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Foreword

The Graduate School of Language and Communication (GSLC), National Development of Development Administration (NIDA) strongly believes that dialogue and contributions from various perspectives would enhance a progressive discussion and would encourage academic development. The 4th International Conference on Language and Communication (ICLC), “Current Issues and Future Directions in Media, Communication and Language” was organized to bring together researchers, practitioners, and educators with interests in the interdisciplinary study of language, media and communication at all levels from around the world to promote connections between theories and practices, and explore different perspectives on the application of research findings into practice.

On behalf of the organizing committee, I would like to express my sincere gratitude for all ICLC participants and GSLC staff for their hard work and effort in making the 4th ICLC 2012 an inspiring event.

Jaray Singhakowinta, PhD.

GSLC, NIDA

Chairperson, 2012 International Conference on Language and Communication

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Integrating Strategies and Thinking Skills Training into English Language Syllabus

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Abstract

Most educational psychologists and applied linguists have found value in integrating thinking skills and learning strategies training into a foreign or a second language teaching and learning syllabus. This article, based on a secondary resource research studies, aims to demonstrate detailed procedure for developing strategy-based English language syllabus. The results are expected to provide teachers or language educators with some ideas of how to integrate strategy training into the language syllabus. The studies on curriculum development are also believed to provide practical ideas for the Thai language educators to apply to their own designing of the syllabuses.

Keywords: thinking skill, learning strategy, syllabus design

บทคัดย่อ

นักจิตวิทยาทางการศึกษาและนักภาษาศาสตร์ส่วนใหญ่ต่างค้นพบคุณค่าของการบูรณาการการฝึกทักษะความคิดและกลยุทธ์การเรียนกับหลักสูตรการเรียนการสอนภาษาต่างประเทศ บทความวิจัยนี้จึงศึกษากระบวนการพัฒนาหลักสูตรการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษเชิงกลยุทธ์จากแหล่งข้อมูลอย่างละเอียดโดยมีจุดประสงค์เพื่อให้ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับวิธีบูรณาการการศึกษาเชิงกลยุทธ์กับการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ ผู้วิจัยเชื่อว่าผลการศึกษาขั้นตอนการออกแบบหลักสูตรโดยละเอียดจะให้แนวคิดแก่ครูผู้สอนเพื่อนำไปประยุกต์ใช้กับการออกแบบหลักสูตรการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษของตนเองได้

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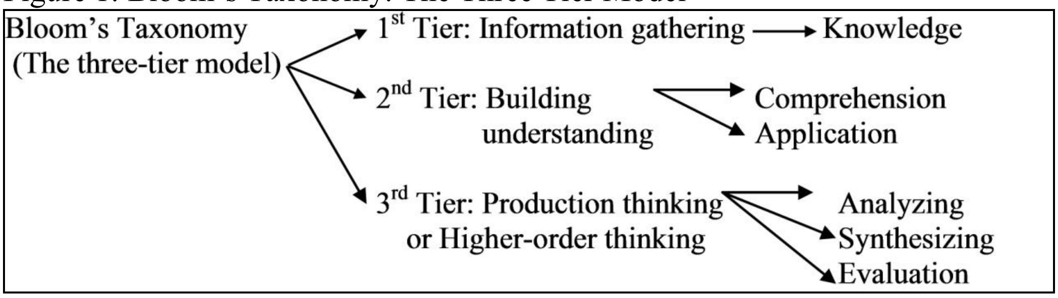
Introduction

Moseley et al. (2004) defined thinking skills as expertness, practical ability or facility in the process of thinking. There are various typologies of thinking skills. The most well known is *Bloom's taxonomy of thinking* (1950; cited in Moseley et al., 2004). Bloom's Taxonomy (Figure 1) is a three-tier model of thinking skills ranging from the simple recognition of fact, through increasingly more complex and abstract mental levels.

Figure 1: Bloom's Taxonomy: The Three Tier Model



Source: Adapted from Bloom's (1950) taxonomy and Moseley et al.'s (2004) model of frameworks for thinking.

The first tier indicates that thinking starts with *information gathering*, either in the form of facts, concepts, rules, or skills. The second tier is the process of *building understanding* by elaborating and applying information to other contexts. The third tier represents *productive thinking* or *higher-order thinking* which involves analyzing and synthesizing information to create something new, and evaluating information.

Learners gradually develop thinking skills from the first tier to the third tier naturally, or acquire through learning and practice. Educational psychologists such as Vygostsky (1978; cited in Williams & Burden, 1997), and Feuerstein et al. (1999) believe that, with help from teachers and a systematic instruction of thinking skills, learners can develop through these levels of thinking skills more effectively.

Moseley et al. (2004) added to Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive skills, *strategic and reflective thinking skills*, and argued that "cognitive skills can be exercised in non-strategic and unreflective ways, whereas it is impossible to operate at the level of strategic, value-grounded thinking without knowledge-access and other cognitive skills coming into play." (p. 2). When thinking is strategic and reflective; involving the exercise of conscious purpose and a carefully executed plan, meaningful learning is more likely to occur. It is also believed that strategies in language learning can be systematically developed in a classroom as tools to infuse learners with strategic and higher-order thinking skills (see Feuerstein et al., 1999). In this paper; therefore, the author shall focus on the studies of theoretical approaches to develop language learning strategies and thinking skills in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom through the systematic design of the curriculum and the syllabus.

Theoretical Background of Language Learning Strategies

Over the past years, language learning strategies have been described from different theoretical perspectives. Different theories emphasize different roles of strategies in language learning and language use. According to Chamot and O'Malley (1994), learning strategies, the same as other complex cognitive skills, can be described within the cognitive model of learning. The cognitive model of learning indicates that learning is an active, dynamic process in which learners select information from their environment, organize the information, relate it to what they already know, retain what they consider to be important, use the information in appropriate contexts, and reflect on the success of their learning efforts. The strategies have a prominent role in the cognitive view of learning because they represent the dynamic mechanisms underlying the learning process.

Macaro (2003) indicated that learning strategies are located in the working memory of the human brain as resources to aid the system of information processing. He mentioned that "in order to manage these resources, the central executive [*working memory*] has to exert control over their deployment" (p. 327). The utilization of strategies for learning and using language then require conscious mental activity. Even automatized strategies, or strategies that the learners use quickly with minimal attention and effort, can be brought back to attention and evaluated by the learners.

Chamot and O'Malley suggested that the description of learning strategies can hinge on the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge is *know-what* whereas procedural knowledge is *know-how*. Learners can have declarative knowledge about learning strategies through formal instruction. This will encourage the learners to be aware of their existing strategies and the choices of strategies they can choose to use with new materials. Through verbalizing the strategies application and repeated applications of the strategy with various learning materials, the learners can gradually be proceduralized.

The *humanistic approaches* consider affective aspects of learning a language as important and place the learner's thoughts, feelings and emotions at the forefront of all learner development. The language teaching methodologies that arise from the humanistic perspectives value the importance of learning environment which minimize anxiety and enhance personal security, and the significance of affective strategies in learning and using a second language.

Social interactionists argue that understanding the workings of the human mind is not in itself adequate to explain what goes on when we learn something. This is because learning occurs first through interaction with other people, then the individual. Vygostsky's (1978; cited in Williams & Burden, 1997) ideas emphasize the importance of language in interaction with people, and the role of teacher as mediator who helps learners move to the next level of the developmental process. Social interactionism emphasizes the dynamic nature of the interplay between teachers, learners, tasks, learning environment, and the importance of the role of interaction and social strategies in learning and using a second language.

Language Learning Strategies and Thinking Skills

Language learning strategies development clearly results in improved strategic and reflective thinking skills, and hence improved learning performance. As it is shown in Oxford's (1990) list of language learning strategies, language learners are inevitably involved in a wide range of thinking when they are using strategies to learn or to use a second language. Table 1 provides a summary of how language learning strategies link to thinking skills and other learning outcomes.
Table 1: Language Learning Strategies and Links to Thinking Skills and Other Learning Outcomes

Language learning strategies		**Key thinking skills and other learning outcomes**
Groups	**Sub-groups**	
Memory strategies	• Creating mental linkages • Applying images and sounds • Reviewing well • Employing action	Memorizing, grouping, classifying, elaborating, using imagery, reviewing, practicing
Cognitive strategies	• Practicing • Receiving and sending messages • Analyzing and reasoning • Creating structure for input and output	Practicing, recognizing, analyzing, reasoning, comparing and contrasting, organizing, summarizing, applying knowledge
Metacognitive strategies	• Centering your learning • Arranging and planning your learning • Evaluating your learning	Analyzing, planning, preparing, organizing, managing, paying attention, monitoring, evaluating, reflective skills
Compensation strategies	• Guessing intelligently • Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	Guessing, making inference, practicing, risk taking, problem solving, communication

Affective strategies	• Lowering your anxiety • Encouraging yourself • Taking your emotional temperature	Understanding and managing one's emotions, motivation
Social strategies	• Asking questions • Cooperating with others • Empathizing with others	Questioning, working with others, emphatic thinking, communication

Source: Adapted from Oxford's (1990) language learning strategy system.

Based on the cognitive theory, learning strategies and thinking skills, as well as the complex skills of language, can be learned through formal instruction and repeated practicing. And, according to the interactionism theory, learner's acquisition of strategies can be developed through the process of scaffolding (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994), with the help from teacher as mediator (Feuerstein et al., 1999).

The previous research results (Oxford, 1990; Victori & Lockhart, 1995; Cohen & Weaver, 1998) concerning possible benefits of strategy training have been generally positive in terms of language learning performances and attitudes improvement among EFL learners. The training assumes that conscious attention to learning strategies is beneficial. However, this is not the same as claiming that the strategies themselves are beneficial. Instead, the training program should train the learners how to select strategies that match their needs and goals, and the nature of the task. As Bialystok (1990) suggested, "strategy-training helps the student to be aware of strategies in general rather than teaching them specific strategies.

Approaches to Develop Thinking Skills

According to McGuinness (1999, p. 7), thinking skills development can be divided into three different approaches: (1) general approaches; (2) subject specific approaches; and (3) infusion methodology. The first approach was developed as a program for teaching people to learn how to learn. It is also known as Instrumental Enrichment (IE) (Feuerstein et al., 1980). Central to Feuerstein's theory is the idea of *structural cognitive modifiability* and *mediated learning*, which is the belief that people can continue to develop their cognitive capacity through systematic mediation. Teachers as mediators have an important role in developing effective learning.
One of the most well-known thinking skills development programs is also Lipman et al.'s (1980), Philosophy for Children (P4C). The program potentially can be infused into a range of subject domains (Trickey & Topping, 2004). P4C was built upon the assumption that children are natural philosophers; they can think for themselves. The emphasis of the program is on questions and questioning, learners' discussion, sharing ideas and reasoning collaboratively, and turning the classroom into a community of inquiry.

In 2004, Lin and Mackey developed a subject-specific approach to thinking skills development known as *Thinking through Modern Foreign Languages*. Nine thinking strategies are taught through 20 different exemplars in the Modern Foreign Language program.

