์ปัจจุบัน					
7.	นักศึกษาสามารถนำความรู้จากหลักสูตรไปใช้ในการประกอบอาชีพในอนาคตได้					

ข้อ	ข้อความ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
		5	4	3	2	1
	ด้านกระบวนการเรียนการสอน					
8.	มีการจัดกิจกรรมฝึกการฟังจาก CD ตลอดเวลา					
9	มีการทดสอบการฝึกฟังจาก CD ในชั้นเรียนอย่างสม่ำเสมอ					
10.	มีการมอบหมายกิจกรรมนอกชั้นเรียน เช่น ให้ไปฟังข่าว ดูภาพยนตร์ และชมรายการต่างๆของสื่อภายนอก					
11.	จัดชั่วโมงการฟัง โดยให้นักศึกษามีชั่วโมงการฟังไม่น้อยกว่า 3 ชั่วโมง ต่อสัปดาห์					
12.	มีการฝึกฟังจากของจริง เช่น จากอาจารย์ชาวต่างชาติทั้งนอกชั้นเรียนและในชั้นเรียน					
14.	มีกิจกรรมทดสอบก่อนเรียนทั้งทักษะการฟังและพูดเป็นประจำทุกครั้ง					
15.	นักศึกษามีการถกเถียงแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นกันเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ หลังจากการฟังในชั้นเรียน					
16.	นักศึกษามีโอกาสสนทนากันเป็นภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียน					
	ด้านสื่อการสอน					
17.	อาจารย์มีสื่อการสอนที่ทันสมัยมาใช้อยู่เสมอ					
18.	อาจารย์มีการค้นคว้าสื่อใหม่ๆเพื่อนำมาใช้ในการสอน					
19.	สื่อการสอนที่นำมาใช้ในชั้นเรียนมีส่วนสร้างแรงจูงใจให้นักศึกษามีความอยากเรียนมากขึ้น					
20.	สื่อการสอนมีความเร้าใจ ไม่สร้างความเบื่อหน่ายในชั้นเรียน					
21.	อาจารย์มีการใช้สื่อการสอนที่เหมาะสมกับแต่ละบทเรียน					
22.	รูปแบบ วิธี เนื้อหาของสื่อการสอนมีความน่าสนใจ					
23.	นักศึกษาได้เรียนรู้จากสื่อการสอนที่สอดคล้องกับเนื้อหาวิชา					
24.	นักศึกษามีโอกาสโต้ตอบกับสื่อการสอนอย่างเหมาะสม					
	ด้านอาจารย์ผู้สอน					
25.	มีการจัดอาจารย์ผู้สอนให้มีทั้งอาจารย์ชาวไทยและชาวต่างชาติร่วมกัน					

ข้อ	ข้อความ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
		5	4	3	2	1
26.	อาจารย์มีทักษะความสามารถในการสอนทำให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจเนื้อหาบทเรียนได้เป็นอย่างดี					
27.	อาจารย์มีเทคนิคการสอนที่หลากหลาย					
28.	อาจารย์มีการประเมินนักศึกษาในชั้นเรียนได้เหมาะสมและสม่ำเสมอ					
29.	อาจารย์มีความเข้าใจในจิตวิทยาการสอนเป็นอย่างดีทำให้ชั้นเรียนไม่น่าเบื่อหน่าย					
30.	อาจารย์ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการเรียนการสอนเป็นหลัก เพื่อการเรียนอย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ					
31.	อาจารย์เปิดโอกาสให้นักศึกษาคิด วิเคราะห์และแสดงความคิดเห็น					
32.	อาจารย์รับฟังและแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นกับนักศึกษา					
33.	อาจารย์มีการประเมินความรู้ของนักศึกษาทั้งก่อนเรียนและหลังเรียน					
34.	**ด้านอื่นๆ** สภาพแวดล้อมในการเรียนการสอนเอื้ออำนวยทำให้เกิดความอยากเรียน					
35.	สภาพแวดล้อมนอกห้องเรียนไม่จอแจ ไม่มีเสียงดังทำให้นักศึกษามีสมาธิต่อการเรียน					
36.	การจัดกลุ่มนักศึกษาต่อห้องเรียนมีไม่มากและไม่น้อยเกินไป					
37.	มีเครื่องมือการศึกษา เช่น คอมพิวเตอร์ เครื่องเสียง โปรเจคเตอร์ และอื่นๆในห้องเรียนให้ใช้อย่างเพียงพอ					
38.	มีแหล่งการเรียนรู้และสืบค้นให้แก่นักศึกษาอย่างเพียงพอสำหรับรายวิชา					
39.	มีเอกสารประกอบการสอนสอดคล้องกับเนื้อหาวิชาที่เรียน					
40.	มีโสตทัศนูปกรณ์ต่างๆ เช่นเครื่องเสียง คอมพิวเตอร์ มีคุณภาพสำหรับการเรียนการสอนในรายวิชา					

<u>ตอนที่ 3</u>
<u>ด้านความคิดเห็นและข้อเสนอแนะ</u>

ท่านมีความคิดเห็น และข้อเสนอแนะเกี่ยวกับการเรียนการสอนรายวิชา ENL-417 อย่างไรบ้าง โปรดเขียนลง
ในช่องว่างต่อไปนี้

1. ด้านหลักสูตร

_____

_____

2. ด้านกระบวนการเรียนการสอน

_____

_____

3.ด้านสื่อการสอน

_____

_____

4.ด้านอาจารย์ผู้สอน

_____

_____

5.ด้านอื่นๆ (ถ้ามี)

_____

_____

_____

_____

ขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือ

ผู้วิจัย