

OXFORD'S STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING: ENGLISH LEARNING OF CHINESE STUDENTS IN THAI UNIVERSITY



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Abstract

This study aimed to explore Chinese students' engagement in learning English through an application of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and investigate differences in English language learning strategies among students with different levels of English proficiency. The research employed both qualitative and quantitative methodology. The samples were 244 Chinese students studying at a Thai university. A questionnaire and a semi-structured interview were used as research instruments. Data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed using mean and standard deviation, while data collected from the interviews were analyzed through the content analysis method. The results showed that most of the samples used SILL in English learning at a high level ($\bar{x} = 3.58$). Most of them were found to use compensation strategies frequently. The findings revealed a significant mean difference in language learning strategies which varied significantly by English proficiency levels. English proficiency was positively correlated with memory, cognitive, compensation strategies, and overall SILL strategies with no significant difference in metacognitive, affective and social strategies. To improve Chinese students' English learning proficiency, Thai universities were recommended to establish an effective communication platform for learners, e.g. a cross-cultural psychology center as a counseling center for students and an academic support system.

(Total 118 pages)

Keywords: Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), English

Learning, Chinese Students, Thai University

Student's Signature...... Thesis Advisor's Signature......

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Abbreviations and Symbols

SILL Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

ASEAN Association of Southeast Asian Nations

ICEF International Consultants for Education and Fairs

IELTS International English Language Testing System

L2 Second Language

ESL English as a Second Language

EFL English as a Foreign Language

SPSS Statistical Package for Social Science

IOC Item Objective Congruence

SD Standard Deviation

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background of the study, the significance of the problem, research objectives, research hypothesis, research questions, the scope of the study, definitions, limitations, and expected benefits of the study.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Internationalization has been the subject of research and criticism in various academic fields, including cooperative education (Reinhard & Gerloff, 2020). International higher education cooperation has become a widespread phenomenon. With the rapid development of globalization, international university organizations are increasing, and international university cooperation is no longer an option but an inevitable trend. The internationalization of higher education is the inevitable result of China's integration into the global economy and an important measure to improve China's higher education system (Cai & Zheng, 2020). For this reason, and together with the development of China's economy, the number of Chinese students has been penetrating towards international educational destinations.

Since establishing the strategic partnership between China and ASEAN, China has continuously strengthened educational exchanges and cooperation with ASEAN countries and committed itself to promote China-Asean academic integration. With the establishment of APEC, there are more and more economic exchanges between China and Thailand, and the relationship between China and Thailand is getting closer. In 2007, the Ministry of Education of China and the Minister of Education of Thailand signed the Agreement on Mutual Recognition of Academic

Degrees between China and Thailand. The two countries have made great efforts to promote the recognition program for Chinese students in Thailand and Thai students in China (Yang & Nongbunnak, 2017).

Language is one of the essential factors affecting international communication activities (Ahmadi & Reza, 2018). With globalization development, English has become the international language for academic exchanges. So has led to the global phenomenon of using English as a medium of instruction to teach academic subjects in non-English speaking countries (Yang et al., 2019). English as an international language occupies a significant position globally, and there is more communication between non-native English speakers than between native English speakers. Moreover, the information on social life and economic globalization make English more and more critical. As one of the essential information carriers, English has become the most widely used language globally (Wang, Cheevakumjorn & Yang, 2018).

It is generally accepted that English has become the language of choice for many international academic journals. Moreover, the trend is rising, leaving academics with little choice but to publish in English to gain international recognition. In this regard, academic English means both opportunities and threats (Genç & Bada, 2010). English is the primary language of science and the profession and the official language of many international and professional organizations. Furthermore, every international student who wants to continue their education must learn and reach a specific English level because almost every university uses English as a medium for classroom teaching and evaluation (Zhiping & Paramasivam, 2013). In addition, the worldwide expansion of the English language has increased the demand for good English communication skills.

The learners' use of language learning strategies is a window into a new language and the nature of the learning process. Many studies on second language acquisition and learning have shown that language learning strategies are the most critical factor in second language acquisition (Kunasaraphan, 2015). Language

learning strategy plays a significant role in second language and foreign-language learning because language learning strategies can help learners facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information and increase self-confidence (Chang, Liu & Lee, 2007). Oxford (1990) points out that strategies are crucial for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed participation, essential for developing communicative competence. Because of the importance of learning strategies, learning strategies have been widely used in education. Almost all language learners use language learning methods consciously or unconsciously when they perform tasks or process new information in the classroom. When they encounter a difficult task, they need to find the fastest way to complete the job, most likely using language learning strategies. In recent decades, many studies on foreign language learning have focused on language learning strategies. Appropriate language learning strategies are considered one of the factors contributing to foreign language learning goals. In addition, research has confirmed that language learning strategies help students become more effective in the classroom and encourage more effective mastery of the target language (Oxford, 2016).

Learning strategies are specific actions learners take to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, autonomous, and adaptable to new situations (Oxford, 1990). Second language learning strategies are complex, dynamic thoughts and actions, selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific contexts to regulate multiple aspects of themselves (such as cognitive, emotional, and social) for (a) accomplishing language tasks; (b) improving language performance or use; and (c) enhancing long-term proficiency (Oxford, 2016). English learning strategies refer to a series of behaviours, learning skills, in-class and out-of-class learning, specific English activities, and steps used by foreign language learners to achieve their learning achievements. For students learning English as a foreign language, strategies are considered facilitators or maps of language learning. Language learning strategies can enhance students' motivation, requirements, fun and other skills in learning English. These monitors help them influence their language learning (Souriyavongsa, Abidin, Sam, Mei & Aloysius, 2013).

Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is a widely used tool to study EFL students' language learning strategies (Rianto, 2020). Since 1990, SILL has been the most influential in language learning strategy research; it has been translated into 20 languages and is used in many studies. The questionnaire was developed by Oxford (1990) to measure the use of language strategies and determine their relationship to other factors, such as age, gender, proficiency, learning style, and culture. It may be even more valuable if it is used in conjunction with the experience of those who learn English as a second language in a foreign environment (Alharbi, 2017). According to Oxford's (1990) taxonomy, language learning strategies are divided into two major classes: Direct Strategies and Indirect Strategies. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups. Memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies are under the direct system, while metacognitive, affective, and social strategies are indirect.

Many studies have found that language learning strategies involve many factors, such as English level, learning environment, learners' characteristics, educational background, culture, and experience. In addition, some research has focused on determining the relationship between learning strategies and the factors that influence language learning strategies. These studies hold that gender, age, motivation, language competence, language learning experience, goal, and style affect learners' choice of language learning strategies (Kunasaraphan, 2015).

Studying language learning strategies aims to improve learning efficiency, so it is essential to explore the relationship between language learning strategies and language learning results (Lee, 2010). Many studies on language learning strategies have shown that language learning strategies are related to learners' differences and the environment in which learners acquire the language. Compared with learners with low language skills, learners with high language skills use learning strategies more frequently, use more types of systems, and have a better ability to choose methods suitable for tasks (Lee, 2010). Successful language learners are more likely to engage in active language learning and use more strategies than unsuccessful language learners. It seems that successful language students can effectively construct and

integrate specific learning strategies according to their learning needs (Anugkakul & Yordchim, 2014).

In summary, learning strategies are fundamental to mastering a language well. According to previous studies, learning strategies have a significant impact on language learning. However, learning strategies are related to many factors, such as nationality, gender, and English proficiency. Moreover, the use of learning strategies by individuals also varies greatly. Therefore, this study takes Chinese students from Rangsit University in Thailand as the research samples and adopts the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990) to investigate the use of English learning strategies by Chinese students in the cross-cultural context, as well as the differences in proficiency levels of English learning strategies among students with different English proficiency levels.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Learning is a social process in which cognitive development occurs through interaction with other people and influences the individual's culture. From the sociocultural perspective, learning environment and context affect individuals' language learning strategy orientation (Nguyen & Terry, 2017). Since language is a social medium and context, learners' use of language learning strategies may change with the change of the environment. Both teachers and students' cultural and academic backgrounds may affect the classroom's actual teaching and learning. For Chinese students studying in Thailand, the language problems they face are even more challenging. They need to learn English well and use English as a learning tool to learn other knowledge. Therefore, their use of English learning strategies in a cross-cultural context may have some influence.

According to ICEF Monitor (2019), Mark Thailand down as the latest Asian market to increase its efforts to attract more significant numbers of Chinese students. As a result, the number of Chinese students in higher education in Thailand is on the

rise. However, weak language skills have been seen as causing academic and social problems among Chinese students (Wang, 2015). Rangsit University also has a large Chinese student population. Currently, there are 620 Chinese students enrolled in Rangsit University, and there may be many more in the future. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the English learning strategies of this student group in the context of Thai culture so that teachers and students can better cooperate and improve the teaching and learning results of this student group. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990) will be administered as an essential operation strategy in this research.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

- 1.3.1 To determine the engagement of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) of Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand.
- 1.3.2 To determine the difference in English proficiency across education level groups by Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand.
- 1.3.3 To determine the difference between using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) of Chinese students in English learning at different levels at Rangsit University, Thailand.

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The different English proficiency level Chinese students use Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) differently at Rangsit University, Thailand.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1.5.1 What are the Chinese students' engagements using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand?
- 1.5.2 Is there any statistically significant mean difference in English proficiency across education level groups by Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand?
- 1.5.3 Are there any differences in using of six strategies of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) for Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand?

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.6.1 Location of the Study

The study was conducted at Rangsit University in Thailand.

1.6.2 Population of the Study

The study population was Chinese students studying for bachelor, master and doctoral degrees in the academic year of 2021 at Rangsit University in Thailand.

1.6.3 Conceptual Framework

For this study, there were two sources of data, independent variables and dependent variables. Independent variables refer to the personal information of Chinese students studying at Rangsit University, Thailand. Including gender, age, English proficiency level and education level, the dependent variables refer to six strategies of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) for Chinese

students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand. The conceptual framework is shown in Figure 1.1

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Independent Variables

English proficiency levels of the Chinese students at Rangsit University, Thailand, are mixed with poor, fair, and Good.

Education levels of the Chinese students at Rangsit University, Thailand, are mixed with bachelor's degree, master's degree, and doctoral degree.

Dependent Variables

Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL): English learning of Chinese students at Rangsit University is different in the following areas:

- 1. Memory
- 2. Cognitive
- 3. Compensation
- 4. Meta-cognitive
- 5. Affective
- 6. Social

Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework of the Study

1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in this study refers to the questionnaire developed by Oxford (1990) to measure language strategies and determine their relationship to other factors, such as age, gender, proficiency, learning style, and culture. The research instruments in this study are based on the SILL concept, which consists of 50 questions divided into six sections: memory strategies (9 items) refers to methods of learning and retrieving information in ordered strings, cognitive strategies (14 items) refers to instructional procedures that students use to help them complete low-structured tasks, compensation strategies (6 items) refers to the method to help learners make up for the lack of knowledge, metacognitive strategies (9 items) refers to the methods used to manage the entire learning process, affective strategies (6 items) relates to methods to determine a person's level of emotion and anxiety, and social strategies (6 items) refers to ways to help learners

work with others and understand the target culture and language. The details of six strategies are described as follows:

- 1) Memory strategies: Memory strategies are specific devices (mnemonics) used by learners to make mental linkages, such as using a new word in a sentence in the target language.
- 2) Cognitive strategies: Cognitive strategies help learners process and use the language for learning, such as Writing notes, messages, letters or reports in the target language. The goal of cognitive strategies is the use of language.
- 3) Compensation strategies: Compensation strategies are intended to make up for missing knowledge while using the language, such as guessing to understand unfamiliar words in the target language.
- 4) Metacognitive strategies: Metacognitive strategies include the planning, organization, evaluation, and monitoring of one "s own language learning, which lead to coordinating own language learning, such as Paying attention while someone is speaking in the target language.
- 5) Affective strategies: Affective strategies are used during learning of language in order to deal with emotions, motivations, and attitudes, such as trying to be relaxed while feeling of using the target language.
- 6) Social Strategies: Social strategies are the ways of interacting with other people in the context of language learning, such as asking questions in the target language, in the case of communication and social interaction.

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English learning in this study refers to Chinese students' English knowledge and skills acquired through experience, research and being taught at Rangsit University, Thailand.

Chinese students in this study refer to the Chinese students studying for bachelor, master and doctoral degrees in the academic year of 2021 at Rangsit University in Thailand.

Thai University in this study refers to Rangsit University (RSU). Rangsit University is located in Pathum Thani, a neighboring province directly north of

Bangkok. Rangsit University is a private institution of higher education with the primary aim of creating graduates in the area of study meeting the national development requirements. The Thai government's Commission fully accredits RSU on Higher Education of the Ministry of Education.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- 1.8.1 The survey was conducted among Chinese students studying at Rangsit University only, not including all Chinese students in Thailand.
- 1.8.2 This is a small scale study of English learning strategies for Chinese students studying at Rangsit University, Thailand, particularly. The results may not be generalized to all overseas Chinese students.

1.9 EXPECTED BENEFITS OF THE STUDY

The idea that language learning strategies are teachable and that learners can benefit from the guidance of learning strategies has been the basis of several pieces of research in this field. Furthermore, studies on language learning strategies show that appropriate language learning strategies used by learners have an impact on their responsibility and improvement in language learning. Therefore, both the teachers and the learners can benefit from it.

- 1.9.1 For English learners can compare their English learning strategies with the findings of this study, make up for their shortcomings, and find suitable English learning strategies, to improve their English learning efficiency and level.
- 1.9.2 For English teachers, the findings of this study will help them better understand their students' learning strategies and methods and then adjust their teaching methods to help students in mastering English skills in a better and faster way.