Approaches to Develop Language Learning Strategies

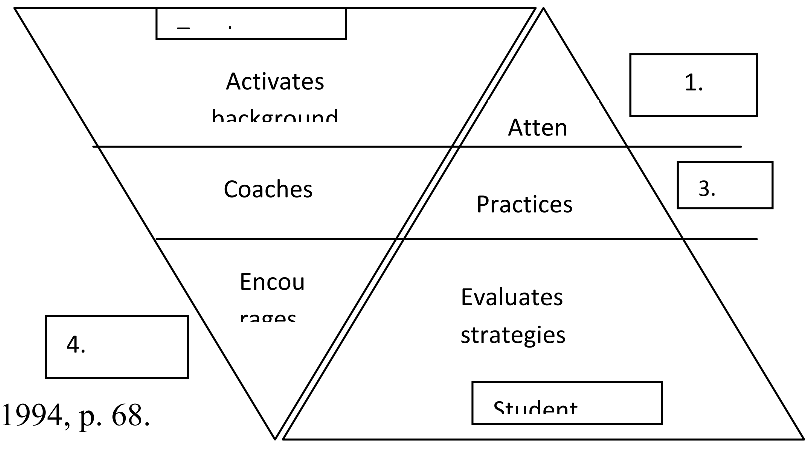
A variety of instructional models for foreign language learning strategy training have been developed and implemented in a variety of education settings. Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI) was developed by Andrew Cohen (Cohen, 1996). It is a learner-centered approach to teaching that extends strategy training to include both explicit and implicit integration of language learning and language use strategies into the foreign-language classroom. In a typical SBI classroom, teachers do the following:

- Describe, model, and give examples of potential useful strategies
- Elicit additional examples from students, based on students' own learning experiences
- Lead small-group and whole-class discussions about strategies
- Encourage students to experiment with a broad range of strategies
- Integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice

While SBI is a subject-specific program in which learning strategies are integrated, Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) (Chamot and O'Malley, 1994) integrates content topic (e.g., sciences, social studies, mathematics), academic language skills, and learning strategy instruction into a foreign language classroom. In all CALLA lessons, the content is always selected first through curriculum alignment. The selected content determines the academic language objectives and the types of learning strategies to support language learning. CALLA lessons comprise of a five-step procedure for strategy instruction: (1) preparation; (2) (teacher) presentation; (3) practice; (4) evaluation; and (5) expansion. During these activities, the responsibilities in learning the language are gradually transferred from the teachers to the learners. CALLA's framework for strategies instruction is shown in Figure 2.

Most of the language learning strategies training models aim to expand learners' current repertoire of learning strategies and metacognitive knowledge. Therefore, the strategies training usually starts with setting a scene for exploring the learners' attitudes and expectations about language learning and themselves as language learners. Their current strategies used for a specific task will be shared at the beginning of the lesson, following by teachers' presentation and demonstration of other helpful strategies and their benefits to language learning. The learners will later have a chance to practice, and evaluate the success of their strategies.
Following these processes, the learners are provided with multiple-development of reflective skills; in the beginning and at the end, in which they can reflect on their existing knowledge and the new knowledge. Following cognitive theory, it is believed that learning strategies and metacognitve knowledge, as complex cognitive skills, can be easily modified if the learners can see the relation between their existing knowledge and the new knowledge. Therefore, this idea of multiple-development of reflective skills seems to be the advantage of language learning strategies training that could be added to the thinking skills development programs.

Figure 2: CALLA Framework for Strategies Instruction



Source: Chamot & O'Malley, 1994, p. 68.

Analysis and Discussion:

A Full Strategies and Thinking Skills-Based English Syllabus

The following sections of this paper provide the detailed information of developing the SBELL, which is based mainly on Cohen and Weaver's (1998) approach to SBI and the results from the Thai EFL educational context and needs analysis.
SBELL is a leaner-focused approach to teaching that emphasizes both explicit and implicit integration of language learning and use strategies in the language classroom. Table 2 shows a description of the SBELL course.

Table 2: A Course Description

Course name	Strategy-based English language learning
Classroom context	Cram school, small-class size
Target learner	Thai secondary school students, year 1 to year 3 (age ranges from 12-15 years old)
English proficiency level	High-novice to low-intermediate levels
Medium of instruction	English and Thai (when necessary)
Number of students/class	5-10 students

A. Environment Analysis
In order to make sure that the course will really be suitable, practical, and realistic, the environment factors: (1) Thai EFL situation; (2) Thai EFL teachers and learners; and (3) the target learner are analyzed. These factors influence the design and applicability of the SBELL course.

B. Needs Analysis Procedures
Nation (1996, p. 21) suggested three types of needs to be examined (i.e., necessities, lacks, and wants). The three types of needs analysis lead to three different sets of questions, and different methods to conduct needs analysis for the SBELL course as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Needs Analysis Procedures

Types of Need	**Questions**	**Methods**	**Sources or materials**	**Duration(s)**
Necessitie s	What is necessary in the learners' study and use of language?	• Information search • Literature review • Textbook analysis	• The Educational Ministry website, the schools' website • Previous research about EFL in Thailand • Postcards1 (Abbs, Barker, and Freebairn, 2005)	Prior to the course
Types of Need	**Questions**	**Methods**	**Sources or materials**	**Duration(s)**
Lacks	What do the learners lack?	• Interact with the parents • Keep students'	• Students' performance records	• Prior to the course • During, the course

	• Lack of linguistics competence	performance records • Preview the learner's school records • Use a Proficiency test (pre-test/post-test)	• Learner's school records of English test results • Proficiency test	• Prior to the course • Prior to, and at the end of the course
	• Lack of pragmatics competence • Lack of strategic competence	• Observation of the learner's performance • Use a structured interview	• Communicative Tasks • Structured interview questions	• Prior to, during, and at the end of the course
Wants	What do the learners wish to learn?	• Self-assessment • Follow-up interview • Journal writing	• Questionnaire (BALLI) • Journal form	• The first day of the course, and at the end of the course • During the course

C. Syllabus Design

Aim:
SBELL is a learner-centered and cognitive development approach to language learning. The underlying premise is that students will learn *language content* more effectively by using *learning strategies*. Each unit of the course composed of two major sessions: (1) *Strategy training* (the content is learning strategies) which aims to give explicit strategies training; and (2) *Strategy integration* (the content is language features, and language skills) which aims to integrate practice of the strategies trained into daily class activities similar to those that the target learner finds at school. The student will receive a direct instruction of learning strategies. In addition, they will gradually be trained to be responsible for their own learning, to practice and assess their own learning, and to become autonomous learners.

Objectives:

1) To assess students' belief about language learning, and learning strategies
2) To integrate classroom strategy training into the course content
3) To provide more opportunity to practice using the strategies to learn language content and to get feedbacks from the teacher
4) To allow students to experience the advantages of systematically applying strategies to learning and use of the language, and to individualize the language learning experience

5) To assist students in becoming more responsible for their efforts in learning and using the target language
6) To provide a learning situation that emulates, as much as possible, a second language immersion situation, complete with simulations of real life events and activities that second language learners would naturally encounter
7) To develop critical thinking skills, language learning skills, as well as communicative skills
8) To encourage language learners to love (intrinsic motivation) English and English learning

Content

The language content (grammar, vocabulary, and skills) was selected and ordered based on the textbook, for example, *Postcards 1* (Abbs, Baker, Freebairn, and Reilly, 2005), which has been used for teaching EFL to secondary school students in the public schools in Thailand. The learning strategies were selected and sequenced in order to support the learning of the language content. Most were chosen from Oxford (1990). The following section shows an extract from the full research. This extract contains learning content and strategies taught during the first week.

Extract 1: Week 1

Unit 1: Introduction to SBELL

- Language content
  - Vocabulary: vocabularies related to strategy-training: strategy, skill, critical thinking, etc.
- Learning strategies
  - Self-assessment
  - Follow-up interview or discussion
  - Journal writing

Unit 2: Listen and read for specific information

- Language content
  - *Vocabulary*: Cardinal numbers
  - *Grammar*: Subject pronouns, simple present tense: *be*
  - *Skills*:
    Listen to dialogues, and finish exercise: *Matching*
    Read a Pen Pal wanted advertisement and answer questions
    Talk about yourself
    Write about yourself
- Learning strategies:
  - Setting goals and objectives
  - Organizing
  - Paying attention
  - Highlighting

Conclusion

The theories of learning strategies can be linked to the theories of thinking skills development. Since learning strategies, as conscious strategic and goal-oriented actions, must involve strategic, cognitive, and metacognitive thinking skills, language learners are inevitably involved in a wide range of thinking when they are using strategies to learn or to use a second language. Hence, developing language learning strategies is clearly linked to thinking skills improvement.

There have been different models for developing thinking skills, and learning strategies training. In this project, the author designed a lesson plan to integrate learning strategies, as tools to develop thinking skills, in an EFL classroom. In this lesson plan, both strategies for language learning, thinking skills and other learning outcomes, will be explicitly explained to the students. The teacher acts as mediator to help the learners become aware of their potential, and to develop their self-actualization.

More research still needs to be conducted to increase our understanding of the effectiveness of different strategies training and thinking skills development programs, in different educational contexts (Moseley et al., 2004). However, Oxford et al. (1990) believes that:

> Admittedly, we have a long way to go in obtaining all the desired answers about the best way to help students become potentially effective language learners. Yet even now we can surmise, based on the research and the case studies, that strategy training may be an important part of the solution.
> (Oxford et al., 1990, p. 211)

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Social Media Use in Awareness Raising Campaigns to Support Initiatives for Social Good

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Abstract

Social media adoption has increased exponentially around the world during the last five years, including in developing nations. In Nepal, Internet penetration has risen from six to 18 percent from 2010-2012 (Rai, 2012) and there are over 1.45 million Facebook users – more than the total readership of major print newspapers (Dixit, 2012a). This study explores how social media users in Nepal utilize the technology to appeal for online votes, donations, and additional publicity in awareness raising campaigns for causes they support.

The Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube activities of supporters of five awareness raising campaigns in 2012 were analyzed. Secondary research was performed on additional campaigns that occurred during 2009-2012, with interviews carried out from 2009-2010 with 70 representatives from 45 Non-Government Organizations that use social media serving as further background. The effectiveness of this bottom-up, participatory communication by individual campaigners was examined to determine to what extent social media use contributes to a campaign's success.

Social media users' frequent written, image, and video appeals for support in the form of online votes, donations, and information sharing were found to greatly contribute to campaign success. Additionally, offline awareness raising was also found to be an important component of an online awareness raising campaign's success. Social media allow individuals to engage in bottom-up, participatory communication on a large scale, and given the many challenges involved in obtaining publicity and funding for a grassroots initiative for social good in Nepal, social media platforms are shown to have become a highly effective and necessary component of awareness raising communication that enables both local and global reach.

Keywords: social media, awareness raising communication, bottom-up communication, participatory communication, Nepal, online fundraising

1. Introduction

1.1. Web 2.0 and Social Media

Since 2004, the Internet has become increasingly more of a site of interactivity and user-generated content creation (O'Reilly, 2005). Hart (2007) elaborates, "Web 1.0 was the Web that *talked at* people," whereas in Web 2.0 people "connect around the world with people they may have never met but can connect with for causes they collectively support," (p. xv). Web 2.0 applications such as social network sites (SNS), blogs, and photo and video sharing sites have proliferated, growing almost as ubiquitous as websites. Indeed, in 2012 there are approximately one billion monthly Facebook users, 500 million Twitter users, and over 800 million monthly visitors to YouTube (Facebook, 2012; Dugan, 2012; YouTube, 2012).

The overwhelming majority of these online social media tools are free for public use, an Internet connection the only requirement. These applications make it much easier for those without the advanced technical skills and funds required to create and maintain a website to establish an online presence. Social media are a powerful way for people and organizations that are short of resources to connect with and favorably influence potential advocates and contributors, efficiently and economically entering into conversations with a swiftly growing audience.

Facebook, established in 2004, is currently the most active SNS. Registered users create a personal profile through which they post comments, questions, or statements, as well as photographs/images, videos, and links, and endorse ("like" or "recommend") posts, pages, and other items. These updates are visible to other Facebook users – usually just those who are on the original user's "friends list." Twitter, launched in 2006, is a popular microblogging service. It allows users to compose and broadcast messages ("tweets") of up to 140 characters at a time (which often contain links) – usually visible to and searchable by the Internet public and broadcast to a list of "followers", and "retweet" messages from other users they follow. YouTube, started in 2005, is content sharing site for videos. Users can upload, watch, vote up or down, and comment on a vast and growing archive, with over four billion hours watched every month (YouTube, 2012).

1.2. Social Media in Nepal

Nepal is South Asia's poorest country and currently ranks 157th out of 187 countries on the Human Development Index (World Bank, 2012). In 2012, Internet penetration reached 18 percent, rising 12 percentage points from 2010 (Rai, 2012). Nepal has over 1.89 million Facebook users (Social Bakers, 2012) in a population of 30,485,978 (World Bank, 2012). More Nepalis consume online news than read local print media (Dixit, 2012a). The majority of netizens are urban, middle to upper class, and English literate.

Two recent articles in an English language weekly, perturbed by the online public sphere's popularity, voice arguably undue concern that social media are causing more rift-making than tie-building in Nepali communities, promoting "echo chambers for corrosive dialogue" (Dixit, 2012b, para. 7), compartmentalizing views and fragmenting society with at worst, "hate pages and racist sites, crude photo-shopped images of politicians and anonymous incendiary incitement to violence in the unmoderated feedback sections of the online press" (Mahato, 2012, para. 16). This negative characterization of online discourse is inaccurate, however, when the social media activity of users who express support for initiatives for social good is examined. In communities found on social media platforms representing these initiatives, positive sentiments are exchanged and bonds of friendships and trust are built and strengthened, which can carry over to offline collaborations.

1.3. Research Questions

1. How are social media users in Nepal utilizing the technology to raise awareness about and build support for community improvement initiatives?
2. In this context, how effective are awareness raising campaigns that engage social media in obtaining funding for community improvement initiatives?

2. Theoretical Framework

Individual social media users engage in bottom-up, participatory communication, predicated on the active involvement of people located at the bottom of the 'communication food chain.' This mode of communication stresses "the basic right of all people to be heard, to speak for themselves, and not be represented or reworded by another party," (McPhail, 2009, p. 27). Bottom-up, participatory communication in the context of social change initiatives denotes the "sharing of knowledge aimed at reaching a consensus for action that takes into account the interests, needs and capacities of all concerned," (Servaes, 2008, p. 15). It allows those most directly affected by the initiatives the right and ability to engage in a conversation where they have a voice in shaping them. Supporters of the campaigns examined are neither established media houses nor large development institutions, but everyday members of the general public. Although they are not among the most marginalized members of their community, since they are by and large English literate, computer literate, and have regular to semi-regular Internet access, neither are these supporters among an elite group of powerholders. The vast majority are middle and upper class students and professionals living in urban areas of Nepal, with some living abroad. These supporters' communication of many vocal peers to many vocal peers contrasts with the top-down, one dominant speaker to many silent listeners communication paradigm engaged in by print, radio, and television media.

3. Methodology

Supporters of Nepal-based initiatives for social good were identified through searches of Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube. Five awareness raising campaigns were selected based on their supporters' publicizing via social media the campaign's entering into a competition for funds that involved online voting or donating. There were two campaign models. One required online votes or Facebook "likes", for which requests were made via social media to secure grant funding. For the other, appeals for online donations were made using social media. Information on why the votes and donations were needed and how awarded and contributed funds would be spent was an important component of the appeals for support. Textual, image, and video communications promoting the campaigns, awareness raising strategies, and campaign outcomes were examined, specifically looking at the role of social media. Some campaigns involved respondents representing small-scale Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) interviewed during winter 2010-11, while others involved organizations that did not exist at that time or had yet to enter competitions involving online voting and donating. [1]

[1] Six other campaigns by Nepal-based organizations were examined for additional background. From Chase Community Giving, Sarvodaya Nepal won $100,000 in 2009, Ganga Ghar won $25,000 in 2011, and Nyaya Health and Grassroots Movement in Nepal each won $100,000 in 2012; using IndieGoGo, a fundraising platform similar to Kickstarter and StartSomeGood, Ganga Ghar raised $15,750 and Kathmandu International Art Festival 2012 has, as of October 2012, raised $1,826 of a $25,000 goal.

Table 1: Selected Awareness Raising Campaigns

Campaign	**Aim**	**Organization**	**Cause**
Pushpa Basnet for CNN Hero of the Year 2012	Pushpa Basnet becoming CNN Hero of the Year, winning $250,000 to support her cause	Early Childhood Development Center	Education, care and homes for children growing up in Nepali prisons with convicted mothers
GalliGalli Taxi and Takeoff	Raising at least $7,424, and ideally $16,423 to support the initial phases of development of an application to provide data on public transportation in Kathmandu	GalliGalli	Information on public transportation routes and fares, as well as government office procedures in Nepal
Help Nepal Network as Chase Community Giving 2012 Awardee	Obtaining a grant of $10,000-$250,000 to build and maintain schools, libraries and health posts in remote areas of Nepal	Help Nepal Network	Education, health care, and disaster relief in rural Nepal
Hariyo Chowk	Raising at least $9,000 to transform a small, vacant plot of land in Kathmandu into a park and outdoor arts area	Sattya Media Arts Collective	Environmentally sustainable neighborhood parks and community art areas in urban Nepal
Bato ko Cinema	Obtaining a $2,500 grant to support some of the costs involved in showing documentaries on the streets of different neighborhoods in Kathmandu	Sattya Media Arts Collective	Inspiration, opportunities and affordable resources for the arts community in urban Nepal

Table 2: Campaign Details

Campaign and Duration	Host organization or platform	Awareness raising for votes/donations
Pushpa Basnet for CNN Hero of the Year 2012 *(Sept 21-Nov 28)*	CNN (CNN.com)	Votes (via Facebook or email account registration with host); vote appeals via Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube; links to donation portals
GalliGalli Taxi and Takeoff *(May 29-Aug 20)*	StartSomeGood (StartSomeGood.com)	Donations (via email account registration with host, then PayPal); donation appeals via Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube
Help Nepal Network as Chase Community Giving 2012 Awardee *(Sept 6-Sept 19)*	Chase Community Giving (Chase.com)	Votes (via Facebook or Chase bank account); vote appeals via Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube; links to donation portals
Hariyo Chowk *(Apr 6-May 6)*	Kickstarter (Kickstarter.com)	Donations (via Facebook or email account registration with host, then amazonpayments); donation appeals via Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube
Bato ko Cinema *(Sept 27-Oct 11)*	GOODMaker (maker.good.is)	Votes (via Facebook or email account registration with host); vote appeals via Facebook and Twitter; links to donation portals

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Pushpa Basnet for CNN Hero of the Year 2012

Pushpa Basnet was elected on September 20th as one the Top Ten CNN Heroes 2012, from a pool of 24 first round nominees. She and a group of enthusiastic supporters had been harnessing her already very active Facebook and Twitter accounts to achieve the nomination, which came with a $50,000 grant. Now, fresh from that victory, they redoubled their efforts and made voting appeals for Pushpa as CNN Hero of the Year.

> The Facebook page for Pushpa's organization, Early Childhood Development Center: Dear [all], After months of anticipation, CNN today posted the list of the Top 10 finalists for the title of "CNN Hero 2012". We are humbled, and honored, and extremely ecstatic to share that our own Pushpa Basnet is one of the FINALISTS, and will be honored at "CNN Heroes: An All-Star Tribute," a globally broadcast event that airs live December 2 at 9 p.m. ET/6 p.m. PT. Pushpa is now very much in the running for "THE CNN Hero of the year" title to be declared during the December event…CNN Hero is chosen by the public through their votes. So, Now is THE TIME!!...Voting has BEGUN. Please vote daily to help us continue our work towards ensuring that "No child grows up behind

prison walls". Social media has done wonders globally. We will try our best to ensure that the platform we have received is used responsibly and respectfully. We hope to get people talking about the issue globally and raise awareness, as we recognize that this not Nepal's problem alone. So, please remember that by voting, you are not only supporting ECDC, but also helping voice the need for the protection of children growing up in prisons all around the world. Please go to http://heroes.cnn.com/ You can vote as many as 10 times a day. Please pass on to friends and family, and support Pushpa and her cause. Pushpa, and the entire ECDC family is grateful for your support, and hope that you are with us all the way!! Thank you, Early Childhood Development Center.

As of this writing in October 2012, a growing team of supporters continues to relentlessly remind Facebook friends and Twitter followers to keep voting. Starting September 24th, Pushpa posted and tweeted variations of this message at least once a day: "We can vote 10 times a day. So please take some seconds from your busy schedule and vote for our cause. Please spread the news as much as you can. thank you." The repetition of the request to vote ten (or more) times daily is key in engaging people to make these individually small but significant when combined efforts that help Pushpa win.

Messages on Facebook and Twitter from many different people echoing the call to vote boost the ethos (credibility, as understood by Aristotle (Aristotle and Kennedy, 1991)) of the campaign. Instructions on how to vote have been Facebooked, Tweeted, and YouTubed, in English and Nepali. Furthermore, supporters created at least three other Facebook pages to promote Pushpa for this campaign. On these pages, supporters again post variations of the call to vote, like this one, which explains how to increase the voting quota:

> You can vote from both your email and facebook every day. Which means a person can cast at least 20 votes per day. If a person has more than 1 email ids, he can still cast 10 more votes. So let's try our best and for sure we will be successful in our mission. She is our pride. Let's encourage everybody to cast their votes.

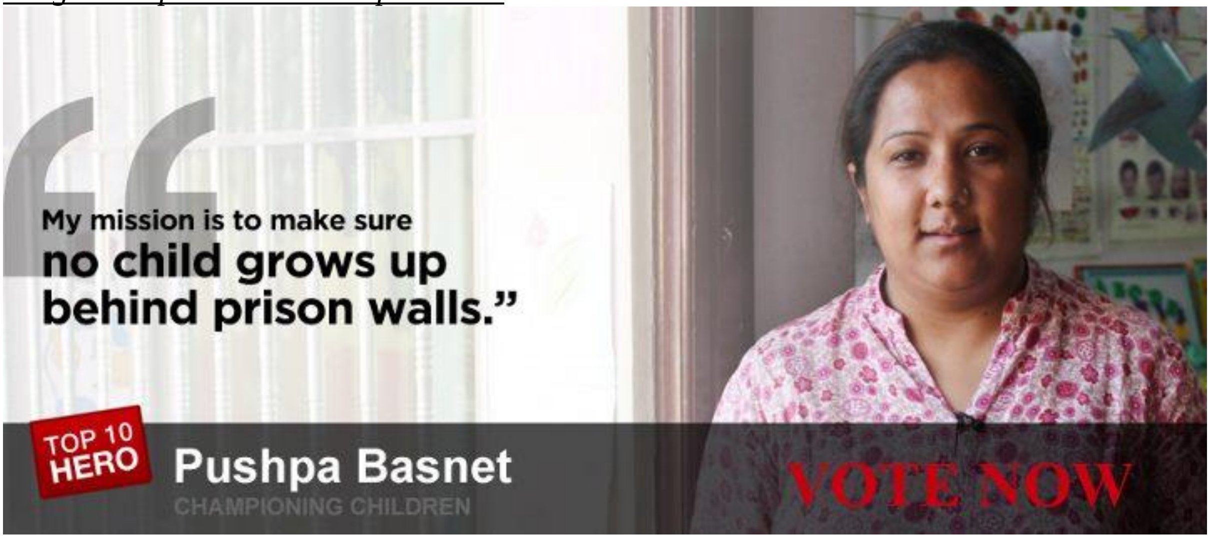
Further boosting Pushpa's credibility, the official Facebook page of the CNN Heroes program is filled with supporters proclaiming their desire for Pushpa to win. Pushpa's supporters display the largest and most enthusiastic presence. A typical post by CNN Heroes on their official page from September 22nd attracted 47 comments; 39 indicate support for Pushpa, four indicate support for another nominee (one each), and four indicate general support or support for candidates not nominated.