1.9.3 For course curriculum, the findings of this study are helpful to improve the rationality of the curriculum and the systematicity of teaching. Therefore, it provides betters services for English learning and teaching.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the situation of the English language and the theory of learning strategies and related literature. It is divided into the following parts:

- 2.1 English as a Global Language and Lingua Franca
- 2.2 The English Language in China
- 2.3 Second Language Learning
 - 2.3.1 Stephen Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition
- 2.4 International Students and English Learning
- 2.5 Language Learning Strategies
 - 2.5.1 Definitions of Language Learning Strategies
 - 2.5.2 Classifications of Language Learning Strategies
 - 2.5.3 Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)
 - 2.5.4 The Context of Learning and Language Learning Strategies
 - 2.5.5 Language Proficiency and Language Learning Strategies
- 2.6 Related Theories 777 7 7
 - 2.6.1 Cognitive Theory
 - 2.6.2 Sociocultural Theory
 - 2.6.3 Humanist Theory
 - 2.6.4 Language learning strategy theory
- 2.7 Related Previous Studies
- 2.8 Conclusion

2.1 ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE AND LINGUA FRANCA

As the first world language, known as the first global lingua franca, English is the world's most widely used language (Rao, 2019). English has achieved global status in all aspects of the lives of people around the world. Many researchers describe English as a worldwide phenomenon (Miri, 2019). When new technologies brought new language opportunities, English emerged as one of the first ranked languages in the industry, affecting every aspect of society -- news, advertising, radio, film, sound. At the same time, the world was forming new networks of international alliances, and there appeared an unprecedented demand for a common language. In addition, there is a clear preference. English gradually became the dominant language of international political, academic, and community meetings during the first half of the twentieth century. Over the past few decades, the world has become increasingly interconnected and globalized in many areas of professional, cultural, and social life. One of the significant aspects of the globalization process is that it involves languages and the English language. In other words, it went hand in hand with the spread of English, which evolved from the mother tongue of the world's population into a global language for at least part or other purposes (Fang & Yuan, 2011).

A language acquires actual global status when it develops a unique role that is recognized in every country. However, in a few countries, it has never been used as a mother tongue, so the mother tongue alone cannot confer global status on a language. To achieve this status, the rest of the world must adopt a language. First, a language can become the country's official language in the government, courts, media, and education system. Second, a language can be given priority in foreign language teaching in a country, even if the language has no official status. English has already reached this stage. English best illustrates the role of the official language. English now has a special status in more than 70 countries, including Ghana, Nigeria, India, Singapore and Vanuatu. English is now the most widely spoken language as a foreign language -- in more than 100 countries, such as China, Russia, Germany, Spain, Egypt and Brazil, and in most of these countries emerging as the primary foreign language

encountered in schools, often replacing another language in the process. About a quarter of the world's population is already fluent or competent in English, and that number is steadily growing. At the beginning of the 21st century, that meant about 1.5 billion people. No other language can match this growth (Crystal, 2003).

A global community speaks English, and, as such, it is a language of global ownership (Galloway & Rose, 2015). International English is a transboundary transformation of English in today's globalized world. English has not only formed some "post-colonial" ethnic variations but has also seen new non-national developments in the use of people with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Jenkins, 2015).

English is now a global phenomenon, and the number of English speakers worldwide has risen dramatically. There are more non-native English speakers than native English speakers, and English has become the world's most crucial lingua franca, dominating the world stage in many areas. English has transcended its original boundaries, leading to contact with any other language in the world. Of course, language change and change happen naturally and in all languages, but the spread of English is a unique phenomenon. English exposure takes place on a global platform because it is inextricably linked to the globe. Globalization is at the heart of current language transmission and the rise of a global lingua franca (Galloway & Rose, 2015). The momentum of English as a world language has fueled English as a lingua franca across the globe (Fang & Ren, 2018).

According to Merriam-Webster's dictionary, lingua Franca refers to a common language that combines Italian, French, Spanish, Greek, and Arabic, formerly spoken in Mediterranean ports. However, this sense is not entirely applicable to today's terminology. Today, the term refers to any language used as a standard or commercial language among peoples of different languages (Björkman, 2013).

English as a lingua franca can be defined as "the use of English among people with different mother tongues, for whom it is the medium of choice and often the only

choice." In contrast, "global English" is a broader term that includes recognized varieties of English and English as a lingua franca. It refers to the spread, development and use of English in various contexts (Fang & Ren, 2018). English as a lingua franca has been a hot topic since the late 1990s, receiving increasing attention, and is now a vibrant field of study (Mauranen, 2012).

2.2 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN CHINA

The phenomenon of English as a global language has had an impact on countries all over the world. In Asia, it has had a significant and profound impact on language policies, education systems and patterns of language use in the region. Language decision-makers in Asian countries view English as a vital transnational tool for achieving national goals and individuals as an indispensable resource for personal progress (Gil & Adamson, 2011). China is listed as an expanding circle of countries in which English is used as a foreign language.

In the past quarter-century, English education has received significant attention in the People's Republic of China. Due to the Chinese leadership's conviction that mastery of English is an essential part of quality education, a great deal of policy focuses on primary English education. English education has always been a significant subject in China, and English proficiency is widely regarded as an asset to the country and individuals. Chinese leaders believe that English education plays a vital role in the country's modernization and development at the national level. On an individual level, a good command of English can bring a wealth of economic, social and educational opportunities. As a result of the attention to English and the continuous improvement of English level requirements, countries and individuals have invested many efforts and resources in English language education (Hu, 2005).

Since the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, English has been conflicted in China because it sees something akin to "desirable evil". The Cultural Revolution was at its height in the decade from 1966 to 1976. When English was banned in many parts of China during the Cultural Revolution, many schools and

universities largely ceased functioning as educational institutions (Bolton & Graddol, 2012). The Cultural Revolution ended with the death of Mao Zedong in 1976 and the rise to power of Deng Xiaoping in 1978. After Deng came to power, China announced an "open door" policy, accompanied by a revival in the teaching of English and other foreign languages, including Russian, Japanese and French (Adamson, 2002). After Mao's death, China's new leaders launched a national modernization program led by Deng Xiaoping. Deng firmly believed that advanced science and technology were the keys to China's modernization. Therefore, China needed to gain access to scientific and technological advances worldwide to develop the scientific knowledge base needed for national revitalization. However, access to international expertise is seen as based on many people who are skilled in English. Therefore, the revival and expansion of English education have become an integral part of the modernization process. The status and role of English as a subject in China fluctuates significantly because of its satisfying but sensitive connotations. English is the language of world trade and communication, and learning English is an important strategy to implement the internationalized "modernization" policy (Adamson & Morris, 1997).

English has undergone several dramatic changes in its role and status in China, reflecting, on the one hand, a long-standing concern about the cultural impact of learning English, and on the other, a desire to gain knowledge and opportunities through learning English (Gil & Adamson, 2011). In 1978, the Ministry of Education issued the first unified curriculum for primary and secondary schools and the corresponding draft English syllabus in the modernization era (Hu, 2005). In 1982, the Ministry of Education drafted a six-year English syllabus for "key" secondary schools, among the few prestigious schools established as centres of excellence in education (Lewin, Little, Xu and Zheng, 1994). In the same year, the Ministry of Education also issued a directive on improving professional foreign language secondary schools and a draft curriculum for these schools, heavily supporting foreign language teaching. At the beginning of the new century, there was a renewed attempt to extend English into the elementary curriculum. In January 2001, the Ministry of Education issued a directive on primary school English teaching and a curriculum for primary school English (Hu, 2005). Also, in 2001, Chinese education issued a historical policy,

stipulating that about 5 to 10 per cent of significant university content courses (such as information technology, biotechnology, new material technology, finance.) should teach in English. This policy and practice, known as "Chinese-English bilingual education", is one of the significant steps taken by the Chinese government since the 1980s to enter the world stage, where English has become the lingua franca (Beckett & Li, 2012).

English is still seen as the key to modernization in the new millennium, but it has assumed another role: "English for international status" (Lam, 2002). From its "open door" policy to its successful bid for the 2008 Olympic Games and its accession to the World Trade Organization in 2001, China is ready to "introduce China to the world and introduce China to the world". English is significant to Chinese society (Qi, 2016). As Hu (2005) points out, China's intensive and extensive push for English is based on a general belief that the country's standing in the world and the pace of modernization depend on the country's level of English. The Chinese government believes that English is of great importance to its science, technology, economy and reform as China enters the global era in improving its international status. A market economy requires workers proficient in English. English is the cultural capital for a better life, civilization and high self-esteem and the key to intercultural communication and technological progress (Beckett & Li, 2012).

As the international and domestic political and economic climate has changed, so have the ideologies determining where English should place in China's school curriculum. Moreover, as the role and status of English have increased, so has the interest of Chinese in this language, leading to the vast popularity of learning English today (Hu & Adamson, 2012). English has become a core subject in the curriculum of secondary schools throughout the country and primary schools in developed regions (Liu & Gong, 2000). Almost all higher teacher education institutions offer English language teacher education programs. Along with expanding pre-service English teacher education, various formal and informal in-service programs have been established (Hu, 2005). English has become very important in today's Chinese education system (Zhang, Bolton & Botha, 2019).

2.3 SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Language is a unique thing about human beings. Language is central to human life. We use it to express our love or hate, achieve our goals, develop our careers, obtain artistic satisfaction or simple pleasure, and pray or be profane. We plan our lives and recall our past; we share ideas and experiences; we form our own social and personal identities. However, some people can do some or all of this in more than one language. Mastering another language might mean: getting a job; access to education; the ability to participate more fully in the life of one's own country or the opportunity to emigrate to another; the expansion of literary and cultural horizons; to express one's political or religious views; a chance to talk to people while on holiday abroad. A second language can affect people's careers, futures, lives and identities. Therefore, the learning and use of a second language are vital to People's Daily life. Helping people learn a second language more effectively is an essential task in the 21st century. English is the primary language of second language acquisition research. It is often in the unique situation of being the only language used between non-native speakers anywhere in the world (Cook, 2013).

Second language learning is the conscious process of learning a language other than the first language. This process is often confused with bilingualism and multilingualism. It must occur after acquiring the first language. Second language learning can also refer to the third, fourth, or fifth language learners are learning. Language acquisition is very similar to the process by which children acquire their first and second languages. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language -- natural communication -- in which the speaker is not concerned with what they say but with the information they convey and understand. Error correction and explicit rule teaching have nothing to do with language acquisition. However, conscious language learning believed in helping correct errors and proposing clear rules (Krashen, 1981).

2.3.1 Stephen Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition

Krashen's theory of second language acquisition consists of five main hypotheses:

- 1) the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis,
- 2) the Monitor hypothesis,
- 3) the Natural Order hypothesis,
- 4) the Input hypothesis, and
- 5) the Affective Filter hypothesis.

The Acquisition-Learning hypothesis is the core theory of modern language acquisition theory and the most fundamental theory of Krashen's theory. There are two independent ways to develop our language skills: acquisition and learning. Language acquisition is a natural, intuitive, subconscious process that individuals do not need to know. Language learning is a conscious process, just like what people experience in school.

Monitor Hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines the latter's influence on the former. The monitoring function is the practical result of grammar learning. Krashen (1981) believes that the acquisition system is the initiator of discourse, while the learning system plays the role of "monitor" or "editor". The "monitor" plays a role in planning, editing, and correcting when three specific conditions are met: that the second language learner has plenty of time at his/her disposal, which he/she cares about the correctness of form or thinking, and that he/she, knows the rules.

The natural order hypothesis assumes that all learners acquire a language in roughly the same order. This order does not depend on how easy it is to teach a particular feature of the language. Krashen (1987) argues that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a predictable "natural order". For a given language, some grammatical structures are acquired early, while others are acquired later. This order seems to be independent of learners' age, mother tongue background, and exposure conditions. Although the agreement between individual learners in the study

was not 100%, there were statistically significant similarities, reinforcing a natural order of language acquisition.

The input hypothesis is Krashen's attempt to explain how learners acquire a second language, Krashen's explanation of second language acquisition. Thus, the input hypothesis focuses only on "acquisition" rather than "learning". According to this hypothesis, when a learner receives second language "input", he/she improves and develops along the "natural sequence", which is a step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if the learner is in the "I" stage, then acquisition occurs when he/she is exposed to "comprehensible input" at the "I + 1" level. Knowledge outside language includes our knowledge of the world and the situation, namely context. Thus, +1 represents the "next increment" of new knowledge or language structures that learners can acquire.

The influential filtering hypothesis is that many "affective variables" play a promoting role in second language acquisition but not a causal role. These variables include motivation, confidence and anxiety. According to Krashen, highly motivated, confident learners who have a good self-image and have low anxiety levels are more likely to acquire a second language. Conversely, low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety "raise" emotional filters and create "psychological barriers" that prevent comprehensible input from being used for acquisition.

2.4 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AND ENGLISH LEARNING

It is generally accepted that English has become the language of choice for many international academic journals. Almost every university in the world uses English as the medium of classroom teaching and evaluation (Zhiping & Paramasivam, 2013). It is well known that English skills are one of the essential factors in shaping the social and academic experience of international students in an English as a second language environment (Alharbi, 2017). English is widely used in many fields worldwide (Bjorkman, 2013). One of the areas where the English language is dominant is in global academia, represented by a large market of international students.

Most international academic conferences, seminars, workshops, Etc., regardless of their geographical setting, use English as the primary and often only lingua-franca, even if few or no native speakers are present. Therefore, English learning is essential for international students.

Research has shown that English language proficiency affects the experience of international students. International students' own cultural and social practices may also make it easier to adapt to the new environment or hinder their smooth transition (Alharbi, 2017). It was one of the challenges facing international students in English proficiency. However, most international students have different English levels, and there are significant differences in academic performance among international students with different English levels. Weak English skills are one reason why some international students are isolated from native speakers and faculty members (Zua, 2016).

Other factors such as social and cultural events, mentoring programs and student organizations can be responsible for the success of international students (Vaughn, Bergman & Fass-Holmes, 2015). International students' previous English experience and preparation, learning style, participation, willingness, and motivation to learn to influence their experience (Alharbi, 2017). Considering that other personal differences and social culture may shape learners' personalities, this study focuses on language proficiency as an essential variable to investigate the English learning experience of Chinese international students in a Thai context.

2.5 LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

The history of language learning strategies concept dates back a long time. It was first brought to wide attention in the 1970s by researchers such as Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975). Since the 1970s, researchers have been defining and classifying strategies that help second language learners succeed in learning (Cohen, 2011). This study explores two variables that influence learners' language learning strategies: Language proficiency and the context of learning. Effective teaching influences the

choice and use of language learning strategies; however, there are other important individual and external variables (Alharbi, 2017).

2.5.1 Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) points out that strategies are crucial for language learning "because they are tools for active, self-directed participation, essential for developing communicative competence". Because of the importance of learning strategies, learning strategies have been widely used in education. However, "different researchers use different terms and concepts" (Oxford & Crookall, 1989). Therefore, many researchers have defined the term language learning strategy differently.

In the 1970s, Rubin (1975) defined strategies as "the techniques or devices, which a learner may use to acquire knowledge". Bialystok (1978) defined language learning strategies as "optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language". Meanwhile, he identified four kinds of language learning strategies: (a) formal practicing, (b) functional practicing, (c) monitoring, and (d) inferencing.