Another significant factor in motivating supporters to vote and vote again is the construction of the call to vote. Voting for Pushpa, supporters are told and tell each other, is also voting for Nepal. Another supporter writes:

> This is the golden opportunity to introduce Nepal worldwide and support her great contribution towards those kids. Please do vote for her. I already voted her 10 times this morning. I am gonna vote her each day until the voting deadline. Once again congratulation to Pushpa Basnet and gud luck for this opportunity.

Additionally, voting for Pushpa is viewed as voting for her cause, which is more than a personal or national issue. Informing others semi-publicly via social media that one voted is a way to announce support for taking good care of children growing up in prison with their mothers. Below is a popular image from CNN's profile of Pushpa on its website that supporters circulated on Facebook and Twitter. It pairs a photograph of Pushpa with a quotation from one of her interviews on CNN and the directive to "vote now." Many were compelled to share the image because it appealingly presents a simple yet powerful message that many would be proud to display and few would object to, especially in the semi-public space of the online social network.

Image 1: Top Ten Hero Pushpa Basnet



People promote Pushpa to become CNN Hero of the Year in part because they desire to be a visible part of her noble endeavor. Those requested, be they friends, colleagues, family, or other contacts of the requestor, even if they do not become long-term, deep supporters, are likely to vote out of concern that not voting, visible in the absence of an update on Facebook, would be taken as an indication they do not care about children in prisons, do not want Pushpa to win, and, if they are Nepali or have ties to Nepal, do not want to improve the stature of the country by helping a Nepali win a prestigious international award. Another motivation to vote is the desire not to be seen as lazy and self-involved. Appeals to vote make reference to the "busy schedule" of the prospective voter, assuring them that voting only takes "seconds"; not voting, or even not voting enough, in such circumstances implicitly gives non-voters/low-voters an unfavorable impression among their voting/high-voting peers.

On CNN's website, videos, stories, and links to websites and donation portals for each nominated CNN Heroes' initiative also have Facebook "recommend" buttons attached. Pushpa's overwhelming popularity among the candidates can be seen from her 6,089 "recommends" (as of October 2012) , as opposed to the other nominees, whose "recommend" counts range from to 153 to 2,473. Overall, frequent and compelling appeals to vote, primarily disseminated through Facebook and Twitter, and containing links to YouTube videos about Pushpa and her work, and step by step guides to the online voting process at CNN.com, have garnered the campaign visible strong support, and greatly contributed to Pushpa's significant lead in supporter numbers and enthusiasm when compared with the other nominees.

4.2. GalliGalli Taxi and Takeoff

Sakar Pudasaini, co-founder of GalliGalli, made a four minute video for YouTube, "GalliGalli Introduction," as part of his awareness raising efforts for the initiative's StartSomeGood fundraising campaign, aimed at building an online application to combat the lack of information on public transportation in Kathmandu.

“Welcome to Kathmandu,” Sakar narrates, setting the scene of the intricate networks of lanes and courtyards of inner-city Kathmandu. He then introduces his initiative to address the dearth of public data on public transportation routes and fares:

> GalliGalli is a virtual *tole*, a neighborhood without fences. We are vehemently opposed to hoarding that most essential good: knowledge. Geo-spatial data is the foundation of our *tole*, but GalliGalli is more than a map of just the lanes and buildings. It is also the story of these neighborhoods and their inhabitants. It is also the story of how we get from neighborhood to neighborhood, and the story of how we relate to our government. All sturdy neighborhoods need good planners and architects. GalliGalli’s long-term residents, a committed team of technologists, social scientists, and managers, will dedicate their time to building Galligalli *tole* by *tole*, brick by brick, bit by bit. But they cannot be the only ones building this neighborhood; the vibrancy and livability of GalliGalli will depend equally on everyone who chooses to call it home. Our virtual *tole*, our digital neighborhood, like any great city, will begin with just a few settlements – settlements secured with your help on this campaign. But it will grow, grow to encompass a city, a province, and an entire nation.

Sakar repeats “neighborhood” and its Nepali equivalent, “tole”, to convey the importance neighborhoods play in his initiative, using these words a total of 16 times in his pitch. People living in Kathmandu’s many neighborhoods are those likely to have the most information about public transportation in their area to contribute to the mapping and pricing of routes, as well as their area’s notable landmarks and businesses. Moreover, area locals are among the project’s main beneficiaries; more visitors to the area would help local vendors, and increased monitoring of the neighborhood would reduce crime.

This video is the main awareness raising tool for Sakar’s GalliGalli initiative, titled “No Tension Sawari[2].” Due in large part to the video’s message and its mass-distribution across Facebook and Twitter, as well as on the StartSomeGood fundraising platform, $10,145 was raised to support the research for and building of an application to provide information on fares, routes, and location highlights for microbus and auto-rickshaw transportation. The video identified a clear need in urban Kathmandu, and proposed an innovative, practical, communal, and seemingly workable solution – this motivated many people, particularly those who would benefit from an online application to navigate public transportation in Kathmandu, to make small financial contributions and promote and share the initiative on a larger scale via their online social networks.

4.3. Help Nepal Network as Chase Community Giving 2012 Awardee

On September 20th, 2012, the day Pushpa Basnet was voted a CNN Top Ten Hero, three Nepali organizations became winners of $100,000 each in Chase Bank’s Community Giving campaign, which also relies on voting via Facebook. Receiving the most votes of the three was Help Nepal Network (HENN), which, like the other winning organizations, utilizes Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube for swift, easy, and economical awareness raising.

With 61,953 votes, each vote equivalent to one Facebook “like”, HENN is another in a growing example of grassroots organizations in Nepal benefiting immensely from social media’s high and growing popularity among Nepalis. Many supporters of HENN are also supporters of

[2] Vehicle.

the campaign for Pushpa Basnet to become CNN Hero of the Year 2012, as a comment on a post on HENN's Facebook shows:

> We did a lot for HeNN... Now plz fight for Pushpa Basnet... Do you want to know that who is PUSHPA BASNET? and Do you have enough time to read her story?.... then click on this link, read it and try to cast 10 VOTES to her each day. http://edition.cnn.com/2012/03/15/world/cnnheroes-basnet-nepal-prisons/index.html"

This comment is a marker of a collaborative spirit among Nepali social media users when campaigning in social media driven, "vote" or "like"-based quasi-democratic competitions for charitable endeavors and the organizations and individuals that establish and work for them. In addition, to help potential voters successfully complete the voting process, YouTube video walkthroughs were disseminated – just as in the CNN Hero campaign.

A September 23rd comment characterizes the $100,000 award as "hard earned", indicating the author feels that 61,953 people clicking "like" on a Facebook page amounts to quite a sizeable (virtual) effort: "This is indeed very hard earned money as every individual has made his/her contribution." For many Nepalis, having the time and funds to access an Internet connected computer or mobile phone, acquiring the linguistic and technical skills to open and use a Facebook account, and being in a geographic location that enables them to access Facebook, is often a hard won accomplishment.

4.4. Sattya Media Arts Collective's Bato Ko Cinema and Hariyo Chowk Campaigns

4.4.1. Hariyo Chowk

Sattya Media Arts Collective utilized the crowdfunding platform Kickstarter to promote the construction of *Hariyo Chowk* (a green public square) to revitalize neglected, garbage infested public alcoves in the city, transforming them through partially voluntary communal efforts into vegetable gardens and micro parks.

The Facebook page Sattya (which has a separate Facebook group) created for Hariyo Chowk continues to be active, even though the Kickstarter campaign ended on May 6th, 2012. The first entry on the page makes evident the power of a large quantity of "likes", Facebook's social currency:

> Hariyo Chowk needs YOU. We want YOU to help us get more likes for the page and help Hariyo Chowk get the attention it needs. So Hariyo Chowk has set a goal of 1000 likes within 2 weeks. The goal is set the time is set now we want YOU to like the page and SHARE SHARE SHARE.

More likes equals more spread across a greater number of individuals' social networks, as well as more credibility as a worthwhile, heavily championed venture. As in the other campaigns, Hariyo Chowk was promoted through Twitter and on YouTube, with links to the Kickstarter campaign page, where online donations could be made.

Nearer to the end of the campaign, donation appeals took on a more urgent tone, in part due to Kickstarter's rule that the target amount of funds must be raised for any funds to be disbursed:

> We have just six days to reach our goal on Kickstarter. We still need to raise $1,800, or we get nothing at all. Please help us meet our goal. If you have been waiting to donate...please do it now. Help us spread the word for this one last push :

Ultimately, Sattya was quite successful, raising $3,417 more than its goal of $9,000 to launch the first Hariyo Chowk in Kathmandu. Donations totalling $12,417 would not have been made for the project without the persuasive information sharing that occurred on multiple social media platforms. Evidence of enthusiastic and capable staff, volunteers, and other supporters was displayed in their textual posts, images, and videos, all viewable and shareable by members of their online social networks.

4.4.2. Bato ko Cinema

In contrast to the donation-based model of the fundraising drive for Hariyo Chowk, Sattya utilized a vote-based campaign on GOODMaker to fund one of its community arts development initiatives, *Bato ko Cinema* (street cinema) in September and October, 2012. Sattya's Twitter account repeatedly tweeted "***SATTYA NEEDS YOU!!! Help us get** #votes **for our** #fundraising #campaign **for Bato Ko Cinema. http://ow.ly/e69xc @**GOODmkr.**"*** On October 10 and 11, campaigners wrote in Sattya's Facebook group, with the same sense of urgency displayed in posts about Hariyo Chowk near the end of its run on Kickstarter:

> As you can see, we are at #2 and there is 1 DAY of voting left. Please go around asking your friends to vote so that we can be #1 at the time of vote closing (Nepal time-Thursday, about midnight).

A similar post pointed to the preparedness of the organization, ease of voting, and large benefit voting brings:

> PLEASE VOTE!! This fall we want to start showing film in the streets of Kathmandu. We are ready with almost everything, but need some funds to subtitle some films, fuel the generator, and buy a pair of speakers. PLEASE VOTE- IT TAKES 2 MINUTES AND WILL ALLOW US TO MAKE BATO KO CINEMA HAPPEN! only 2 days remaining and currently on no.2 so plz vote and ask others to vote too.

Campaigners also pointed out that no financial commitments were being asked: "VOTE. IT COSTS YOU NOTHING, BUT MAKE THIS PROGRAM POSSIBLE."

In the end, the Bato ko Cinema campaign won its target grant of $2,500. The activities of campaigners on the final days of voting included canvassing Kathmandu neighbourhoods with laptops and mobile devices so that votes could be made on the spot. Incorporating offline campaigning into their awareness raising strategy enabled Sattya to amass enough online votes for its neighborhood media arts initiative to win grant funding.