Into the 1980s, Rubin (1987) defined language learning strategies as strategies that contribute to developing the language system which the learner constructs and affects learning directly. According to O'Malley et al. (1985), language learning strategies have been broadly defined as any set of operations or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, or use of information. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) proposed learning strategies as behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that intended to influence the learner's encoding process. Nisbett (1986) put forward another definition of language learning strategies: there has always been the goals and objectives as the guidance, but may not always consciously or intentionally level that is they can belong may also perform very quickly so that learners cannot recapture, memory, and even being conscious that they use some strategy. Another linguist, Chamot (1987), defines language learning strategies as techniques, methods, or purposeful actions students take to promote the

learning and recall of language and content area information. Schmeck (1988) points out that strategy is implementing a set of procedures (tactics) to accomplish something while learning strategy is a series of procedures to accomplish learning. In addition, Oxford and Crookall (1989) define language learning strategies as steps taken by learners to facilitate the acquisition, storage and retrieval of information. They point out that strategies may be conscious, but they can also become habitual and automatic exercises.

Into the 1990s, Oxford (1990) claimed, "learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their learning". She proposed a more specific definition of learning strategies as specific actions the learner takes to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and transferable to new situations. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) viewed language learning strategies as particular thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information. Wenden (1991) stated that learner strategies refer to language learning behaviors; learners involve learning and managing the learning of a second language, what they know about the strategies they use; what they know about the parts of their language learning other than the strategies they use. According to McIntyre (1994), the term strategy implies active planning to pursue a goal, which will not happen automatically. He offered a different perspective to define language learning strategies as the actions chosen by language students intended to facilitate language acquisition and communication. The definition focuses more on learners' intention and choice of using language learning strategies.

As the 2000s dawned, Griffiths (2008) believes defining the study's structure to conduct meaningful research is necessary. After a detailed study of the previous literature, she defined language learning strategies as "activities consciously chosen by learners to regulate their language learning". Oxford (2018) defined language learning strategies (LLS) as LLS are mental activities that are sometimes also manifested in observable behaviors. They are complex, dynamic, teachable, and at least partially conscious. LLS can orchestrate to meet immediate learning needs in specific contexts. LLS can involve various self-regulation functions (e.g., cognitive, emotional/affective,

motivational, social, and metastrategic) to (a) accomplish current language tasks, (b) improve language learning performance, and (c) enhance long-term proficiency.

Although there is no agreed definition of language learning strategies, linguists believe this field is "one of the richest areas of language learning research" (Alharbi, 2017).

2.5.2 Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have been classified by many experts in the field of language learning. The following are some categories of language learning strategies:

O' Malley et al. (1985) divided language learning strategies into three main categories:

- A. Metacognitive Strategies;
- B. Cognitive Strategies;
- C. Social-affective Strategies.

Metacognition refers to a type of executive function that involves planning learning, thinking about the learning process taking place, observing one's production or understanding, correcting one's own mistakes, and evaluating learning strategies after the activity is over. Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material. Finally, Social-affective strategies are closely related to intermediary social activities and interaction with others.

Rubin (1987) divided language learning strategies into three categories:

- A. Learning Strategies;
- B. Communication Strategies;
- C. Social Strategies.

Learning strategies are divided into two main types (cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive learning strategies). Cognitive strategies refer to the steps or measures taken in learning or problem solving to directly analyze, transform, or integrate learning materials. Metacognitive strategies are used to supervise, control, or self-direct language learning; Communicative strategies are used by speakers when they encounter difficulties in communication and conversation or are misunderstood by their co-speakers; Social strategy allows learners to participate put their knowledge into practice.

Oxford (1990) divided language learning strategies into six categories:

- 1) Memory strategies
- 2) Cognitive strategies
- 3) Compensation strategies
- 4) Meta-cognitive strategies
- 5) Affective strategies
- 6) Social strategies

Memory strategies refer to methods of learning and retrieving information in ordered strings. Cognitive strategies refer to instructional procedures that students use to help them complete low-structured tasks. Compensation strategy refers to the method to help learners make up for the lack of knowledge. Meta-cognition refers to the methods used to manage the entire learning process. Affective strategies refer to methods to determine a person's level of emotion and anxiety. Finally, social strategies refer to methods to help learners work with others and understand the target culture and language (Tsan, 2008).

According to an extensive literature review, the Oxford Classification is probably the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies to date, and the literature indicates that it is the most widely accepted classification (Fazeli, 2011).

2.5.3 Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Based on Oxford's taxonomy, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was developed. These language learning strategies can be classified into memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and Social strategies. The details of six strategies are described as follows:

- 1) Memory strategies: Memory strategies are specific devices (mnemonics) used by learners to make mental linkages, such as using a new word in a sentence in the target language.
- 2) Cognitive strategies: Cognitive strategies help learners process and use the language for learning, such as Writing notes, messages, letters or reports in the target language. The goal of cognitive strategies is the use of language.
- 3) Compensation strategies: Compensation strategies are intended to make up for missing knowledge while using the language, such as guessing to understand unfamiliar words in the target language.
- 4) Metacognitive strategies: Metacognitive strategies include the planning, organization, evaluation, and monitoring of one "s own language learning, which lead to coordinating own language learning, such as Paying attention while someone is speaking in the target language.
- 5) Affective strategies: Affective strategies are used during learning of language in order to deal with emotions, motivations, and attitudes, such as trying to be relaxed while feeling of using the target language.
- 6) Social Strategies: Social strategies are the ways of interacting with other people in the context of language learning, such as asking questions in the target language, in the case of communication and social interaction.

Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is a widely used tool to study EFL students' language learning strategies (Rianto, 2020). Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) test consists of 50 questions divided into six sections: memory strategies (9 items), cognitive strategies (14 items), compensation strategies (6 items), metacognitive strategies (9 items), affective strategies (6 items), and social strategies (6 items).

In the literature on language learning strategies, SILL is a widely used questionnaire to determine learners' language learning strategies. Since 1990, SILL has been the most influential in language learning strategy research; it has been translated into 20 languages and is used in many studies. The questionnaire was developed by Oxford (1990) to measure the use of language strategies and determine their relationship to other factors, such as age, gender, proficiency, learning style, and culture. It may be even more valuable if it is used in conjunction with the experience of those who learn English as a second language in a foreign environment (Alharbi, 2017).

2.5.4 The Context of Learning and Language Learning Strategies

The context of learning is the factor that researchers have emphasized to influence language learners' use of language learning strategies (Gao, 2010; Jang & Jimenez, 2011; Alharbi, 2017). Learning context involves the social, cultural, political and educational environment in which learning takes place. It can include teachers, peers, classroom atmosphere or ethos, family support, social and cultural traditions of learning, curriculum, and availability of input and output opportunities (Gu, 2012).

The effectiveness of strategy instruction depends on the learning context. Language learning strategies are individual attributes of language users and group behaviour reflecting the learning culture and language teaching methods in a specific social context (Yu & Wang, 2009). Individual differences and environmental factors influence language learning strategies. From the perspective of social culture, strategy instruction is regulated by the social and cultural context. Thus, the central unit in the learning process is society, not the individual (Ngo, 2019).

Research on language learning strategies shows that the application of language learning strategies is related to learners' differences and the context in which learners acquire language (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2007). Many authors have discussed the critical role of context in language learning. For example, Norton and Toohey (2001) considered the first to introduce the importance of context learners into

language learning and teaching. Gao (2006) also points out the dynamic nature of language learning strategy choice and use under the influence of different learning contexts. A survey of 14 Chinese immigrant students after coming to the UK showed changes in their use of language learning strategies, shows that the development of social culture can help learners of language and its more profound understanding of strategy use should conduct more research on learning strategy based on this method in order to understand with time learning environment's influence on the strategy to use.

In conclusion, learners' strategy use occurs within their community of language learning practice and social culture. Thus, social context greatly influences strategy development and is a language learning community formed in learners' socialization. This shift from highly specific, atomized strategic behaviour to a more holistic view of strategic learning about context has been significant in future strategy research (Wang, 2015).

2.5.5 Language Proficiency and Language Learning Strategies

Studying language learning strategies aims to improve learning efficiency, so studying the relationship between language learning strategies and language learning results (Lee, 2010).

Porte (1988) found that his lower-achieving students used many strategies, although they were not appropriately used. Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) found a negative correlation between strategy use and achievement. They attributed this because their sample was composed of experienced language learners who did not need to use many strategies.

In contrast to these findings, Green and Oxford (1995) found that students with higher proficiency use various strategies significantly more frequently than students with lower proficiency. Finally, Griffifiths (2003) identified several strategic projects and groups typical for both high and low-level students and discovered a

positive correlation between course levels and reported that frequency language learning strategy use. Similarly, Kyungsim and Leavell (2006) found that more active strategy users improved more quickly than those who regularly used strategies in their study. A related study by Rahimi (2004) attempted to investigate the factors that influence the language use limitations of Persian English learners above secondary school level; his findings indicate that proficiency and motivation are significant predictors of participants' language learning strategies. Similarly, Khalil (2005) also concluded that proficiency significantly impacts the overall strategy use of Palestinian English learners and that the impact on the six strategy categories is variable. Finally, Yang (2007) conducted another related study that showed significant differences in cognitive, compensatory, and social category strategies and global primitives among low, medium, and advanced English learners in Taiwan.

Some studies have found a strong relationship between proficiency and strategy, while others have not fully revealed the reasons for this relationship. Takeuchi, Griffiths and Coyle (2007) enumerate several possible reasons for this contradiction. First, they cite the idea of Scarcella and Oxford (1992) that other variables may mask the use of strategies, such as self-esteem, ambiguity tolerance, field dependence/independence, and motivation. Second, they suggest that the contradictory results may have to do with the types of tools chosen to measure proficiency. For example, according to Nisbet et al. (2005), learner strategies may be more strongly correlated with more tests of communicative competence, unlike the TOEFL, which is primarily used to assess cognitive/academic language competence. Third, Nisbet et al. (2005) suggest that learners may use strategies other than those reported on the windowsill. Finally, one explanation is that the frequency with which strategies are applied determines learning outcomes but the flexibility with which strategies are used in a given context (Kamalizad & Samuel, 2018).

2.6 RELATED THEORETICAL STUDIES

2.6.1 Cognitive Theory

Cognitive theory is a psychological approach that attempts to explain human behavior by understanding human thought processes. From a cognitive perspective, learning a language is not just a matter of behaviorist habit formation. Like any other kind of learning, learning a language requires taking in information, processing it and acting on it. In addition, learners can generate rules, learn from mistakes, develop Interlanguage, establish mental frameworks called schemas, and use metacognition to manage their learning, thus making order into a complex and chaotic system (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014).

The study of language learning strategies originates from cognitive theory, which explores second language acquisition from psychological processes, measured by understanding and generation (Alharbi, 2017).

2.6.2 Sociocultural Theory

One of the main concepts of sociocultural theory is its claim that the human mind is mediated. In sociocultural learning theory, scaffolding supports learners to self-regulate their language learning process (Lantolf, 2004). According to sociocultural theory, social interaction and cultural institutions play an essential role in individuals' cognitive growth and development (Donato & MacCormick, 1994). The sociocultural theory includes communicative competence, acculturation model, zone of proximal development and activity theory. In strategy theory, sociocultural is obvious, such as finding a dialogue partner, learning culture, or asking for help. Activity selection serves as a tool to achieve language learning goals in a sociocultural context (Griffiths, 2020). Learning is a social process in which cognitive development occurs through interaction with other people and influences the individual's culture. From the sociocultural perspective, learning environment and context affect individuals' language learning strategy orientation (Nguyen & Terry, 2017).

2.6.3 Humanist Theory

Humanism focuses on the potential of each individual and stresses the importance of growth and self-realization. Driven by individual factors such as gender, age, motivation, belief, national perspective, personality, style, aptitude orientation, identity, and emotion, learners are distinct individuals and differ even within the same sociocultural context. As a result, the learner occurs as an individual is also steadily growing (Pawlak, 2012). Humanism is probably the most apparent emotional strategy among strategy theories, such as maintaining motivation, positive self-talk or developing self-confidence (Griffiths, 2020).

2.6.4 Language learning strategy theory

Language learning strategy theory combines the theoretical traditions and regards learners as individuals with cognitive activity ability conducted activities according to their human characteristics in the social environment. In addition, strategy theory retains traces of other theories, such as behaviorism, structuralism, post-structuralism and self-regulation (Griffiths, 2020).

In conclusion, we might argue that the theories underpinning language learning strategies are highly complex, dynamic, and eclectic, drawing on many different theoretical traditions.

2.7 RELATED PREVIOUS STUDIES

In a previous study, Zhao (2009) investigated 254 Chinese undergraduate students from Assumption University in Thailand on language learning strategy categories in the Oxford Taxonomy and the relationship between language learning strategies and English proficiency. The results showed that the students' overall strategy use was moderate, the compensation strategy use frequency was the highest, and the memorize strategy category use frequency was the lowest. Students' academic performance and self-efficacy positively correlated with the use of language learning strategies.

In and out of class, Business students in Thailand have different majors and different levels of proficiency in the same business field. Besides, Kotarputh & Phusawisot (2012) used the language learning strategies questionnaire of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 to collect data and investigate language learning strategies in different situations. The results show differences in language learning strategies between high and low-level students, but the significance level does not reach 0.05. Accounting and marketing students may use similar strategies in terms of majors, but management students may use slightly different strategies. All three majors in business seem to rely on the same language learning strategy in all aspects of language learning strategies. In in-class strategies, the affective strategy group had the highest use frequency, while the memory strategy group had the lowest use frequency outside of class, while the social strategy group had the lowest use frequency.

Similarly, Anugkakul & Yordchim (2014) used Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to study the frequency of language learning strategies used by 36 Chinese students from Sunandha Rajabhat University in Thailand and their relationship with gender. The results show that, firstly, Chinese students use a high level of overall language learning strategies. Secondly, among the six strategy groups, the frequency of Chinese students using compensation strategy is the highest, and the frequency of memorizing strategy is the lowest. Third, the results also show that gender significantly impacts Chinese students overall language learning strategy.

Another study by Rao (2016) explores the relationship between students' language learning strategies and their English proficiency and explains two models in information processing theory. The results show that English proficiency significantly impacts students' learning strategies, and high-level students use strategies more frequently than low-level students. The in-depth analysis of the data found that each group of students has some characteristics in using strategies. These characteristics may be related to the five factors in the ACT model (L2 Learning Management, Imagination, Analysis, Practice, and Information Processing Limitation Management)

and the three factors in the 3P model (Value and Expectation of Achievement, Language Competence, and Prior Knowledge).

According to Kamalizad (2018), adopted the seventh edition of Oxford's SILL to collect learners' language learning strategy on the six strategy categories included in SILL and reported the influence of language ability on Iranian English learners' strategy use in two different contexts, ESL in Malaysia and EFL in Iran. The results show that language ability significantly affects ESL learners' use of the overall strategies and the six strategies. In contrast, there is no significant difference in the overall use of SILL and its six strategy categories among low, medium and high-level English learners.

In conclusion, most studies on language learning strategies use Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in the data collection process, and language learning strategies are related to language proficiency and learning context.

2.8 CONCLUSION

Since the 1960s, English has become the formal language of instruction in higher education in many countries and is increasingly used in countries with official language status. Over the past half-century, the English language teaching business has become one of the major growth industries in the world (Crystal, 2003).

It is well known that English language skills are one of the most important factors that influence the social and academic experience of international students in English as a second language context. Therefore, overcoming the English barrier can speed up the better adjustment of overseas students and the social and cultural problems that may arise in the context of the host country (Alharbi, 2017).

With the cooperation between higher education in Thailand and China, more and more Chinese students enter Thai universities. The English language plays an essential role in connecting Thai teachers and Chinese students. As a learning tool for Chinese students studying in Thailand, English is essential for their study and daily life. However, the pressure on Thai teachers and Chinese students to use English is increasing due to the differences in language and cultural backgrounds and the uneven English proficiency of the students from different Chinese cities. In order to better understand the learning situation of Chinese students, it is necessary to understand the English learning situation of Chinese students in the Thai context, the learning strategies they use and the differences in the learning strategies used by students with different English levels. Therefore, this study will use Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to investigate the learning strategies used by Chinese students in their English learning in the Thai context and the differences in the strategies used by students with the different English proficiency levels.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology, including the research design, context of the study, population and sample, research instrument, Validity and reliability of research instrument, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

In this research, the researcher used the mixed-method approach to investigate the engagement of English language learning strategies used by Chinese undergraduate, master and doctoral students studying at Rangsit University in Thailand and find the differences in English language learning strategies at different English levels.

Mixed-method research emerged from the paradigm war between qualitative and quantitative research methods and became a widely used investigation mode (Terrell, 2012). The qualitative methodology intends to understand a complex reality and the meaning of actions in a given context. Moreover, the quantitative methodology seeks to obtain accurate and reliable measurements that allow a statistical analysis (Queirós, Faria & Almeida, 2017).

The instruments used in this study were Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Questionnaire and Semi-structured Interview. Then the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 25.0) program was used to analyze the quantitative data received from the questionnaire, and content analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data collected from the Semi-structured Interview. Finally, the

research questions of this study were answered through the analysis and comparison of the two sets of data.

3.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted at Rangsit University in Thailand, where most majors open to international students were taught in English. Currently, 620 Chinese students were studying at Rangsit University.

3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

3.3.1 The Research Population

The population of this study were 620 Chinese students who are studying for bachelor, master and doctoral degrees in the academic year of 2021 at Rangsit University in Thailand.

3.3.2 The Research Sample

This study used a simple random sampling method and purposive sampling method to select sample. The simple random sampling method was used to select the sample of a questionnaire survey, and the purposive sampling method was used to select the sample of the Semi-Structured Interview.

This research sample calculated used Taro Yamane's formula with a 95% confidence level (Yamane, 1967). The calculation formula of Taro Yamane presents as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} \tag{3-1}$$

Where, n =The sample size

N =The size of the population

e = The error of 5 percentage points (0.05)

The calculation is shown as follows:

$$244 = \frac{620}{1 + 620 * 0.05^2}$$

According to Taro Yamane's formula, 244 students were calculated as the sample size for this questionnaire survey. After getting the questionnaire results, the Semi-Structured Interview questions were formulated in line with the findings from the questionnaire. After that, the researcher selected ten voluntary students with mixed English proficiency levels for Semi-Structured Interviews through the purposive sampling method.

3.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The research instruments used in this study include a questionnaire and Semi-Structured Interview, the questionnaire designed as a quantitative research instrument, and the Semi-Structured Interviews as a qualitative research instrument.

3.4.1 Research Questionnaire

Learning strategies are largely unobservable, although some may be related to observed behavior. The most common and effective way to identify students' learning strategies is through questionnaires (Chamot, 2004).

The questionnaire used in this study includes two parts: personal background information, including degree study, major, gender, age and self-English proficiency; the second part is adopted and created under the Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) concept. Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) items are divided into six sections: 1) memory strategies, 2) cognitive

strategies, 3) compensation strategies, 4) metacognitive strategies, 5) affective strategies, and 6) social strategies.

Rensis Likert discovered the Likert rating scale in 1931 (Likert, 1931) as a widely used method to evaluate attitudes. The questionnaire includes a paper questionnaire and an electronic questionnaire. The participants answered each statement on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), representing the different scales of importance that they placed on each of the Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990).

3.4.2 Research Semi-Structured Interview

The qualitative semi-structured interview is one of the most important and widely used data collection methods in the social sciences (Bradford & Cullen, 2013).

The Semi-Structured Interview in this study is intended to support and supplement the results of the questionnaire survey. According to the questionnaire results, the researcher will select ten voluntary students with different English proficiency levels to do a 20 to 30 minutes face-to-face Semi-Structured Interview, respectively, with purposive sampling.

3.5 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Validity and reliability are the essential elements in developing a measurement for an instrument (Sharma, 2016). Validity is to check how well an instrument accurately measures what it intends to measure. Reliability is to check the ability of an instrument to make consistent measurements (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

3.5.1 Validity of Research Instruments

The index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) developed by Rovinelli and Hambleton is used in test development to evaluate content validity at the item development stage (Rovinelli & Hambleton, 1977).

Although Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) has been widely used in language learning and has proven feasible by many researchers, there is still a need to verify its Validity. Therefore, the questionnaire was submitted to three experts from Rangsit University to verify its Validity using the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC). According to Rovinelli and Hambleton (1977), IOC scoring scales from -1 to 1. Following are the details:

The score = +1: If experts definitely have the feeling that an item is a measure of an objective.

The score = 0: If experts are not sure whether the item is a measure of an objective.

The score = -1: If experts definitely have the feeling that an item is not a measure of an objective.

Total points for each item must have a consistency value equal to or above 0.67 to +1 (Rovinelli & Hambleton, 1977).

The formula for calculating the IOC=
$$\sum \frac{r}{n}$$
 (3-2)

Where; IOC = Item-Objective Congruence

R = Sum of the scores of experts

n = Number of experts

Before the Validity, this questionnaire has 50 statements. After being examined by three experts for the IOC analysis, the researcher deleted five statements, following the experts' advice to ensure that all the 45 statements were acceptable. The validity score of the questionnaire was 0.90 (see Appendix B and Appendix D).

3.5.2 Reliability of Research Instruments

Lee Cronbach developed alpha in 1951 to measure the internal consistency of a test or scale. Reliability can be calculated in various ways, but Cronbach's alpha value is widely used to measure internal survey tools or reliability (Sharma, 2016).

To ensure the practicality of the questionnaire, the researcher conducted a pilot test with 30 participants at Rangsit University after receiving IOC approval. The researcher used Cronbach's alpha (α) formula to ensure the reliability of the 30 questionnaires.

Cronbach's alpha (
$$\alpha$$
) formula:
$$\alpha = \frac{N\bar{c}}{\bar{v} + (N-1)\bar{c}}$$
 (3-3)

Where; N =the Number of items

 \bar{c} = average covariance between item-pairs

 $\bar{v} = average variance$

The following Table 3.1 shows the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of questionnaire Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

Table 3.1 Reliability of the questionnaire.

Reliability of questionnaire								
Number of items	Sample size	Cronbach' s Alpha						
45	30	0.973						

The questionnaire items with Cronbach's alpha value must be greater than 0.7 considered reliable (George & Mallery, 2010). The reliability check from the pilot test results of the thirty students was 0.973 (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.973) (see Appendix E); hence, the questionnaire of this research was reliable.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The researcher collected relevant data from Chinese students studying at Rangsit University through a questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews.

3.6.1 Ethical Consideration

Ethics is the study of philosophical ideas of right and wrong actions. Ethics is the study of good behavior, character, and motivation.

In order to ensure that research was conducted ethically, the researcher first seeks approval from relevant authorities before collecting data and protecting the identity of all participants, including questionnaire respondents and semi-structured interview respondents.

3.6.2 Approval from Concerned Authority

First of all, before data collection, the researcher applies to the concerned authority of Rangsit University for permission to conduct a questionnaire and semi-structured interview in order to collect data from the samples in this study.

3.6.3 Anonymity of the Participants and Confidentiality of the Information

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The researcher strictly reserves the anonymity of all participants and the confidentiality of their opinions. The answers and information from the participants were used for research purposes only; they were reported as the full results and not released individually.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

This research uses the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 25.0) program to analyze questionnaire data. In addition, the researcher used content analysis as an analytic method for semi-structured interview data.

3.7.1 Questionnaire Data Analysis

In order to investigate the English learning strategies used by Chinese students in the Thai context, the Oxford Language Learning Strategies Scale (SILL) is used to collect questionnaire data. Through the data collected from the questionnaire survey, SPSS software analyzes the use frequency, a mean and standard deviation of each English learning strategy. The mean score of each language learning strategy is then ranked to determine the high or low use of each language learning strategy frequency. The frequency levels are explained by Likert's 5 points, ranging from 1 to 5.

A range of scores interpreted (Oxford, 1990) as follows:

3.5 - 5.0 = the high use of that strategy,

2.5 - 3.49 =the medium use, and

1.0 - 2.49 =the low use.

3.7.2 Semi-Structured Interview Data Analysis

Content analysis is considered the most appropriate method for secondary analysis of interview records (Douglas, Hamilton & Grubs, 2009). In this research, the researcher used content analysis as an analytic method for semi-structured interview data. First, the researcher analyzed the text in detail by looking at the opinions expressed by the interviewees. Then, ideas were grouped as themes, meaning that the same themes are grouped. In addition, the researcher clarified the participants' interview information to find out the methods they used in learning the English language and gathered details about their English language learning strategies to report the results.

In the next chapter, Chapter 4, all the results from the data analysis will be reported accordingly.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter mainly analyzes the language learning strategies used by Chinese students in English Learning in the Thailand context. The research adopted a mixed-methods approach to collect quantitative and qualitative data showing Chinese students' perceptions of learning English in the Thai environment. This chapter aims to provide the quantitative findings of the SILL questionnaire and the qualitative findings of the semi-structured interview and present some descriptive analysis of the results.

4.1 ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE DATA

4.1.1 Individual Background Questionnaire

The researcher created a personal background questionnaire to collect demographic information about the participants. The information collected included gender, age, province, education level, major and IELTS scores and English proficiency.

4.1.1.1 Gender of Participants

The Figure 4.1 shows the participants' gender.

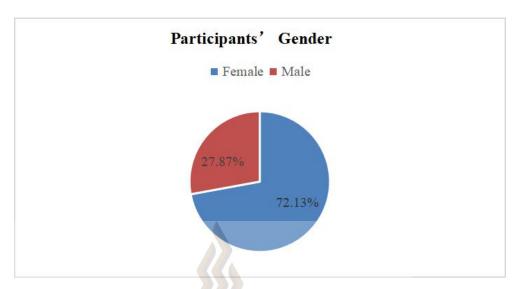


Figure 4.1 Participants' Gender

From Figure 4.1, 176 volunteer students were females (72.13%), and 68 were males (27.87%).

4.1.1.2 Age of Participants

The Figure 4.2 shows the participants' age.

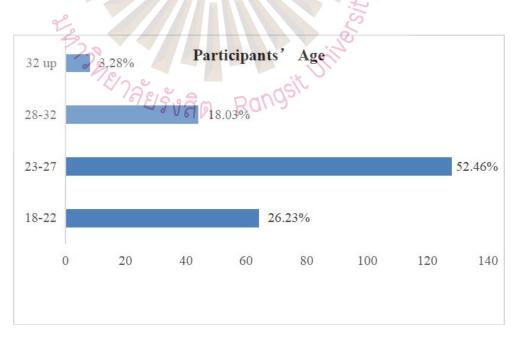


Figure 4.2 Participants' Age

From Figure 4.2, the participants' ages breakdowns were: 18-22 (n=64; 26.32%), 23-27 (n=128; 52.46%), 28-32 (n=44; 18.03%), and 32 up (n=8; 3.28%).

4.1.1.3 Province of Participants

The following Table 4.1 shows the provinces in China where Chinese students at Rangsit University came from.

Table 4.1 the provinces in China where the participants came from.

Province	n	Percentage
Yunnan	80	32.79%
Sichuan	20	8.20%
Henan	16	6.56%
Chongqing	16	6.56%
Guangxi	12	4.92%
Heilongjiang	12	4.92%
Shanghai	12	4.92%
Anhui	8	3.28%
Guizhou	8	3.28%
Zhejiang	8	3.28%
Jiangxi	Service 8 and sit	3.28%
Shandong	43,14W 8Karra	3.28%
Hunan	8	3.28%
Hebei	4	1.64%
Fujian	4	1.64%
Guangdong	4	1.64%
Hainan	4	1.64%
Beijing	4	1.64%
Hubei	4	1.64%
Liaoning	4	1.64%
Total	244	100.00%

The demographic profile of survey participants showed Chinese students from 20 different provinces. Most of them came from Yunnan (32.79%; n = 80), followed by Sichuan (8.20%; n = 20); The least number came from Hebei, Fujian, Guangdong, Hainan, Beijing, Liaoning and Hubei, with four people each from these seven provinces, accounting for 1.64%.

4.1.1.4 Participants' Education Levels



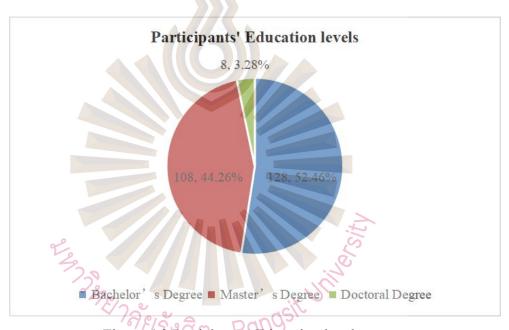


Figure 4.3 Participants' Education levels

From Figure 4.3, the participants were bachelor's degree students with the highest number (n=128; 54.26%), master's degree (n=108; 44.26%) and doctoral degree (n=8; 3.28%) respectively.