5. Conclusion

Despite acute electricity shortage[3], low speed, and technical, linguistic, and financial barriers to utilization, social media users in Nepal have very effectively engaged the communication

[3] Scheduled power cuts, termed loadshedding, occur year round, and in recent years have risen to 16 hours of daily outage in the winter dry season (rain is necessary to run the country's hydropower plants).

affordances of the technology to build the support necessary for a significant number of community development initiatives they champion. They have thus gained operational funding from donations and grants. Campaigns where social media are used to vote and demonstrate how to vote, link to donation portals, and share persuasive, compelling information supporting the initiative have obtained strong virtual and real world support. Social media are effective for individuals working on grassroots campaigns in Nepal to spread awareness for the following reasons:

1. Supporters feel part of a cause by helping its progenitor(s) spread awareness about it, and can share in successes such as awards, positive media portrayals of the cause, its progenitor, and supporters, and other positive public recognition.
2. Support for a local cause and its progenitor(s) can be seen as support for the nation.
3. Support for a local cause can at the same time be seen as support for the cause all over the world, not just the area and nation where its progenitor(s) address(es) it.
4. Not helping spread awareness about a cause (by sharing links to vote and/or donate, as well as voting and/or donating) is implicitly seen as not caring about the cause, its founder and supporters, and even opposing it. The public and semi-public nature of social media encourages information and opinion sharing. Spreading awareness about a cause accomplishes both. Supporting a cause by voting for and/or donating to it online becomes a kind of civic duty among social media users with some connection to the cause, its progenitor, and/or its supporters. Not showing support by awareness spreading, voting, and/or donating can be viewed as shirking this duty.
5. Despite linguistic, environmental, and technical challenges, spreading awareness using social media is inexpensive and easy.

Successful awareness raising campaigns using social media shared a number of features.

1. Transparency: detailed information was provided on funding sources, funds raised, and how funds would be used to address the cause.
2. The cause was personal to its progenitor(s), but also addressed an important issue that others could relate to and understand the need for.
3. The plan to address the cause was practical, specific, and neither overly simplistic nor complex.
4. Offline campaigning was used to obtain online support. Campaigners sought out supporters offline, motivating them to go online, sign into or sign up for a Facebook account, and use it to vote.
5. Clear, bilingual instructions were provided on how to spread awareness about and support the cause.
6. There were frequent updates on campaign progress as well as calls to vote/donate/share information.
7. Campaigners produced and disseminated en masse a combination of appealing and persuasive textual, image, and video messages.
8. Enough supporters possessed a combination of at least a moderate amount of technical and linguistic skills, and knowledge of awards to campaign for and media resources to incorporate.

As two members of Nyaya Health remarked, the 2012 Chase campaign, in which it and two other Nepal-based organizations won $100,000 grants, showed that:

> [D]espite the political failures and the implementation challenges of public sector services…Nepalis are engaged and ready to rally around positive change in the country. Most votes were cast out of a belief that progress is possible, that a better Nepal and improved governance is possible. This is the real people's movement. It is a movement

> that will take democracy into government offices, private businesses, and NGOs. The revolution, however, will not be achieved through the use of violence or [transportation shutdowns], but through pragmatic action where citizens hold organisations accountable and compel them to stay true to their mandates and deliver on their promises. (Maru and Acharya, 2012, paras. 5-6)

Social media driven awareness raising campaigns have swiftly and decisively become a very effective method for grassroots level initiatives to raise awareness about and gain funding for their innovative initiatives to bring about social good in their communities. In a country with underdeveloped telecommunication resources, social media have been surprisingly very successful in engaging bottom-up communication for awareness raising that leads to funding for social causes.

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Using English Vocabulary Supplementary Materials to Enhance Vocabulary Learning Proficiency of Technical and Business Students in Higher Education

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Abstract

The purposes of this research were 1) to construct and test efficiency of EFL supplementary materials to enhance vocabulary techniques of undergraduate students, 2) to compare the students' English vocabulary learning achievement before and after using EFL supplementary vocabulary materials constructed, 3) to compare undergraduate students' English vocabulary learning achievement on pre-learning and post-learning according to students' genders, 4) to compare undergraduate students' English vocabulary learning achievement on pre-learning and post-learning according to students' majors and 5) to survey the students' satisfaction towards the EFL supplementary vocabulary materials in 8 units.

The subject consisted of 60 undergraduate students of Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology during second semester of 2011 academic year. The instruments used for this experiment were 8 units of the EFL supplementary vocabulary lessons, the English vocabulary learning achievement test, and a questionnaire was used for surveying the subjects' satisfaction on the efficiency of the constructed materials.

The results of the study were 1) the efficiency of the materials was 80.14 for the English vocabulary learning formative tests and 82.94 for the posttest. Therefore, the EFL supplementary vocabulary materials constructed were highly effective, 2) the students' English vocabulary learning achievement after using the eight EFL supplementary vocabulary lessons was significantly higher than that before using the eight EFL supplementary vocabulary lessons constructed at 0.05 level, 3) there were no significant differences between male and female students on pretest and on posttest proficiency, 4) students with different majors showed statistically significant differences at .05 level on posttest but no significant differences on pretest, and 5) students' satisfaction towards the eight English reading lessons was highly positive

Keywords: English Vocabulary Supplementary Materials**,** English Vocabulary Learning Proficiency

1. Introduction

Recently, Instructional curriculum of foreign language is based on National Education Act of B.E.2542 section 22 as it stipulated that Education shall be based on the principle that all learners are

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capable of learning and self-development, and are regarded as being most important. The teaching-learning process shall aim at enabling the learners to develop themselves at their own pace and to the best of their potentiality (Ministry of Education 1999: 14).

One important objective of studies into language learning strategies is often to determine effective ways of learning a new language (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). The field of vocabulary learning strategies is no exception as the effectiveness of strategies for learning new words has been under scrutiny for several decades now (Brown and Perry, 1991; Ellis and Beaton, 1993, and Fan, 2003).

Learning a second language involves the manipulation of four main skills; speaking, writing, listening and reading, which lead to effective communication. One crucial factor is the amount of vocabulary one possesses as vocabulary forms the biggest part of the meaning of any language (McCarthy, 1988). Vocabulary, however, is the biggest problem for most learners. In view of this, vocabulary acquisition is currently receiving attention in second language pedagogy and research. But it is still a contentious issue how learners acquire vocabulary effectively and efficiently or how it can best be taught.

Moreover, vocabulary is central to language and is of great significance to language learners. Words are the building blocks of a language since they label objects, actions, ideas without which people cannot convey the intended meaning. The prominent role of vocabulary knowledge in second or foreign language learning has been recently recognized by theorists and researchers in the field. Accordingly, numerous types of approaches, techniques, exercises and practice have been introduced into the field to teach vocabulary (Hatch & Brown, 1995).

Vocabulary learning strategies are one part of language learning strategies which in turn are part of general learning strategies (Nation, 2001). Language learning strategies encourage greater overall self-direction for learners. Self-directed learners are independent learners who are capable of assuming responsibility for their own learning and gradually gaining confidence, involvement and proficiency (Oxford, 1990). It has been suggested that one way to accelerate the learning of a second or a foreign language is to teach learners how to learn more efficiently and effectively. To this end, teachers are recommended to train their students in different learning strategies. Learning strategies instruction can help "EFL learners become better learners. In addition, skill in using learning strategies assists students in becoming independent, confident learners (Chamot, 2001: 31).

Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology has been operated under the philosophy of "disseminating knowledge and building economic base". One of the TNI objectives is to generate human resources who have abilities in technological advancement and industrial management. Moreover, TNI concept of program administration is to focus on the students' language skills- the students will be able to communicate in Japanese and English. In order to achieve in the TNI objectives, TNI has provided English courses for students from all faculties to enrol (TNI Student Handbook: 2011: 24).

Teaching-learning English language of TNI students has problem in vocabulary learning and they also lack of motivation in learning because instructional contents are not interesting. Thus, instructional management must depend on learner's interesting and ability that make motivation in learning of the learners.

In conclusion, the researcher created EFL supplementary vocabulary materials which passed checking from experts for study improvement in vocabulary learning of TNI students in second semester, 2011 academic year and the results derived from research will be guideline in improvement and development instruction and instructional materials next occasions.

2. Objectives

1) To construct and test efficiency of EFL supplementary materials to enhance vocabulary techniques of undergraduate students

2) To compare the students' English vocabulary learning achievement before and after using EFL supplementary vocabulary materials constructed

3) To compare undergraduate students' English vocabulary learning achievement on pre-learning and post-learning according to students' genders

4) To compare undergraduate students' English vocabulary learning achievement on pre-learning and post-learning according to students' majors and

5) To survey the students' satisfaction towards the EFL supplementary vocabulary materials in 8 units.

3. Research Design

The data was gathered and analyzed as follows.

3.1 Populations and samples

The populations in this study were first year undergraduate students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, Bangkok, in second semester of 2011 academic year. There were 1,250 students from 3 faculties which are Faculty of Business Administration, Faculty of Information Technology, and Faculty of Engineering.

The samples in this study consisted of 60 undergraduate TNI students, and were derived from a simple random sampling technique.

3.2 Contents Used in Experiment

The topics consisted of *Prefixes, Suffixes, Definitions, Compound words, Synonyms, restatements, Comparisons, and roots* which were chosen based on a survey of students' needs questionnaire.

3.3 Duration in experiment

The experiment ran for 8 weeks (2 hour per week)

3.4 Variables

Variables in this study were as follows:

1. The English vocabulary learning ability of undergraduate students before and after the class.
2. The satisfaction of first year TNI students with EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials.

3.5 Research Instruments

1. Eight lessons of EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials.
2. A 1-hour English vocabulary learning proficiency test (30 items: 30 scores).
3. A questionnaire constructed by the researcher assessing satisfaction with EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials.

3.6 Construction and Development of Research Instruments

The researcher constructed the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials and the proficiency tests in the following way:

First, the researcher studied the objectives of EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials, and focused on English vocabulary learning skills and strategies.

Second, the researcher derived eight topics from the survey of needs questionnaire and interviewed the participants regarding topics required for first year undergraduate students. The topics were as follows:

Rank	Topic	Mean	S.D	Meaning
1	Prefixes	4.55	0.55	Very high needs
2	Suffixes	4.52	0.69	Very high needs
3	Definitions	4.51	0.60	Very high needs
4	Compound words	4.48	0.82	High needs
5	Synonyms	4.35	0.71	High needs
6	restatements	4.32	0.84	High needs
7	Comparisons	4.29	0.70	High needs
8	roots	4.21	0.73	High needs

Third, these eight topics were modified to suit first year undergraduate students by giving the students vocabulary guidelines and meanings, simplifying structures of language, finding pictures, and applying the contents to English vocabulary learning materials. Then, the table of contents specification was designed by determining the objectives, contents, topics, vocabulary learning skills, vocabulary learning activities, and evaluation.

Last, the constructed table was examined for IOC by experts and lesson plans were written for all 8 lessons. Each lesson plan was composed of learning objectives, topics and contents, and vocabulary learning activities consisting of presentation, practice, and production stages.

Presentation stage included presenting pictures and answering the questions in order to lead the students to lessons and matching vocabulary with pictures.

Practice stage was categorized into 5 groups: True/False; Yes/No Question; Information gap; Matching; and Sequencing events.

Production stage was divided into several types: semantic maps, information tables, and concept mapping.

The lesson test consisted of a multiple choice test, sequencing events, information gap, and question answering.