4.1.1.5 Participants' Major

The Figure 4.4 shows the participants' majors.

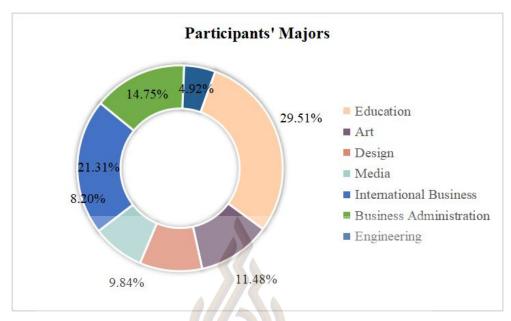


Figure 4.4 Participants' Majors

From Figure 4.4, the participants' major were Education (n=72; 29.51%), Art (n=28; 11.48%), Design (n=24; 9.84%), Media (n=20; 8.20%), International Business (n=52; 21.31%), Business Administration (n=36; 14.75%), Engineering (n=12; 4.92%).

4.1.1.6 Participants' International English Language Testing System (IELTS)
Scores and English Proficiency level



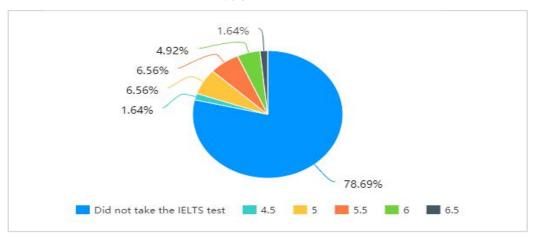
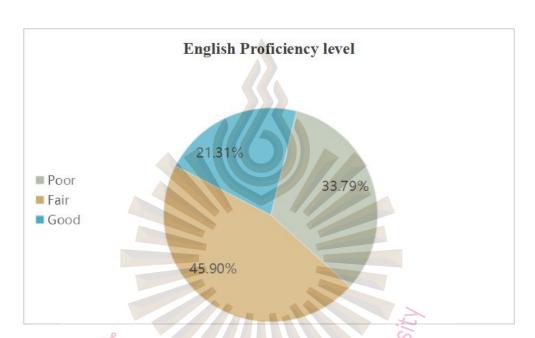


Figure 4.5 Participants' IELTS Scores

From Figure 4.5, the demographic profile of the survey participants showed that most of the participants had not taken IELTS (n=192; 78.69%), only a few students had taken IELTS, and the score of the participants were 4.5 (n=4; 1.64%), 5 (n=16; 6.56%), 5.5 (n=16; 6.56%), 6 (n=12; 4.92%), 6.5 (n=4; 1.64%).



The Figure 4.6 shows the participants' English proficiency level.

Figure 4.6 Participants' English Proficiency level

From Figure 4.6, the participants' English Proficiency level were Poor (n=80; 33.79%), Fair (n=112; 45.90%), Good (n=52; 21.31%).

4.1.2 The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Questionnaire

The SILL was administered to 244 Chinese students studying English at Rangsit University. The results of the questionnaire are presented in the following tables. It was rated by "Likert scale" from 1 to 5. Each statement is Never (1); Usually not (2); Somewhat (3); Usually (4) and Always (5). The mean and S.D were computed for all the statements, and the researcher used them to find out the most frequently used strategies, shown in Table 4.2.

The following Table 4.2 showed the frequency of using all statements of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning of Chinese students at Rangsit University.

Table 4.2 The frequency of using all statements of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

Strategy	Item	Statement	Mean	S.D	Level
Strategy	No.	Statement	Wican	5.D	Level
Metacognitive	32	I pay attention when someone	4.02	.957	High
Strategy		is speaking English.			
Social Strategy	45	If I do not understand	3.95	.902	High
		something in English, I ask			
		the other person to slow down			
		or say it again.			
Compensation	24	To understand unfamiliar	3.92	.881	High
Strategy		English words, I make			
		guesses.			
Metacognitive	33	I try to find out how to be a	3.92	.900	High
Strategy T	2	better learner of English.	S		
Cognitive	15	I watch English TV shows	3.84	.916	High
Strategy		spoken in English or go to			
		movies spoken in English.			
Social	50	I try to learn about the culture	3.8	1.030	High
Strategy		of English speakers.			
Affective	40	I encourage myself to speak	3.75	.994	High
Strategy		English even when I am afraid			
		of making a mistake.			
Metacognitive	30	I try to find as many ways as I	3.74	.964	High
Strategy		can to use my English.			

Table 4.2 The frequency of using all statements of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). (Cont.)

Strategy	Item No.	Statement	Mean	S.D	Level
Cognitive	12	I practice the sounds of	3.72	1.002	High
Strategy		English.			
Memory	3	I connect the sound of a new	3.7	.972	High
Strategy		English word and an image or			
		picture of the word to help me			
		remember the word.			
Cognitive	19	I look for words in my own	3.7	.937	High
Strategy		language that are similar to			
		new words in English.			
Compensation	25	When I can't think of a	3.7	.901	High
Strategy		word during a conversation in			
		English, I use gestures.			
Affective	39	I try to relax whenever I feel	3.69	.904	High
Strategy		afraid of using English.	yity		
Memory	2	I use new English words in a	3.67	.926	High
Strategy	122	sentence so I can remember			
		them.			
Cognitive	21	I find the meaning of any	3.67	.908	High
Strategy		English word by dividing it			
		into parts that I understand.			
Affective	42	I notice if I am tense or	3.66	.947	High
Strategy		nervous when I am studying			
		or using English.			
Social	48	I ask for help from English	3.66	1.078	High
Strategy		speakers.			

Table 4.2 The frequency of using all statements of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). (Cont.)

Strategy	Item No.	Statement	Mean	S.D	Level
Compensation	29	I can't think of an English	3.64	1.081	High
Strategy		word, I use a word or phrase			8
5,		that means the same thing.			
Mamaux	1		3.62	1.051	High
Memory	1	I think of relationships	3.02	1.031	High
Strategy		between what I already know			
		and new things I learn in			
		English.			
Metacognitive	38	I think about my progress in	3.62	.840	High
Strategy		learning English.			
Social	47	I practice English with other	3.62	1.035	High
Strategy		students.			
Cognitive	23	I make summaries of	3.61	.936	High
Strategy		information that I hear or read			
		in English.	14.		
Cognitive	214	I start conversations in	3.59	1.101	High
Strategy	1728	English.	City		
Memory	4	I remember a new English	3.57	.865	High
Strategy		word by making a mental			
		picture of a situation in which			
		the word might be used.			
Metacognitive	31	I notice my English mistakes	3.57	.936	High
Strategy		and I use that information to			
		help me do better.			
Social	49	I ask questions in English.	3.57	1.087	High
Strategy					
Cognitive	13	I use the English words I	3.56	1.073	High
Strategy		know in different ways.			

Table 4.2 The frequency of using all statements of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). (Cont.)

Strategy	Item No.	Statement Me		S.D	Level
Compensation	28	I try to guess what the other	3.56	1.057	High
Strategy		person will say next in			
		English.			
Affective	41	I give myself a reward or treat	3.56	1.041	High
Strategy		when I do well in English.			
Cognitive	20	I try to find patterns in	3.54	.905	High
Strategy		English.			
Metacognitive	36	I look for opportunities to	3.54	.959	High
Strategy		read as much as possible in			
		English.			
Metacognitive	37	I have clear goals for	3.54	.867	High
Strategy		improving my English skills.			
Metacognitive	35	I look for people I can talk to	3.52	.942	High
Strategy		in English.	ity.		
Memory ^T	5	I use rhymes to remember	3.46	1.119	Medium
Strategy	1728	new English words.	rin		
Cognitive	16	I read for pleasure in English.	3.46	1.074	Medium
Strategy		raivan Rais			
Social	46	I ask English speakers to	3.44	1.057	Medium
Strategy		correct me when I talk.			
Cognitive	18	I first skim an English passage	3.43	.974	Medium
Strategy		(read over the passage			
		quickly) then go back and			
		read carefully.			
Metacognitive	34	I plan my schedule so I will	3.43	1.056	Medium
Strategy		have enough time to study			
		English.			

Table 4.2 The frequency of using all statements of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). (Cont.)

Strategy	Item No.	Statement	Mean	S.D	Level
Cognitive	17	I write notes, messages,	3.36	1.141	Medium
Strategy		letters, or reports in English.			
Cognitive	22	I try not to translate word-for-	3.3	1.131	Medium
Strategy		word.			
Memory	8	I review English lessons	3.28	1.082	Medium
Strategy		often.			
Memory	7	I physically act out new	3.26	1.139	Medium
Strategy		English words.			
Memory	9	I remember new English	3.18	1.190	Medium
Strategy		words or phrases by			
		remembering their location on			
		the page, on the board, or on a			
		street sign.			
Memory	6	I use flashcards to remember	3.11	1.199	Medium
Strategy	200	new English words.	SO		
Affective	43	I write down my feelings in a	3.02	1.245	Medium
Strategy		language learning diary.			
		SILL SIAM RUNS	3.580	0.686	High

Table 4.2 shows that the frequency of using SILL in English learning of Chinese students at Rangsit University was at a high level. In terms of individual statements, 33 were at the high level, and 12 were at the medium level. The most frequently used statement is item 32, "I pay attention when someone is speaking English."

The following Table 4.3 showed Chinese students' engagement of using overall Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and six subcategory strategies.

Table 4.3 The Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of SILL Use.

Strategies	Samples	Mean Scores	Standard Deviations	Level
Memory Strategies	244	3.430	0.774	Medium
Cognitive Strategies	244	3.564	0.765	High
Compensation Strategies	244	3.705	0.748	High
Metacognitive Strategies	244	3.656	0.722	High
Affective Strategies	244	3.534	0.766	High
Social Strategies	244	3.675	0.805	High
SILL S	244	3.580	0.686	High

The Figure 4.7 shows the mean comparisons among six categories strategies.

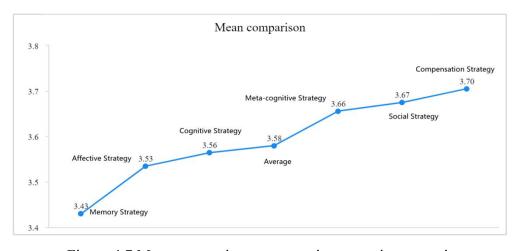


Figure 4.7 Mean comparisons among six categories strategies

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.7 indicate that Chinese students studying at Rangsit University were High users because they used overall English language learning strategies at a high level (\overline{x} =3.580). The lowest frequency was Memories Strategies (\overline{x} =3.430), which were in the medium frequency, while other strategies were high frequency. Compensation Strategies (\overline{x} =3.705) were the most frequently used, followed by Social Strategies (\overline{x} =3,675), Metacognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.656), Cognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.564) and Affective Strategies (\overline{x} =3.534).

The following Table 4.4 showed the English proficiency by bachelor, master and doctor degree students of Chinese students at Rangsit University.

Table 4.4 The Comparison of English proficiency among bachelor, master and doctor degree students of Chinese students at Rangsit University.

	Education level	Samples	Mean	S.D	F	p		
	Bachelor	128	1.70	0.63				
English proficiency level	Master	108	1.91	0.74	4.815	0.012*		
	Doctoral	8	3.00	0.00		0.012		
	Total	244	1.89	0.73				
* p<0.05 ** p<0.01								

From Table 4.4, ANOVA (one-way ANOVA) is used to study the difference of education level for English Proficiency, as can be seen from the above table: All samples of different education levels have significant significance for English Proficiency (P <0.05), which means that different education level samples have different for English Proficiency. Specific analysis shows that:

Education level for English Proficiency level is significant at 0.05 level (F=4.815, P =0.012). The comparison result of average score of groups with obvious difference is "Doctor >Bachelor"; Doctor > Master ". In conclusion, different education level samples all show significant differences in English Proficiency level.

The following Table 4.5 shows the relationship between using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by bachelor, master and doctoral degree students of Chinese students at Rangsit University.

Table 4.5 The Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of SILL used by bachelor, master and doctoral degree students of Chinese students at Rangsit University.

Strategies	Education level	Samples	Mean	S.D	F	р
	Bachelor	128	3.47	0.88		
Memory Strategies	Master	108	3.36	0.68	0.773	0.466
Wiemory Strategies	Doctoral	8	3.93	1.11	0.773	0.400
	Total	244	3.43	0.77	-	
	Bachelor	128	3.69	0.84		
Comitive Strategies	Master	108	3.43	0.70	1.027	0.155
Cognitive Strategies	Doctoral	8	4.19	0.64	1.927	0.155
	Total	244	3.56	0.77	-	
	Bachelor	128	3.71	0.70		
Compensation	Master	108	3.66	0.79	0.864	0.427
Strategies	Doctoral	8	4.25	0.50	0.804	0.427
220	Total	244	3.70	0.75	-	
	Bachelor	128	3.69	0.88		
Metacognitive	Master	108	3.60	0.63	0.541	0.585
Strategies	Doctoral	8	4.04	0.39	0.541	0.363
	Total	244	3.66	0.72	-	
	Bachelor	128	3.56	0.98		
Affective Strategies	Master	108	3.47	0.61	0.838	0.438
Affective Strategies	Doctoral	8	4.07	0.46	0.030	0.436
	Total	244	3.53	0.77	-	
Social Strategies	Bachelor	128	3.68	0.82	1.771	0.179

Table 4.5 The Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of SILL used by bachelor, master and doctoral degree students of Chinese students at Rangsit University. (Cont.)

Strategies	Education level	Samples	Mean	S.D	F	p				
	Master	108	3.60	0.80						
Social Strategies	Doctoral	8	4.50	0.17	1.771	0.179				
	Total	244	3.67	0.81						
	Bachelor	128	3.63	0.80						
SILL	Master	108	3.50	0.60	1.331	0.272				
SILL	Doctoral	8	4.14	0.50	1.551	0.272				
	Total	244	3.58	0.69						
	* p<0.05 ** p<0.01									

From Table 4.5, Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to study the differences of education level on Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, Social Strategies and SILL Strategies. As can be seen from the above table: Different education level samples did not show significant effects on Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, Social Strategies and SILL strategies (P >0.05). It means that different education level samples show consistency for Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, Social Strategies and SILL Strategies, but no difference. In conclusion, different education level samples do not show significant differences in Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, Social Strategies, and SILL Strategies.

The following Table 4.6 showed the frequency levels of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by poor English proficiency students, fair English proficiency students and good English proficiency students of Chinese students at Rangsit University.

Table 4.6 The Mean Scores and the Standard Deviations of SILL used by Poor English Proficiency Students, Fair English Proficiency Students and Good English Proficiency Students.

Strategy	Poor(n=80)			Fair(n=112)		Good(n=52)		(n=52)	
Memory Strategies	Mean	S.D	Level	Mean	S.D	Level	Mean	S.D	Level
Cognitive Strategies	3.13	0.67	Medium	3.47	0.77	Medium	3.79	0.82	High
Compensation Strategies	3.20	0.71	Medium	3.67	0.69	High	3.90	0.84	High
Metacognitive Strategies	3.54	0.65	High	3.61	0.78	High	3.92	0.67	High
Affective Strategies	3.32	0.74	Medium	3.59	0.76	High	3.75	0.79	High
Social Strategies	3.40	0.75	Medium	3.70	0.80	High	4.05	0.79	High
SILL	3.30	0.61	Medium	3.66	0.66	High	3.90	0.73	High

Table 4.6 presents the frequency levels of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by poor English proficiency students, fair English proficiency students and good English proficiency students. Details are as follows:

Poor English proficiency students used overall English language learning strategies at a medium level (\overline{x} =3.30). The Metacognitive Strategies were the most frequently used at a high level (\overline{x} =3.54). The other strategies were employed at a medium level, followed by Social Strategies (\overline{x} =3.40), Affective Strategies (\overline{x} =3.32), Compensation Strategies (\overline{x} =3.27), and Cognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.20), Memory Strategies were the minor frequency used (\overline{x} =3.13).

Fair English proficiency students used overall English language learning strategies at a high level (\bar{x} =3.66). The least frequently used strategy category was

Memory Strategies (\overline{x} =3.47) at a medium level. The other strategies were employed at a high level. The most frequently used strategy category was Compensation Strategies (\overline{x} =3.87) followed by Social Strategies (\overline{x} =3.70), Cognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.67), Metacognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.61) and Affective Strategies (\overline{x} =3.59).

Good English proficiency students used overall English language learning strategies at a high level (\overline{x} =3.90). All strategies were employed at a high level. The most frequently used strategy category was Social Strategies (\overline{x} = 4.05), followed by Compensation Strategies (\overline{x} =4.02), Metacognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.92), Cognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.90), Memory Strategies (\overline{x} =3.79) and Affective Strategies (\overline{x} =3.75).

The following Table 4.7 shows the relationship between using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by poor English proficiency students, fair English proficiency students and good English proficiency students of Chinese students at Rangsit University.

Table 4.7 The Comparison of English SLLS Use among Poor English Proficiency students, Fair English Proficiency students and Good English Proficiency students.

Strategies	English Proficiency	Samples	Mean	S.D	F	p
	Poor	7 80 9	3.13	0.67		
Memory	Fair	112	3.47	0.77	3.165	0.050*
Strategies	Good	52	3.79	0.82	3.103	0.030
	Total	244	3.43	0.77		
	Poor	80	3.20	0.71		
Cognitive	Fair	112	3.67	0.69	4.073	0.022*
Strategies	Good	52	3.90	0.84	4.073	0.022
	Total	244	3.56	0.77		
Compensation	Poor	80	3.27	0.80	5.943	0.004**
Strategies	Fair	112	3.87	0.55	3.773	0.004

Table 4.7 The Comparison of English SLLS Use among Poor English Proficiency students, Fair English Proficiency students and Good English Proficiency students. (Cont.)

Strategies	English Proficiency	Samples	Mean	S.D	F	р		
Compensation	Good	52	4.02	0.78	5.943	0.004**		
Strategies	Total	244	3.70	0.75				
	Poor	80	3.54	0.65				
Meta-cognitive	Fair	112	3.61	0.78	1.189	0.312		
Strategies	Good	52	3.92	0.67				
	Total	244	3.66	0.72				
	Poor	80	3.32	0.74	_			
Affective	Fair	112	3.59	0.76	1.399	0.255		
Strategies	Good	52	3.75	0.79	1.377	0.233		
	Total	244	3.53	0.77				
	Poor	80	3.40	0.75				
Social Strategy	Fair	112	3.70	0.80	2.746	0.073		
	Good	52	4.05	0.79	2.740	0.073		
	Total	244	3.67	0.81				
	Poor	80	3.30	0.61				
Total Average	Fair 7	6/2/200	3.63	0.66	3.329	0.043*		
	Good	52	3.90	0.73	3.34)	U.UTJ		
	Total	244	3.58	0.69				
* p<0.05 ** p<0.01								

From Table 4.7, analysis of variance is used to study English proficiency level for Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies, Social Strategies, and overall SILL Strategies have differences: Different English Proficiency level samples had no significant effect on Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies and Social Strategies (P >0.05). It means that different English proficiency level samples all show

consistency for Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies and Social Strategies, and there is no difference. In addition, English proficiency level samples for Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies and overall SILL Strategies were significant (P <0.05), means different English proficiency level samples for Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies and overall SILL Strategies there are differences. The detailed analysis is as follows:

English proficiency level for memory strategies is significant at 0.05 level (F=3.165, P =0.050), and the mean scores of groups with noticeable differences are "Good > Poor" as shown in Figure 4.8.

The Figure 4.8 shows mean scores of memory strategy category comparison among Poor English Proficiency students, Fair English Proficiency students and Good English Proficiency students.

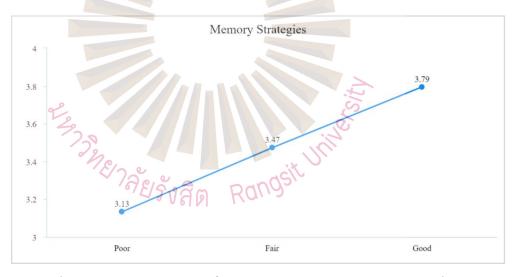


Figure 4.8 Mean scores of memory strategy category comparison

English proficiency level has a significant level of 0.05 for cognitive strategies (F=4.073, P =0.022), and the specific comparison shows that the average scores of the groups with significant differences were "Fair > Poor; Good > Poor" as shown in Figure 4.9.

The Figure 4.9 shows mean scores of cognitive strategy category comparison among Poor English Proficiency students, Fair English Proficiency students and Good English Proficiency students.

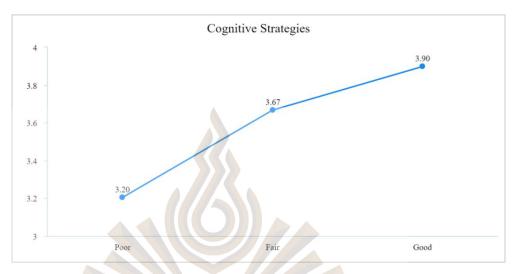


Figure 4.9 Mean scores of cognitive strategy category comparison

English proficiency level is significant at 0.01 level for the compensation strategies (F=5.943, P=0.004), and the specific comparison difference shows that the average scores of the groups with significant differences were "Fair > Poor; Good > Poor" as shown in Figure 4.10.

The Figure 4.10 shows mean scores of compensation strategy category comparison among Poor English Proficiency students, Fair English Proficiency students and Good English Proficiency students.

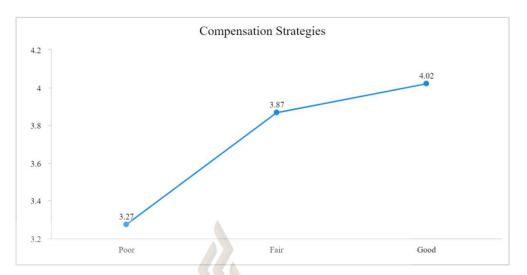


Figure 4.10 Mean scores of compensation strategy category comparison

English proficiency level showed a significant level of 0.05 for overall SILL strategies (F=3.329, P=0.043). The mean scores of groups with significant differences were "Good>Poor" as shown in Figure 4.11.

The Figure 4.11 shows mean scores of overall SILL comparison among Poor English Proficiency students, Fair English Proficiency students and Good English Proficiency students.

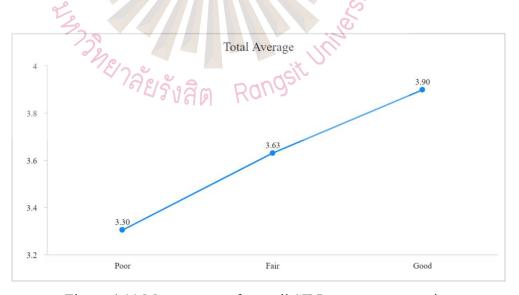


Figure 4.11 Mean scores of overall SILL strategy comparison

Conclusion: Different English proficiency level samples do not show significant differences in Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies, and Social

Strategies. In addition, Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies, and overall SILL Strategies showed significant differences of the English proficiency samples.

4.2 ANALYSIS OF THE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS DATA

In order to supplement and expand the SILL questionnaire, explore more detailed information of English language learning strategies used by the samples. The researcher conducted a semi-structured interview as the main instrument of the qualitative with ten volunteers students (with mixed proficiency of; 2 Good English proficiency, 4 Fair English proficiency, and 4 Poor English proficiency) who answered the open-ended question in the questionnaire were asked to do interviews with mixed English proficiency level. The followings display four questions and answers given by the samples.

Q1. What strategies do you usually use to learn English?

"I use the strategies of listening more, reading more, and writing more to learn English, especially when remembering words using associative memory. For example, according to Ebbinghaus's forgetting curve to memorize and learning words will remember more firmly." (memory strategy) (Interviewee 1, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

"I learn English by watching English movies, listening to English songs, reading English magazines, listening to English radio, etc. In the process of learning English, I will make notes for review." (cognitive strategy) (Interviewee 2, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

"Make English learning goals and plans, arrange English learning time, and sort out English materials and information." (Metacognitive strategy) (Interviewee 3, personal communication, September 21, 2021)

"Learn English through online courses using a variety of English learning applications and translation software." (Internet learning) (Interviewee 4, personal communication, September 24, 2021)

"I encourage myself to speak English as much as possible, find opportunities to talk to native speakers, and use body language and gestures to cement memories." (Metacognitive strategy, affective strategy, cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, social strategy) (Interviewee 5, personal communication, September 24, 2021)

"I often practice English with my friends and correct each other. Try to express what I see and hear in English and summarize what I see and hear." (Metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy, social strategy) (Interviewee 6, personal communication, September 28, 2021)

"I like listening to English podcasts, and English talk shows to learn English, which helps me improve my English and happiness." (Internet learning) (Interviewee 7, personal communication, September 28, 2021)

"Practice is an essential step in learning, listening, reading, writing, and speaking as much as possible." (cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy) (Interviewee 8, personal communication, October 2, 2021)

"Watch English movies and find opportunities to talk with English native speakers." (cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy) (Interviewee 9, personal communication, October 6, 2021)

"I usually learn English through various software. I do not learn it deliberately. When I am entertaining, I see sentences of interest or words I don't know, and I will take the initiative to look it up to learn English." (Internet learning, cognitive strategy) (Interviewee 10, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

Summary of interview Answers of Q1: The six category strategies included in the SILL were all used by the interviewees in their English learning, and some also used the Internet to learn English.

Q2. Do you think the level of English proficiency has an impact on the use of English learning strategies? Please explain

"There is a positive correlation between English proficiency and English learning strategies, and good learning strategies will positively impact English proficiency." (Interviewee 1, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

"Have an impact—good Command of English, complete understanding of English knowledge and related theories." (Interviewee 2, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

"Yes, the level of English proficiency and the use of English learning strategies have an impact. Good English proficiency can use more learning strategies to learn English." (Interviewee 3, personal communication, September 21, 2021)

"Yes. My English proficiency level limits my use of some learning methods. For example, my oral English is not good, so I miss many opportunities to speak English." (Interviewee 4, personal communication, September 24, 2021)

"I think it does. Because a good English proficiency level can learn English through more channels and more methods, and do not spend too much time looking up new words, learning efficiency will be better." (Interviewee 5, personal communication, September 24, 2021)

"I think there is some influence. A higher Level of English can be more flexible learning English." (Interviewee 6, personal communication, September 28, 2021)

"Have an impact, and higher English proficiency levels can apply more English learning strategies." (Interviewee 7, personal communication, September 28, 2021)

"Of course, only you know English well will you know how to put it into practice." (Interviewee 8, personal communication, October 2, 2021)

"It has an impact because the English level determines the use of learning strategies. If the English level is low, it is impossible to adopt too difficult learning methods." (Interviewee 9, personal communication, October 6, 2021)

"I think these are two things. The level of English proficiency is determined by passing specific tests. Moreover, using the English strategy is an ability. The level of English proficiency will have a partial impact on the use of English strategies, such as comprehension and proficiency in using strategies." (Interviewee 10, personal communication, October 20, 2021)

Summary of interview Answers of Q2: All interviewees considered that English proficiency was positively correlated with English learning strategies. A Good level of English proficiency can use more learning methods in learning English, while a poor level of English proficiency will be limited.

Q3. How many years have you been studying in Thailand? Could you provide examples of how your studying and living experience in Thailand influenced your English learning strategy? Have you observed any differences in your language learning strategies after coming to Thailand affected by the linguistic, cultural, or social contexts?