Proficiency test

Students were given pre- and post-class proficiency tests. The tests had the same format and consisted of 30 items (30 scores). The duration of each test was 60 minutes. The researcher used the textbook, journal articles and related research as an outline to create the test. The researcher also, created a table of specifications including vocabulary learning strategies and goals for each lesson, and then created one set of proficiency tests following this table of test specifications. The researcher derived the difficulty and discrimination of the tests (P-R value) from standard criteria consisting of 30 items. Five experts examined, corrected and improved the accuracy, validity and reliability of the language and contents of the test. The test had a difficulty level between 0.20-0.80 and a rank of discrimination at 0.20 or over. The calculation of the test reliability was used K-R 20 by Kuder-Richardson (Cited Boonriang Khajonsil 2000: 165). Then, the proficiency test was used to sampling of the research.

The Satisfaction Questionnaire

The researcher created a questionnaire to investigate student satisfaction with this type of the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials. The questionnaire was constructed using both closed-end and opened-end questions based on Best (1981: 168-183). The answer to each question was separated into five rating scales as demonstrated by Likert. The rating scales in the questionnaire were

5 refers to strongly agree
4 refers to agree
3 refers to moderate
2 refers to disagree
1 refers to strongly disagree

There were four components of satisfaction which were content, instructional design, teaching-learning activities and evaluation. The data from the experts was applied with the following formula:

$$IOC = \frac{\Sigma R}{N}$$

IOC replaces Index of item-Objective Congruence
R replaces Experts' opinions
N replaces Number of experts

Questions rated less than 0.5 by the experts were considered and improved. The data obtained from a small group experiment was analyzed to find reliability by using α-Coefficient formula stated by Cronbach (1974: 161). Coefficient of reliability was 0.81.

Data Collection

The process of try out

There were three phases of the data collection process on EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials for undergraduate students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, Bangkok.

Phase 1

To apply with one TNI student who was not included in sample in second semester, 2011 academic year. The student had to study EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials and did the 30 multiple choice test items after that. In this phase, the researcher enabled to investigate behavior, listen to the student's point of view as well as question about the problems during tryout both 8 units and the ability test.

The result found that the student who involved in tryout process of EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials for undergraduate students, Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, Bangkok got 64 scores out of 80 from 8 lesson tests which was equal to 80.00%. For the posttest, the student got 25 scores out of 30 which equal to 83.33%. Hence, the effectiveness of EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials for undergraduate students was equivalent to 80.00/83.33. The highest scores were from lesson 3 *Definitions* (90%). On the other hand, the lowest scores were from lesson 7 *Comparisons* (70 %).

Phase 2

To apply with a small group of 9 students, the students had to study EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials and did the 30 multiple choice test items after that. In this phase, the researcher recorded the problems and suggestions in order to improve lessons to be more effective. The students had to do ability posttest which was the same set of ability pretest. The scores derived from each lesson and scores from ability posttest were calculated as 79.16/79.62. It was found that these nine students were able to get 570 scores out of 720 (79.16 %) from lesson tests. For the posttest, the students got 215 scores out of 270 which equal to 79.62%. Hence, the effectiveness of EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials for undergraduate students was equivalent to 79.16/79.62. The highest scores were from lesson 3 *Definitions* (85%). On the other hand, the lowest scores were from lesson 5 *Synonyms* (75 %).

Phase 3

To apply with sampling of 60 students, the students had to study the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials and did the 30 multiple choice test items after that. In this phase, the students had to do ability posttest which was the same set of ability pretest. The time duration was 60 minutes. The researcher, then, analyzed the scores to find out the lesson effectiveness. The scores derived from each lesson and scores from ability posttest were calculated as **80.14/82.94.** It was found that these 60 students were able to get 3,847 scores out of 4,800 (80.14 %) from lesson tests. For the posttest, the students got 1,493 scores out of 1,800 which equal to 82.94%. Hence, the effectiveness of the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials for undergraduate students was equivalent to **80.14/82.94**. The highest scores were from lesson 2 *Suffixes* (88.00%). On the other hand, the lowest scores were from lesson 6 *restatements* (77 %).

Statistic Used in Data Analysis

1. The lesson effectiveness was determined by using E1/E2 formula followed 80/80 criteria.
2. The comparison between the pretest and posttest was done using t-test, which was calculated by SPSS/PC for Windows XP.
3. The F-test was used to measure the students' English reading achievement on pre-reading and post-reading according to students' majors.
4. The data from the questionnaire were rated to find the mean and standard deviation and then translated based on criteria developed by Best (1981) as follows:

$1.00 \le \bar{x} < 1.50$ indicates the lowest satisfaction
$1.50 \le \bar{x} < 2.50$ indicates low satisfaction
$2.50 \le \bar{x} < 3.50$ indicates moderate satisfaction
$3.50 \le \bar{x} < 4.50$ indicates high satisfaction
$4.50 \le \bar{x} \le 5.00$ indicates the highest satisfaction

4. Results

Results of the data analysis

Phase 1: Tests were given to all 60 students after each of the eight units. The statistics used in the data analysis consisted of mean ($\bar{x}$), standard deviation (S.D), percentage and rank order of scores in each unit. The lesson tests got a mean score over 75% for each unit. The highest scores came from lesson 2 *Suffixes* (88.00%), the lowest from lesson 6 *restatements* (77 %).

Phase 2: The comparison of the before and after tests for the 60 students were as follows:

Test	**Number of students**	**Total score**	**($\bar{x}$)**	**S.D**	**($\bar{D}$)**	**t**	**Sig**
Pretest	60	30	8.93	3.72			
					13.82	47.295*	0.000
Posttest	60	30	22.75	5.62			

* *Statistical significance at 0.05 level*

The post-test scores were higher than the pretest scores by 0.05 (Sig = 0.000 < 0.05). The mean score of the posttest was 22.75, higher than the pretest (8.93 out of 30). The difference between the pre-test and post-test scores was 13.82, and for the t-test it was 47.295. Results indicated that students reading ability was improved by the course, affirming hypothesis 2.

Phase 3: The comparison of the before and after test according to gender; male and female.

Test	**Gender**	**n**	**Mean**	**S.D**	**t**	**Sig**
pretest	male	33	8.92	3.55	-.171	0.824
	female	27	8.95	3.89		
posttest	male	33	21.87	5.49	0.257	0.107
	female	27	23.63	5.75		

* *Statistical significance at 0.05 level*

There were no significant differences between male and female students on pretest and posttest proficiency, affirming hypothesis 3.

Phrase 4: The comparison of the before and after test according to majors

Test	**groups**	**SS**	**df**	**MS**	**F**	**sig**
pretest	Between groups	26.235	3	7.362	1.954	.183
	Within groups	531.870	57	4.310		
	Total	372.192	60			
posttest	Between groups	642.444	3	332.621	40.122	.000*
	Within groups	350.400	57	7.931		
	Total	883.733	60			

* *Statistical significance at 0.05 level*

The students with different majors showed statistically significant differences on posttest at .05 level but not significant differences on pretest, affirming hypothesis 4.

Phase 5: The results of the student satisfaction questionnaire were as follows:

The mean scores of all eight units was 4.69 (S.D. =0.59). The highest mean score was on unit 1 ($\bar{x}$ = 4.74, S.D. =0.62). The second highest mean score was on unit 4 ($\bar{x}$ = 4.69, S.D. =0.59). The lowest mean score was on unit 7 ($\bar{x}$ = 4.43, S.D. =0.97). The overall mean score of eight units was 4.69 (S.D.= 0.59). The results indicate high student satisfaction with the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials, affirming hypothesis 5.

5. Discussion

The results of the study indicate:

1. The efficiency of the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials was higher than the determined criteria. This may be on account of following:

1.1 The undergraduate students were taught to analyze critically, and students learnt how to acquire vocabulary on their own, noting that it is "not possible for students to learn all the vocabulary they need in the classroom" Sokmen (1997: 225). Moreover, EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials helped learners develop their own vocabulary learning strategies as "a powerful approach", which can be based on sensitization to the systems of vocabulary, encouragement of sound dictionary skills and reflection on effective learning techniques. In view of the importance of these strategies, it is useful to find out what vocabulary learning strategies are and examine how they help to build up one's vocabulary, and what strategies the textbooks should introduce to learners Cunningsworth (1995: 38).

1.2 The teaching-learning activity in each unit was constructed according to an English vocabulary learning theory developed by Brown and Payne (1994). They identified five steps in the process of learning vocabulary in a foreign language: (a) having sources for encountering new words, (b) getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, of the forms of the new words, (c) learning the meaning of the words, (d) making a strong memory connection between the forms and the meanings of the words, and (e) using the words. Furthermore, researcher started learners with easy activities, progressing to more difficult activities for presentation, and asking question in practice stage to check the students' understanding. In the production stage, the researcher created semantic maps and information charts to help the learners fill in information in the correct way. Consequently, the learners used vocabulary learning strategies to assist in learning comprehension (Schmitt, 2000; Oxford and Scarcella, 1994)

1.3 The course was designed in accordance with experts' views on objective learning, presentation, practice, and production stage. The learners were able to use a vocabulary learning strategy because comprehending textual discourse structures is an important aspect of vocabulary learning abilities (Schmitt, 2007; Coady, 1997).

2. The students' vocabulary learning ability improved at the 0.05 level. This may be accounted for by the learners' satisfaction with, and interest in the required vocabulary learning strategies. Vocabulary learning strategies helped learners acquire the strategies necessary to learn words on their own (Schmitt, 2000). Moreover, Oxford and Scarcella (1994) advocated that the provision of systematic vocabulary instruction to let learner master specific strategies to acquire words even outside their classes.

3. Survey results indicated students were highly satisfied with the course. This seemed to be because they understood and applied vocabulary learning strategies. Results also confirmed statements of the educational theorists, O'Malley & Chamot (1990), who reported that skilled learners tend to keep the meaning of the words in mind, guess the meaning of words, and read with confidence. Moreover, positive thinking created more proficient learners to use a greater variety and often a greater number of vocabulary learning strategies (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996);Oxford &Scarcella, 1994).

6. Conclusion

According to the study and data analysis, the results of this study were as follows.

1. The efficiency of the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials for undergraduate students in this experiment was **80.14/82.94** which was higher than determined criteria (80/80). It was demonstrated that the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials for this group of L2 learners was very effective, confirming hypothesis 1.
2. Ability in English vocabulary learning after learning by this method of instruction was improved at statistical significance at 0.05 level, confirming hypothesis 2.
3. There were no significant differences between male and female students on pretest and posttest proficiency, affirming hypothesis 3.
4. The students with different majors showed statistically significant differences on posttest at .05 level but not significant differences on pretest, affirming hypothesis 4.
5. These L2 learners indicated high satisfaction with the EFL supplementary vocabulary learning materials, confirming hypothesis 5.

7. Acknowledgements

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Using Authentic Materials Based on Communicative Language Teaching to Develop Factory Workers' Basic EFL Literacy at A.I.P. Co.,Ltd.: A Case Study

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to study the effectiveness of using authentic materials through Communicative Language Teaching to develop basic EFL literacy of factory workers at. A.I.P. Co.,Ltd. The convenience sampling was used to recruit 8 factory workers. The instruments used for collecting data were ten lesson plans, a performance-based assessment and an open-ended questionnaire. The analysis of the data presented total raw scores and percentage together with additional analytical descriptions. The findings revealed that the post-test score of all participants were higher than the pre-test score. The highest difference was 17 points or 56.67%. Moreover, the data gained via open-ended questionnaires indicated that participants' attitudes on using authentic materials based on Communicative Language Teaching were positive. In summary, using authentic materials based on Communicative Language Teaching developed basic English abilities of factory workers at A.I.P. and the participants had positive attitudes toward learning English.