"I studied in Thailand for two and a half years. Studying in Thailand has made me pay more attention to the accuracy of words and the authentic expression of oral English, which is different from the previous emphasis on reading. After I was in Thailand, I became more aware of the cultural meaning behind the language and paid more attention to cultural diversity." (Interviewee 1, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

"I studied in Thailand for two years. Influenced by the learning environment in Thailand, I needed to communicate with others in English, which helped me improve my oral English." (Interviewee 2, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

"I studied in Thailand for four years, and I got to know a lot of native English speakers. Through communicating with them, I improved my English listening and speaking a lot." (Interviewee 3, personal communication, September 21, 2021)

"I studied in Thailand for one year, and I had more opportunities to communicate in English than in China, and I got to know some native English speakers. I began to pay more attention to the cultural background and language expression habits of other countries." (Interviewee 4, personal communication, September 24, 2021)

"I have been studying in Thailand for more than two years. My English proficiency level is excellent. Now I mainly use English logic to study and think English." (Interviewee 5, personal communication, September 24, 2021)

"I have been studying in Thailand for one year. Compared with China, I enjoy learning English more and enjoy it more. In China, I mainly memorized words and grammar; Now, I pay more attention to the expression habits and sentence patterns." (Interviewee 6, personal communication, September 28, 2021)

"I studied in Thailand for over a year and did not speak English when I was in China. I mainly focus on the exam content, but I have to speak English after coming to Thailand, so I am working hard to improve my English listening and speaking skills." (Interviewee 7, personal communication, September 28, 2021)

"For more than 2 years, the pronunciation was mainly affected by the language culture, and before coming to Thailand, I mainly focused on writing, reading, but after coming here, speaking and listening were improved for the international environment." (Interviewee 8, personal communication, October 2, 2021)

"Two years. Influential. The frequency of English use in non-native English speaking countries is shallow." (Interviewee 9, personal communication, October 6, 2021)

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"I have studied in Thailand for six years. From the beginning, I did not dare to say and feared that I used the wrong grammar, and now I can express my meaning clearly, and I don't worry too much about what I said wrong, and the main focus is on expression. Now I will understand more that it is just a tool for expression and communication no matter what language it is. Don't worry about saying wrong is a crucial mentality. After coming to Thailand, you will find that it is very complimentary for the language. The main reason is to be able to express your views clearly. Do not worry too much about making mistakes. This is true for me, and it is true for many Thais. The conversation is effortless." (Interviewee 10, personal communication, October 20, 2021)

Summary of interview Answers of Q3: Compared with China, interviewees in Thailand have more opportunities to communicate in English, have an English-speaking environment and know some friends of native English speakers so that their English has made significant progress, especially their oral English. Some Interviewees also pay more attention to the culture behind the language, English idioms, and English logic.

Q4. How would you describe your characteristic (e.g. personality, learning style, learning motivation, learning attitude)? How does your characteristic personal influence your English learning?

"My personality is quiet, easy-going and attention to detail. It has had an impact on my English learning. I have a quiet personality and communicate less with others, so my oral English is relatively weak and needs to be strengthened." (Interviewee 1, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

"I have a good learning attitude and a clear learning goal and plan. A good learning attitude helps me learn English actively, and clear goals and plans help me get good grades." (Interviewee 2, personal communication, September 20, 2021)

"I am outgoing and like to communicate, so I soon got to know a lot of foreign friends, which is also a great help to improve my English." (Interviewee 3, personal communication, September 21, 2021)

"I like learning English and studying hard, but I do not like talking. So my English listening, speaking, reading and writing skills are not balanced. I have mastered much English grammar, but I still cannot speak English." (Interviewee 4, personal communication, September 24, 2021)

"I am very active in learning English because I like to travel to different countries, so I need to master good English skills. I often watch English channels, study and imitate the dialogues in them, and practice my spoken English as much as possible." (Interviewee 5, personal communication, September 24, 2021)

"I like chatting and sharing my ideas with my friends. So I often study with my friends, we help each other." (Interviewee 6, personal communication, September 28, 2021)

"I am a quiet person and like to be alone and often go to the library to study alone. A quiet environment will help me concentrate better." (Interviewee 7, personal communication, September 28, 2021)

"I am an ambitious girl, and I always insist on studying English during my free time, so my English is better than more people." (Interviewee 8, personal communication, October 2, 2021)

"I am an active learner, which can promote my English learning." (Interviewee 9, personal communication, October 6, 2021)

"I am a lively person, and I am not very patient. I am mainly interested in learning English. For example, watching some drama and movies, I will imitate some tone and sentences. I will also check the meaning of sentences and words that I don't understand. It will help me learn English more easily. I don't like to learn a language too formal. It will make me feel pressured and worried that I can't learn well, so learning in a relaxed way would be more suitable for my personality." (Interviewee 10, personal communication, October 20, 2021)

Summary of interview Answers of Q4: Personal characteristics will also significantly impact English learning, both positive and negative. Therefore, if you want to learn English well, you need to make efforts in many aspects.

4.3 CONCLUSION

The data analysis results of this study showed that Chinese students used Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning at a high-level frequency and was related to English proficiency level. The data analysis of both the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews showed similar results. The results found in this chapter will be described in further detail in the conclusion and discussion in Chapter 5.



CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION, DISCUSSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the conclusion from the results of data analysis, discussion of the findings, recommendations for the current and future studies and educational implications of the study.

5.1 CONCLUSION

This study investigated how the Chinese students were studying at Rangsit University using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) created by Oxford (1990) in a cross-cultural context and the differences in English language learning strategies among students with different English proficiency levels. The participants were 244 Chinese students who have studied at Rangsit University.

The researcher used mixed methods to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 was used to investigate the use of English language learning strategies as the primary instrument in this study. The respondents' opinions were measured using a five-point scale representing the different degrees of importance they place on each English language learning strategy (Oxford, 1990). Moreover, the Semi-structured interview was the instrument of the qualitative study to explore more detailed information of English language learning strategies used of Chinese students' English learning in the Thai context. There were four questions for the Semi-structured interview for data collecting in this study, and ten volunteer students (with mixed proficiency of; 2 Good English proficiency, 4 Fair English proficiency, and 4 Poor English proficiency) participated in the interview.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis was used to analyze the raw data of the questionnaires by using descriptive methods: the use frequency, mean and standard deviation.

The study was based on three objectives:

- 1) To determine the engagement of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) of Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand.
- 2) To determine the difference in English proficiency across education level groups by Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand.
- 3) To determine the difference of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) of Chinese students in English learning at different levels at Rangsit University, Thailand.

5.1.1 The Conclusions for SILL Questionnaire Analysis

- 5.1.1.1 Chinese students studying at Rangsit University were High users because they used Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning at a high level (\overline{x} =3.580). The most frequently used strategy category was Compensation Strategies (\overline{x} =3.705), followed by Social Strategies (\overline{x} =3,675), Metacognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.656), Cognitive Strategies (\overline{x} =3.564), Affective Strategies (\overline{x} =3.534), the least frequently used strategy category was Memory Strategies (\overline{x} =3.430) at a medium level. The other strategies were employed at a high level. None of the six strategies placed in low frequency of usage.
- 5.1.1.2 All samples of different education levels have significant significance for English Proficiency (P <0.05), which means that different education level samples have different for English Proficiency. Specific analysis shows that: Education level for English Proficiency level is significant at 0.05 level (F=4.815, P =0.012). The comparison result of average score of groups with obvious difference is "Doctor >Bachelor"; Doctor > Master ". In conclusion, different education level samples all show significant differences in English Proficiency level.

- 5.1.1.3 Different education level samples did not show significant effects on Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies, Social Strategies and SILL Strategies (P >0.05). It means that different education level samples show consistency for Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies, Social Strategies and SILL Strategies, but no difference. In conclusion, different education level samples do not show significant differences in Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies, Social Strategies, and SILL Strategies.
- 5.1.1.4 Comparing analysis of variance is used to study English proficiency level for Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies, Social Strategies, and SILL Strategies have seven differences: Different English proficiency level samples had no significant effect on Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies and Social Strategies (P >0.05). It means that different English proficiency level samples all show consistency for Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies and Social Strategies, and there is no difference. In addition, English proficiency level samples for Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies and SILL Strategies were significant (P <0.05), means different English proficiency level samples for Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Compensation Strategies and SILL Strategies there are differences.

5.1.2 The Conclusions for Semi-Structured Interview Analysis

5.1.2.1 Based on semi-structured interviews, participants with good, fair and poor English proficiency levels used English language learning strategies with or without SILL, an additional English language learning strategy that does not fall under the Oxford classification - Learning English through the Internet. They use the Internet for various models of research and learning (social media, translation apps, entertainment apps, online courses, etc.) to help them learn English.

- 5.1.2.2 All participants considered that English proficiency was positively correlated with English learning strategies, which was consistent with the analysis results of the SILL questionnaire. They believe that good English proficiency helps to master and use more learning strategies to help English learning.
- 5.1.2.3 Learning English in the Thai environment and culture seems to have significantly helped their English expression, listening and speaking. Compared with China, they have a more diverse social network, with more international students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. They also want to understand the culture and thinking logic behind the English language and acquire knowledge more comprehensively.
- 5.1.2.4 Individual personality also has an impact on English learning. It seems that cheerful and lively people prefer to express themselves, which is helpful for language expression and oral English, especially in the cross-cultural background, which is more conducive to their learning. For quiet people under the cross-cultural background, whether they are active or passive, they will have more opportunities to contact English. As long as they have a good attitude towards English learning and work hard, their learning will also help, but their progress will be slower.

5.2 DISCUSSIONS กลัยรับสิต Rangsit แก้

The main aim of this study was to explore the using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning by Chinese students in a Thai context. Therefore, first, we identified the strategy use frequency in the sample and specified the strategies with the highest and lowest use frequency. Secondly, we study the relationship between learners' language learning strategies and their English proficiency level.

5.2.1 Responses to Research Question 1

"What are the Chinese students' engagements using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand?"

According to the research, Chinese students in Rangsit University have a high frequency of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning. The lowest frequency was memories strategies, which were in the medium frequency, while other strategies were high. Compensation strategies were the most frequently used, followed by social, metacognitive, cognitive, and affective strategies. The findings aligned with Charoento (2016), who investigated 392 Thai undergraduates at a public university in Bangkok, Thailand. The findings showed that the strategies most used by learners were compensation strategies.

Furthermore, Rismayana (2017) reported that metacognitive strategies and social strategies were used with high frequency; Di Carlo (2016) studied the language learning strategies used by 69 students learning Spanish in the college teaching center, and the results showed that affective strategies and memory strategies were proved to be the least used, which is consistent with the results of this study. On the contrary, the results of this study also contradict some previous results (e.g. Rismayana, 2017; Phusum & Sucaromana, 2020), which reported that compensation strategies were the least frequently used strategies. The researchers considered that when Chinese students learn English in a Thai environment, they have to communicate in English whether they want to or not and use gestures and body language to supplement their English expressions, thus increasing their use of compensatory and social strategies.

5.2.2 Responses to Research Question 2

"Is there any statistically significant mean difference in English proficiency across education level groups by Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand?"

Education level for English Proficiency level is significant at 0.05 level (F=4.815, P =0.012). The comparison result of average score of groups with obvious difference is "Doctor >bachelor"; Doctor > master ". To respond to the Research Question 2, different education level samples all show significant differences in English Proficiency level.

5.2.3 Responses to Research Question 3 and research hypothesis

"Are there any differences in using of six strategies of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) for Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand?"

"The different English proficiency level Chinese students use Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) differently at Rangsit University, Thailand."

The survey shows that there are differences in SILL among samples with different English levels. The results showed significant differences in language learning strategy use in SILL, Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies and Compensation Strategies. There were no significant differences in Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies and Social Strategies. These findings are consistent with those of Rismayana (2017), who investigated the correlation between language learning strategies and language proficiency level among English department students at the Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) and concluded that there is a correlation between language learning strategies and language proficiency. Nevertheless, Rardprakhon (2016) compared language learning strategies used among English academic achievement levels by 163Thai engineering freshmen. The results showed no difference between language learning strategies and high, medium, and low achievers. Therefore, the researcher considered that language proficiency level could affect language learning strategies, but other factors may also affect it.

In order to supplement and expand the analysis results of the SILL questionnaire, the influence of context and individual personality on the use of

language learning strategies was briefly discussed in the interview. According to the interview results and the learning strategies in SILL, they also used the Internet to help them with their English learning. The use of the Internet has increased the popularity of English education or learning for all students. The use of the Internet provides more access to English learning materials. It allows students to interact with the content (Rardprakhon, 2016). The context in Thailand also has an impact on their English learning. Compared with China, they can use and contact English more.

Moreover, personality is also of great help to English learning, especially in the international context. A lively personality and like to communicate with people is very conducive to their English learning. Rardprakhon (2016) also believed that learning strategies do not function independently but are directly related to learners' potential learning styles and other variables related to learners' personalities.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.3.1 Recommendations for the Current Study

- 5.3.1.1 The results show that the use frequency of metacognitive strategies in the English proficiency good group, the English proficiency fair students group and the English proficiency poor students group are all at a high level, and the English proficiency fair students group and the English proficiency good students group also tend to social strategies and compensation strategies. The memory strategy was the least frequently used by the three groups of students with different English levels. Therefore, curriculum developers and teachers should consider students' preference of learning strategies when organizing courses and classroom activities, that is, to provide students with learning activities adapted to their preferred learning strategies to obtain the best learning effects of students and teachers. New or present lessons should be metacognitive, compensation and social-based, not memory-based.
- 5.3.1.2 The interview results show that some students often help their English learning through the Internet. So, the instructor can design or provide some English

activities and media courses, such as English movies, games, radio and TV programs. In addition, some courses can be combined with websites that students can visit to motivate and guide them to become better learners.

5.3.2 Recommendations for Further Studies

5.3.2.1 This study only investigated English language learning strategies by Chinese students of different English proficiency levels at Rangsit University in Thailand. Further research should be conducted with other nationalities and universities. In addition, the relationship between English learning strategies and nationality, learning style, motivation and other factors needs to be further studied.

5.3.2.2 This study only studied the 7.0 (Oxford, 1990) version of language learning strategies. The questionnaire should include some language learning strategies of other researchers to provide a broader range of language learning strategies.

5.4 EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

With more and more cooperation between China and Thailand in trade, economics, cultural exchanges, education and other aspects, more and more Chinese students are studying in Thailand, and mastering English skills is an essential skill for overseas students. Therefore, the results of this study are helpful to Chinese students studying abroad and the academic management of Thailand institutions.

This study shows that most of the students' self-evaluation of English proficiency is at a poor or fair level, and only 21% are at a good level. However, all Chinese students have a high frequency of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning. In addition to using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, they also learned English through the Internet. It shows that regardless of whether the English level is poor, fair or good, students have a strong willingness to learn and hope to master the language well to help them

achieve good academic achievement, explore more overseas culture and life, and enjoy studying abroad time. Through interviews with students, it is learned that most students who have not been in Thailand for a long time are still in the anxious stage of speaking, especially when communicating in English. The students who have studied in Thailand for one to two years are in an active adaptation stage. Although they still cannot speak very fluent English, they dare to express their ideas in English. Those who have studied in Thailand longer have expressed themselves freely in English and enjoy studying abroad in Thailand. In short, after entering Thailand, they all have the consciousness to express themselves, and they also begin to attach importance to the cultivation of English listening and speaking skills.

The contradiction of overseas Chinese students studying is that they have a strong willingness to learn English well and integrate into the foreign environment, but at the same time, they lack self-confidence and courage. It is related to the Confucian ideology and culture they accept in China and part of the shortcomings of the Chinese education model. Because the college entrance examination results determine what kind of institutions a student can enter, and in a limited time, to enter a better institution, the families and schools of the students spend more time and energy on improving the student's test paper exam scores. Ignore the cultivation of students' comprehensive ability and do not pay attention to the cultivation of students' English listening and speaking ability. In addition, Chinese Confucianism advocates being humble, low-key and unassuming. Under the influence of Confucianism, most Chinese people are not used to actively expressing themselves. Therefore, when Chinese students enter Thai universities, English becomes the only language they rely on for learning and living. Those with poor English listening and speaking skills and communication skills often have much discomfort and hinder their overseas study.

Although there is a strong desire to learn and express, it is not easy to practice. After clarifying the contradictions of Chinese students studying abroad, suggestions for improvement are put forward to help scholars smoothly enter academic courses and quickly integrate into the overseas living environment. For students, first of all, clarify their goals for studying abroad, what academic achievements they want to

achieve and what kind of study life they want to spend. Secondly, move in the direction of the goal, change one's original learning method and thinking mode, break the shackles of thoughts and move closer to the goal. Finally, grasp the time of studying abroad, try various new learning methods and thinking modes, actively participate in various activities and express and communicate as much as possible.

For Thai institutions, what to do first is to build an effective communication platform for learners and encourage them to speak. Organize formal and informal communication activities to allow students to interact in a relaxed and fun atmosphere to ease their pressure to speak English in public. Second, a cross-cultural psychological counseling center should be established to maintain close-contact with Chinese students, organize regular exchange activities, understand students' adaptability, and provide timely help and guidance to students who encounter difficulties. Third, an academic support system should be established by the educator. Teachers are the most critical source of academic support for Chinese students in Thailand; they should conduct regular activities to understand students' academic status.

The bilingual education master's program aims to train students to become high-quality bilingual education practitioners. The educational philosophy of the curriculum aims to cultivate a new generation of teachers who value continuous professional self-improvement and learner-centered teaching methods. It ensures that activities are encouraged to interact with students to develop analytical and critical thinking. Moreover, presenting rational ideas to others can search for information learned by oneself. Having an open mind to differences in social and cultural attitudes and continually knowing is learning that adapts to changes throughout life (RSU). Therefore, schools should provide students with a platform for expression and communication and help students develop analytical and critical thinking. Establish a cross-cultural psychological counseling center and an academic support system to help students learn to cultivate the ability to adapt to the social and cultural environment and academics to achieve the faculty's education philosophy more quickly and effectively.

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Lynner në për si a Rangsit Universit





Questionnaire

Research title: Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning: English learning of Chinese students in Thai university

Dear students:

This questionnaire is part of graduate research conducted at Rangsit University. The purpose is to determine the engagement of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in English learning at Rangsit University.

Your answers are anonymous, which means that no one can link your answers to you. The data collected will be used to contribute to the field of education. Please fill in truthfully. Thank you very much for your participation.

Yours sincerely,
Bijiang Zou

Part I: Personal Information

Directions: Please indicate your choice with a " $$ " and fill in the blank required.
1. What is your gender? Male Female
2. How old are you?
3. Which province in China are you from?
4. Are you pursuing a bachelor's degree, master's degree or doctoral degree? What is
your major?
5. What is your English proficiency level in your class?
Poor Good
6. Have you taken any English proficiency tests (e.g. TOEFL or IELTS)? If so, what
was your last score?
Langsit University Par Rangsit Par Rangsi

Part II: Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Directions: please tick " $\sqrt{}$ " at the number that correctly reflects your opinion about the statement. Rate your response to each item on the scores of 1-5. The rating scores are as follows:

Interpretation: 1-Never 2-Usually not 3-Somewhat 4-Usually 5-Always

No.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
	Part A- Memory					
11	I think of relationships between what I already know					
11	and new things I learn in English.					
22	I use new English words in a sentence so I can					
22	remember them.					
	I connect the sound of a new English word and an					
33	image or picture of the word to help me remember the					
	word.					
44	I remember a new English word by making a mental					
' '	picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
55	I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
66	I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
77	I physically act out new English words.					
88	I review English lessons often.					
	I remember new English words or phrases by					
99	remembering their location on the page, on the board,					
	or on a street sign.					
	Part B- Cognitive					
110	I say or write new English words several times.					
111	I try to talk like native English speakers.					
112	I practice the sounds of English.					
113	I use the English words I know in different ways.					
114	I start conversations in English.					

I watch Engli	sh TV shows spoken in English or go to
115 movies spoke	n in English.
116 I read for plea	sure in English.
117 I write notes,	messages, letters, or reports in English.
I first skim a	n English passage (read over the passage
	go back and read carefully.
119 I look for wor	rds in my own language that are similar to
new words in	English.
220 I try to find pa	atterns in English.
I find the me	aning of an English word by dividing it
into parts that	I understand.
222 I try not to tra	nslate word-for-word.
I make summ	aries of information that I hear or read in
English.	
	Part C- Compensation
To understar	nd unfamiliar English words, I make
guesses.	
When I can'	t think of a word during a conversation in
English, I use	gestures.
I make up nev	w words if I do not know the right ones in
English.	TOURD ROLL
227 I read English	without looking up every new word.
I try to guess	s what the other person will say next in
English.	
I can' t thir	nk of an English word, I use a word or
	eans the same thing.
	Part D- Meta-cognitive
330 I try to find as	s many ways as I can to use my English.
I notice my E	nglish mistakes and I use that information
221	

		 ,
332	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	
333	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	
334	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study	
334	English.	
335	I look for people I can talk to in English.	
	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in	
336	English.	
337	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	
338	I think about my progress in learning English.	
	Part E- Affective	
339	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	
440	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am	
440	afraid of making a mistake.	
441	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in	
441	English.	
442	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or	
772	using English.	
443	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	
444	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am	
777	learning English.	
	Part F- Social	 '
445	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the	
773	other person to slow down or say it again.	
446	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	
447	I practice English with other students.	
448	I ask for help from English speakers.	
449	I ask questions in English.	
550	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	
L		

Part III: Open-ended Question

Are there any other language learning strategies that in your English learning,	which
are not mentioned above? Please explain.	





The Item Objective Congruence (IOC) Form for the Questionnaire by Experts

Objectives: This form is used to find out the engagement of using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) of Chinese students in English learning at Rangsit University, Thailand.

\mathbf{r}	•		•		
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	111	JU 1.1			

Please tick only $\sqrt{}$ one in the appropriate blank according to your consideration.

- The score = +1: If experts definitely have the feeling that an item is a measure of an objective.
- The score = 0: If experts are not sure whether the item is a measure of an objective.
- The score = -1: If experts definitely have the feeling that an item is not a measure of an objective.

	Part I: Personal Information	Score			
No.	Items Statements	+1	0	-1	
1	What is your gender?				
2					
3 Which province in china are you from?					
4	4 Are you pursuing a bachelor's degree, master's degree or doctoral				
	degree? What is your major? Which year are you in the				
	program?				
5	What is your English proficiency level in you class?				
	Poor Fair Good				
6	Have you taken any English tests (e.g. TOEFL or IELTS)? If so,				
	What was your last score?				
	Part II: Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Lear	ning		•	
Part	A- Memory	Score			
No.	Items Statements	+1	0	-1	
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new				
	things I learn in English.				
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.				

3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or			
	picture of the word to help me remember the word.			
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a			
	situation in which the word might be used.			
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.			
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words.			
7	I physically act out new English words.			
8	I review English lessons often.			
9	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their			
	location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.			
Part	B- Cognitive		Score	;
No.	Items Statements	+1	0	-1
10	I say or write new English words several times.			
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.			
12	I practice the sounds of English.			
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.			
14	I start conversations in English.			
15	I watch English TV shows spoken in English or go to movies			
	spoken in English.			
16	I read for pleasure in English.			
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.			
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly)			
	then go back and read carefully.			
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new			
	words in English.			
20	I try to find patterns in English.			
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts			
	that I understand.			
22	I try not to translate word-for-word.			
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.			
Part	C- Compensation		Score	;

No.	Items Statements	+1	0	-1
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.			
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English,			
	I use gestures.			
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.			
27	I read English without looking up every new word.			
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.			
29	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.			
Part	D- Meta-cognitive		Score	;
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.			
31	I notice my English mistakes and I use that information to help			
	me do better.			
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.			
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.			
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.			
35	I look for people I can talk to in English.			
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.			
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.			
38	I think about my progress in learning English.			
Part	E- Affective		Score	;
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.			
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of			
	making a mistake.			
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.			
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using			
	English.			
43	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.			
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning			
	English.			
Part	F- Social		Score	;
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other			

	person to slow down or say it again.				
46	46 I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.				
47	47 I practice English with other students.				
48	I ask for help from English speakers.				
49	49 I ask questions in English.				
50	50 I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.				
	Part III: Open-ended Question			;	
		+1	0	-1	
	Are there any other language learning strategies that in your				
	English learning, which are not mentioned above? Please				
	explain.				



IOC Result of the Questionnaire

Items	Items Rating by Experts		IOC	Remarks	
	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Average	
		Part I: Person	al Information	n	
1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
2	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
3	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
4	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
5	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
6	+1	+1	0	0.67	Accepted
P	art II: Oxford	s Strategy Inv	entory for La	nguage Learn	ing
1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
2	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
3	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
4	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
5	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
6	+1	+1	+1	\$+1	Accepted
7	2+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
8	+1/5/2	+1	0,,,0	0.67	Accepted
9	+1	PESVAR	Rangs,	0.67	Accepted
12	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
13	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
14	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
15	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
16	+1	0	+1	0.67	Accepted
17	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
18	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
19	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
20	+1	+1	0	0.67	Accepted
21	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted

	1				1
22	+1	+1	+1	1	Accepted
23	+1	+1	+1	1	Accepted
24	+1	0	+1	0.67	Accepted
25	+1	+1	+1	1	Accepted
28	+1	+1	+1	1	Accepted
29	-1	+1	+1	0.67	Accepted
30	+1	+1	+1	1	Accepted
31	+1	0	+1	0.67	Accepted
32	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
33	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
34	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
35	+1	+1	0	0.67	Accepted
36	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
37	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
38	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
39	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
40	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
41	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
42	20+1	+1	0	0.67	Accepted
43	+10	+1	0 1	0.67	Accepted
45	+1 76	ยรับสิต	Rantsit	+1	Accepted
46	+1	+1111	0	0.67	Accepted
47	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
48	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
49	0	+1	+1	0.67	Accepted
50	+1	+1	0	0.67	Accepted
	P	art III: Open-	ended Question	on	
1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted

APPENDIX C SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW



Semi-Structured Interview

Research title: Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning: English learning of Chinese students in Thai university

1. What strategies do you usually use to learn English?

2. Do you think the level of English proficiency has an impact on the use of English learning strategies? Please describe in detail.

3. How many years have you been studying in Thailand? Could you provide examples of how your studying and living experience in Thailand influenced your English learning strategy? Have you observed any differences in your language learning strategies before and after you came to Thailand affected by the linguistic, cultural, or social contexts? Could you provide some details for this change?

Parsit Value Rangsit V

4 How would you describe your characteristic (e.g. personality, learning style, learning motivation, learning attitude)? How does your characteristic personal influence your English learning strategy use?

APPENDIX D IOC FOR THE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW



The Item Objective Congruence (IOC) form for the Semi-Structured Interview by Experts

Objective: This form is used to understand whether Chinese students' English learning strategies at Rangsit University are influenced by their language proficiency level and the learning context in Thailand.

Directions:

Please tick only $\sqrt{}$ one in the appropriate blank according to your consideration.

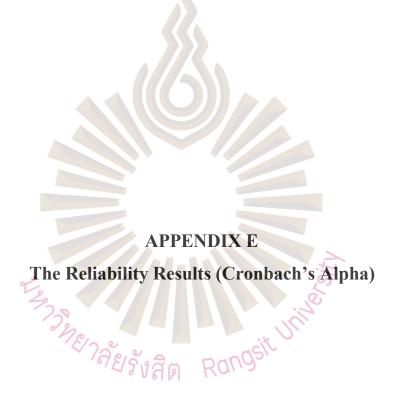
- The score = +1: If experts definitely have the feeling that an item is a measure of an objective.
- The score = 0: If experts are not sure whether the item is a measure of an objective.
- The score = -1: If experts definitely have the feeling that an item is not a measure of an objective.

No.	o. Item Statements		Score		
		+1	0	-1	
1	What strategies do you usually use to learn English?				
2	Do you think the level of English proficiency has an impact on				
	the use of English learning strategies? Please describe in detail.				
3	How many years have you been studying in Thailand? Could				
	you provide examples of how your studying and living				
	experience in Thailand influenced your English learning				
	strategy? Have you observed any differences in your language				
	learning strategies before and after you came to Thailand				
	affected by the linguistic, cultural, or social contexts? Could you				
	provide some details for this change?				
4	How would you describe your characteristic (e.g. personality,				
	learning style, learning motivation, learning attitude)? How does				
	your characteristic personal influence your English learning				
	strategy use?				

IOC Result of the Semi-Structured Interview

Items	Rating by Experts			IOC	Remarks
	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Average	
1	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
2	+1	0	+1	0.67	Accepted
3	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted
4	+1	+1	+1	+1	Accepted





Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Analysis

Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha	
	(CITC)		
1	0.699	0.973	
2	0.662	0.973	
3	0.563	0.973	
4	0.638	0.973	
5	0.603	0.973	
6	0.532	0.973	
7	0.598	0.973	
8	0.674	0.973	
9	0.657	0.973	
12	0.671	0.973	
13	0.701	0.973	
14	0.772	0.972	
15	0.666	0.973	
16	0.652	0.973	
17	0.740	0.972	
18	0.733	0.973	
19	98/90.744 Rangs	0.972	
20	0.735	0.973	
21	0.713	0.973	
22	0.650	0.973	
23	0.720	0.973	
24	0.609	0.973	
25	0.523	0.973	
28	0.730	0.973	
29	0.553	0.973	
30	0.753	0.972	
31	0.700	0.973	

1		
32	0.559	0.973
33	0.722	0.973
34	0.676	0.973
35	0.668	0.973
36	0.685	0.973
37	0.707	0.973
38	0.748	0.973
39	0.671	0.973
40	0.695	0.973
41	0.693	0.973
42	0.539	0.973
43	0.546	0.973
45	0.642	0.973
46	0.616	0.973
47	0.734	0.972
48	0.648	0.973
49	0.668	0.973
50	0.712	0.973
	Average Cronbach's Alpha:	0.973

วากยาลัยรังสิต Rangsit Uni

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