Introduction

A.I.P. Company Limited is one of many Thai companies that import products to Thailand. A.I.P. Co., Ltd. is an importer and authorized distributor of superior quality products for the Thai livestock industry. The majority of the imported goods are products for livestock industry such as feed supplements, veterinary drugs, milk products, disinfectants, etc. All of these products are imported from a number of countries including the Netherlands, the U.S.A., Denmark, and Italy.

For over 30 years, A.I.P. has been importing goods in accordance with the following vision: "*Being the leader of supplying livestock products and natural products with international standard services*". This vision was accomplished through a series of four missions; research and development in terms of quality control and in accordance with Good Manufacturing Practice (GMP), Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point (HACCP), and the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), which deals with developing financial stability, expanding their customer base, and continuously developing the potential of employees.

According to the deputy managing director, the factory department required urgently development. The factory section consists of the production, warehouse, and transportation departments. The production department is engaged in manufacturing products in accordance with GMP standards and the acquisition of the HACCP quality system, the warehouse department is responsible for receiving, checking, storing and distributing goods and the transportation department is mainly responsible for customer deliveries.

A.I.P. Co., Ltd. imports a range of products from a number of countries in which English is used as the universal language (Tores, 2003) as well as the language of business (Browne, 2006). Therefore, the English language is used in all aspects of the importing business, including product names, product labels, invoices, technical data sheets, and certificates. These kinds of tasks are part of the everyday work of the factory section, but factory workers generally have a different educational background.

The profile of the factory workers indicates that they are all male. The age range was between 30 to 55 years old. Their levels of education were limited to Prathomsuksa VI and Mathayomsuksa III. The factory workers can barely read and write in the English language. They can only speak one or two words of English, which correspond to the Early Production stage of the five stages of second language acquisition, originally created by Krashen & Terrell (1983). According to the findings of the questionnaire, the factory workers require studying English needed to develop their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, as well as the English required in the workplace and for general topics.

As I have been working as an assistant to the Deputy Managing Director while studying for a Masters Degree in Teaching English as Foreign Language, I was encouraged to teach Basic English to factory workers at A.I.P.

In correspondence with the needs analysis and company policy, the factory workers need to develop many skills in order to cope with the use of the English language in their daily working lives. English is ubiquitous in their workplace, from product names and logos to invoices and certificates of analysis, etc.

Belifore and Burnaby (1995) stated that using material from the workplace is beneficial when teaching Basic English, as material that is relevant to the learners will be more stimulating for them.

According to current research findings, using materials that contain the target language, but are not originally designed for language teaching purposes and taken from real-life situations, can lead to learners developing a variety of English skills. Most researchers use authentic text materials to develop all language skills. For example Thanajaro (2000) used them to develop listening skills. The results of this research indicated that using authentic materials can develop the reading, writing and listening skills of English learners. In addition, there are expansive studies using authentic materials that focus more on participation in class and communication to teach English. Participation in class and using communicative English exercises or activities could increase the listening and reading abilities of students to a higher level, as reflected in the study of Jacobson, 2006.

From the many studies that employed authentic materials mentioned above, it can be concluded that the use of authentic materials to teaching English as Foreign Language can develop a variety of English skills as well as increase the motivation of the learners. This study aims to develop the basic EFL literacy of factory workers in compliance with company policy. As a result, while working as the Assistant to the Deputy Managing Director and studying for my Masters Degree in Teaching English as Foreign Language, I was encouraged to use authentic materials based on communicative language teaching to develop the Basic English skills of factory workers at A.I.P.

Literature Review

1. Authentic materials
2. Basic EFL literacy
3. Communicative Language Teaching

1. Authentic Materials

1.1 Definition of authentic materials.
A definition of authentic materials can be provided by the identification of the authentic materials in question. The initial definition of authentic material is language material that was designed or intended for native speakers of the English language (Widdowson,1990 amd UCLA International Institute, 2009) The definition of authentic materials can be expanded to include elements including the target culture, cultural information and the social purpose of the materials for actual communicative needs. Peacock,1997; Beckman and Kinghammer,2006). Authentic materials that were not specifically created for the purposes of language teaching can include any kind of materials taken from the real world that are used in real life such as newspapers, magazines, catalogs, timetables, films, etc. (Nunan, 1988:1989; Berwald, 1987; Smirnova and Teplyakova, 2006).

According to these definitions, authentic materials include any kind of materials which include target language from the real world which were not originally designed or produced for language teaching, but for actual communication purposes instead.

1.2 Types of authentic materials.
Authentic materials are often associated with newspapers and magazines, but there are a variety of authentic materials from a number of sources. Ellis and Johnson (1994: 161-162) listed the following sources of authentic materials for teaching Business English as follows:

1. Books including correspondence (formal and informal letters, faxes), reports and memos, minutes of meetings, contracts, manuals, written instructions, etc.
2. Public information material comprising all types of materials including documents, brochures, leaflets and video materials, tourist information (maps and lists of restaurants and hotels), timetables, financial and stock exchange information, customs and VAT, etc.
3. Recording live events on audio or video
4.

Gebhard (as cited Oura, 2001) provided examples of authentic materials from the following four sources.

1. Authentic listening and viewing materials including TV commercials, quiz shows, cartoons, news clips, comedy shows, movies, soap operas, professionally audio taped short stories and novels, radio ads, songs, documentaries, and sales pitches.
2. Authentic visual materials including slides, photographs, paintings, children's artwork, stick-figure drawings, wordless street signs, silhouettes, pictures from magazines, ink blots, postcards, pictures, wordless picture books, stamps, and X-rays.
3. Authentic printed materials in the forms of newspaper articles, movie advertisements, astrology columns, sports reports, obituary columns, advice columns, song lyrics, restaurant menus, street signs, cereal boxes, candy wrappers, tourist information brochures, university catalogs, telephone books, maps, TV guides, comic books, greeting cards, grocery coupons, pins with messages, and bus schedules.
4. Realia or real-world objects including coins and currency, folded paper, wall clocks, phones, Halloween masks, dolls and puppets, to name a few.

In addition, authentic materials can be categorized and divided into the following four types: authentic listening or audio, authentic visual materials, authentic printed materials, and authentic multimedia materials.

1.3 Criteria for selection authentic materials.

The criteria for selecting the type or source of authentic materials are generally based on how useful the material is to the learners. The criteria for the selection of authentic materials are suitability in terms of content and level appropriateness, as well as content that stimulates the interest of learners and conforms to the learning purpose. Another consideration is that authentic materials, such as visual or multimedia sources, should be an appropriate length and of adequate quality. (Lynch, n.d.; Kelly et al., 2002; Thompson, 1997; Ellis and Johnson, 1994; Smirnova and Teplyakova, 2006; Fotos and Browne, 2004)

1.4 The significance and advantages of using authentic materials.

There are many advantages to using authentic materials in language teaching.

The prominent point of using authentic materials is that they expose learners to language and connect them to the real world in which genuine language situations occur on a daily basis. Authentic materials also contain complete and meaningful messages which help learners to encounter target language and a variety of authentic materials encourages students to learn more and increases their motivation (Martinez, 2002; Brosnan et al.,1984; Brinton, 1991, Nunan (as cited in Oura, 2001); Melvin and Stout, 1987; Smirnova and Teplyakova (2006).

2. Basic EFL literacy

2.1 Definition of literacy.

Defining 'literacy' is quite difficult as there is no clear or fixed meaning and numerous points of view on what literacy is. However, a simple definition of literacy is "the ability to read and write" (Thomas, 1989). Nevertheless, the definition of literacy varies depending on individual points of view. literacy is four discrete skills; as applied, as practical and situational, as well as a learning process and as text according to UNESCO, 2005). Another approach to defining literacy in the international community is the evolution of literacy from the past to the present.

1950s – 1960s	The "eradication" of literacy
1960s – 1970s	Functional literacy and experimental world literacy program.
1970s	Paulo Freire and literacy as transformative
1980s – 1990s	Reduced Investment and the impact of Jomtien
1990s – Present	Dakar to the present

The definition of literacy from an English language perspective is focused not only on reading and writing skills, but also listening and speaking. The International Reading Association (IRA) and National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) collaborated to provide an expanded definition of literacy in English to include the following elements; reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and visual representative. These are the six skills that students should learn as part of an English language arts course or a standard equivalent.

However, definitions of 'literacy' are currently expanding in accordance with contemporary society and technology. This also influences which skills students should learn and the fact that English proficiency is not limited to the four skills. The International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) (1996) both suggested adding "viewing" and "visual representative" skills as a part of a definition of general literacy.

3. The Communicative Approach

3.1 The communicative language teaching.

There is a number of methods to teaching second or foreign languages, rather than a single 'correct' or ideal teaching methodology (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2005). Communicative Language Teaching emphasizes meaning over form, and fluency over accuracy. However, CLT became widely known and has been developed into Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) in the present day (Nunan, 2003).

Teaching methodologies have been developed from the 1800s up until the present day. These methodologies include the Grammar Translation method, the Direct method, the Structural method, the Reading method, the Audio-lingual method, the Situational method and the Communicative approach. (Richard and Rodgers, 2001)

Language teaching methodology was in relation to various theories, including behaviorism and structural linguistics, and a humanist approach to education. Nunan (2003). However, the Communicative Approach (CA) or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has become the preferred methodology in recent years. The Communicative Approach is a set of principles, including method and syllabus, focusing on meaningful communication and actual use, rather than structure and usage (Jin, 2008). Similarly, the Communicative Approach (CA) is the result of a focus on communication rather than complex grammatical systems. (Richard,2001).

In summary, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a set of principles for teaching methods focused on meaningful communication with an emphasis on meaning and fluency over structure or grammatical systems.

3.2 The characteristics of communicative language teaching.

The prominent characteristics of CLT focus on communication. It consists of using the target language to communicate and interact with people by integrating of various skills, and as a result, the activities and tasks used in learning process should be authentic and meaningful to learners. Rodgers, 2001; Jin, 2008; Chaugule, 2009)

Objective of the Study

The objective of this research was to study the effectiveness of using authentic materials through Communicative Language Teaching to develop the basic EFL literacy of factory workers at A.I.P.

Research Question

To what extent can the use of authentic materials through Communicative Language Teaching develop the basic EFL literacy of factory workers at A.I.P.?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is to provide a guideline for job training courses and staff development in order to improve the performance of factory workers.

Data Procedures

Contents of the study

The contents of the study consisted of authentic materials, based on Communicative Language Teaching, used to develop the basic EFL literacy of A.I.P. factory workers. The authentic materials included product labels, product logos, certificates, websites, etc., which they were familiar with in their daily working lives.

Scope of the Study

This study is based on a case study. The sample group in this study was recruited through convenience sampling. The sample group consisted of 8 A.I.P. employees working in the factory, production, warehouse, and transportation departments.

Population

The population of the study consists of the 13 A.I.P. employees who work in the factory section.

Sample

The sample group of this study includes 8 A.I.P. employees who worked in the factory, production, warehouse, and transportation departments and have been recruited by factory managers. This sample group was recruited by convenience sampling.

Period of time

This study consisted of 20 hours in total; teaching Basic English with 10 lesson plans for 15 hours, a performance assessment of 4 hours and a 1 hour questionnaire on completion of the course.

Research Instruments

1. Ten lesson plans
2. A performance based assessment
3. An open -ended questionnaire after this study.

Data Collection and Analysis

This study began with collecting background knowledge and needs of learners from their profiles, job description, and an open-ended questionnaire. The factory workers were recruited by convenience sampling. The researcher set up a meeting with a sample group in order to inform the objective, procedures, and evaluation of this study. All participants administered testing the pre-test and post-test through a performance assessment, comparisons of the raw score between the pre-test and the post-test, presenting the different scores through percentage were a major part of the data analysis. This was additionally including data individually as description and summary and discussion.

Data analysis

1. Compare the development of factory workers' basic EFL literacy individually before and after studying by comparing the raw scores. The difference of each participant's a pre-test and a post- test will be presented through percentage.
2. Qualitatively analyze factory workers' opinion on teaching basic English by using authentic materials based on communicative language teaching. The method analysis will be based on open-coding system (Strauss and Corbin, 1990)

Research Findings

The purpose of the study was to investigate to what extent the use of authentic materials through Communicative Language Teaching could improve the basic EFL literacy of factory workers at A.I.P. The results are presented as follows:

1. The post-performance scores of all participants were higher than their pre performance scores, after they had been taught with authentic materials through Communicative Language Teaching. The highest difference between pre-test and post-test scores was 17 or 56.67 percent.

Table 1. The Raw Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores of the Factory Workers and the Differences between the Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores

No.	Name	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Score Difference(s)	Percentage of Differences
1	Participant 1	23	30	7	23.33%
2	Participant 2	21	29	8	26.67%
3	Participant 3	16	29	13	43.33%
4	Participant 4	11	28	17	56.67%
5	Participant 5	20	28	8	26.67%
6	Participant 6	19	29	10	33.33%
7	Participant 7	17	28	11	36.67%
8	Participant 8	3	19	16	53.33%

2. The information obtained from the six-question questionnaire revealed that the opinions of the learners regarding studying English using authentic materials through Communicative Language Teaching were positive. They were satisfied with the course and provided positive feedback on studying English with authentic materials through Communicative Language Teaching.

Discussion

The post-test scores of all participants were higher than their pre-test scores, which may indicate that the overall English abilities of the learners developed over the duration of the course. The learners showed the most improvement in their reading and speaking skills. The reading skills of the factory workers were focused on particular product details, including details like the batch number, serial number, date of manufacture or production, and expiry date. On the pre-test, the participants were only able to complete a little information regarding specific product details, but could complete a lot more product detail information following the post-test.

Additionally, the participants' speaking skills improved remarkably over the duration of the course. Most of the participants were unable to speak English before the lessons started. Their vocabulary was mostly limited to short and familiar words like "OK" and "Thank you", and some could introduce themselves in English. Following this study, the participants could speak English in sentences, as well as use it to greet colleagues in their daily working life.

In addition to the improved reading and speaking skills of the participants, they also developed other literacy skills. Most participants were able to use the English alphabet and write company names in English, with only misspellings and other minor errors. However, there were some participants who were unfamiliar with the English alphabet and could only write only a few English letters and words. The results of the post-test also revealed that their ability to spell company names correctly had improved over the duration of the course.

Moreover, the listening skills of the participants improved to the extent that they were familiar enough with the product names to prepare goods or samples for orders. A.I.P. has a wide range of products, resulting in a variety of product names and product information. The listening skills of the participants improved to the extent that they were familiar with the entire product line.

Furthermore, the participants could visually identify product packaging more accurately on completion of the course. They could also apply these skills in their daily working lives, such as accepting goods in the warehouse, checking stock, preparing goods for delivery, etc. Concerning to the study of Thanajaro (2000), using authentic materials to develop listening comprehension. The results revealed that authentic materials could increase self-confidence to listen to the target language and students had positive effect on learning English.

Before the study, only a few of the participants could identify the country of origin of each product. Most of them guessed the answers by matching the country names and product logos on the pre-test. During the course, they learned to visually identify and match the product logos with their countries of origin. The results of the study revealed that their post-test scores was higher than their pre-test scores, and on completion of the course that the participants were able to accurately match product logos and country names.

Therefore, it can be concluded that all of the participants learned English through authentic materials based on Communicative Language Teaching could increase basic Eglis skills. This development was as results of authentic materials were meaningful and containing target language which enhanced all participants understand easier so using authentic materials was beneficial materials for teaching English. Similarly to Belifore and Burnaby (1995), authentic materials from workplace were the beneficial materials for teaching basic English because they were relevant and stimulate for learners.

There are varieties of authentic materials, including printed materials, documents or books, realia, listening and viewing materials, media, etc. All of these could increase learners' motivation in learning. It is supported by the similar idea from Nunan (as cited in Oura, 2001), listening to or reading a variety of authentic materials help to motivate learners and also made important connections between the classroom and the real world. Similarly to Brinton (1991), authentic materials and media helped students to understand the direct relationship between the language classroom and the outside world.

The six-question questionnaire revealed that the 8 participants agreed that using authentic materials could help them to understand basic English, as using authentic materials, which incorporated meaningful information that they were familiar with in their daily working lives. Moreover, authentic materials like product labels, packages and documents also aided the development of various skills including listening, speaking, reading, writing and basic literacy. The participants could also directly apply their literacy skills to their jobs, in tasks such as checking stock, delivering products, and product information, such as the date of manufacture, the expiry date, and packaging. These skills could also help them to avoid making mistakes in English in the workplace.

In addition to using authentic materials, communicative activities also enhanced the learning experience for the participants. The use of activities such as playing guessing games or taking surveys made the classes more enjoyable for the learners. However, their preference for these activities may be indicative of their strong motivation to learn English. It is supported by the similar result of Jacobson (2006), the results of the study revealed that students who participated in classes that include authentic or contextualized materials and activities had started new literacy practices and increased the amount of time they used literacy activities in their daily lives.

Overall, each of the participants agreed that using authentic materials based on Communicative Language Teaching could help them to learn and understand English more easily. The fact that the participants enjoyed the communicative activities led to an improvement in their skills. They also found these activities useful on a practical level as they could also apply their knowledge in their daily working lives.

The Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted as a case study at A.I.P., an import and distribution company, and limited to this context and company. This study was not designed for use in other contexts or with other companies. The content of this study was specifically designed for the participants working in the warehouse, production and transportation departments. These participants also had a limited knowledge of English: they could barely read or write and only say a few basic words in English.

Moreover, the number of participants in his study was limited to only 8 people. It was a small group and therefore easy to prepare sufficient authentic materials for and easy to manage. The classroom environment was also ideal in that company provided adequate equipment to support various types of authentic materials including sound and video clips and meeting room had enough space for a range of communicative activities. The factory area was available to the participants as well, which provided another source of authentic materials. In addition, the researcher is an employee of this company and a colleague of all the participants. This may have influenced the atmosphere of cooperation and positive classroom environment. Despite the fact that the participants respected their teacher and showed enthusiasm in their class work, they were not eager to talk or ask questions outside the classroom.

These are some of factors which may have affected the results of the study, which should be taken into consideration if this research is conducted in a different context or organization. A number of variables, such as the company, the course content, the quantity of participants, the location and the teacher, were all limitations of this study which may cause the results of the study to differ in a different context or company.

Recommendations for further studies

1. Researchers can extend the period of the study
2. Researchers can do additional interviews individually in order to study the opinions of the participants in more depth.

Recommendations for practice

1. If other organizations or companies want to employ this study, the researchers and instructors should modify the course content so that it is appropriate for use in another company or context.
2. If other organizations or companies want to employ this study, the researchers and instructors should modify the course content so that it is appropriate for use in a different types of business discourse.
3. If other organizations or companies want to employ this study, the researchers and instructors should use authentic materials that are relevant to the job descriptions of the participants
4. Other researchers or trainers can also design training courses or packages at range of levels by using authentic materials based on the principles of Communicative Language

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A translation of serial verbs from Thai into English in parallel corpus perspective: A case study of *the Happiness of Kati*

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Abstract

Serial verb is a string of verbs occurring in sequence or serially within a clause. In terms of translation studies, the previous studies were briefly done on techniques of serial verb translation from Thai into English (Decha, 2006), and focused on Thai serial verb constructions with directional verbs in terms of their syntactic and semantic aspects in comparison with their English translations (Sutthichatchawanwong, 2006). Thus, this study was aimed to deeply analyse the strategies of serial verb translation from Thai into English. Unlike the previous studies, literary work was selected. In addition, parallel corpus was used in this study. Both Thai and English versions of The Happiness of Kati were the sampling of this study because they got many awards. Thai version got S.E.A. Write award in 2006 and English version got the second award of John Dryden Translation Competition.

The results showed that the translator used many strategies for translating serial verbs from Thai into English including simple strategies: addition, omission, and adjustment, and complex strategies: omission and addition, and adjustment and omission. The results are useful for translation teachers and translators.

The translation teachers can use these techniques to teach their students. Furthermore, these strategies can help the translators solve their problems when they find Thai serial verbs. In terms of parallel corpus and translation studies, the parallel corpus is useful for translation studies. The further studies should be deeply focused on the similarities and differences of serial verb translation from Thai into English between fiction and nonfiction.

1. Introduction

According to Chuwicha (1993, p. 4), Filbeck (1975, p. 112, cited by Decha 2006, p. 20) serial verb is a string of verbs occurring in sequence or serially within a clause. Many studies were done on syntactic and semantic characteristics of Thai serial verbs (Thepkanjana, 1986; Wilawan, 1993). In terms of translation studies, the previous study was briefly done on techniques of serial verb translation from Thai into English (Decha, 2006). Besides, it was focused on Thai serial verb constructions with directional verbs in terms of their syntactic and semantic aspects in comparison with their English translations (Sutthichatchawanwong, 2006).

Corpus refers to a large collection of authentic texts, either written texts or transcriptions of recorded speech that have been gathered in electronic form according to a specific set of criteria. It is used with concordancing tools which are computer programs to search for words or other linguistic entities in corpora and display them in their context (Bowker & Pearson, 2002, pp. 10-11; Teubert, & Cermakova, 2007, p. 140; Tognini-Bonelli, 2001, p. 2).

In terms of translation studies, parallel corpus, containing original source texts in one language and their translated versions in one or more other languages, was used for analysing translations in many languages such as a pilot study on translation equivalence between English and Spanish (Hernández, 1996, pp. 218-237), and a study on Translation style and ideology: A corpus-assisted analysis of two English translations of Hongloumeng (Li, Zhang, & Liu, 2011, pp. 153-166). In translation strategies from English into Thai and Thai into English, there were a few studies on parallel corpus. The previous studies were focused on the structure of the language such as The strategies of translation in passive voice of literary work from English into Thai (Manomaivibool, 2004; Siriwonkasem, 2006), a study of strategies in translation of adjective-noun collocations from English into Thai (Thanalertkul, 2009), the strategies of translation in passive voice of literary work from Thai into English (Detnaraphan, & Mallikamas, 2008; Rujirawong, 2006), and Thai serial verb constructions with directional verbs in terms of their syntactic and semantic aspects in comparison with their English translations (Sutthichatchawanwong, 2006).

Thus, this study was aimed to deeply analyse the strategies of serial verb translation from Thai into English. Unlike the previous studies, it was focused on literary work. Additionally, A few previous studies were done on the use of parallel corpus in translation studies from Thai into English. Interestingly, parallel corpus was used in this study because of many benefits. According to Manomaivibool (2004, pp. 5-6), it is beneficial for translation studies. Firstly, the researchers can spend less time because they can use the concordancing tool for searching terms, containing source texts and target texts quickly. Secondly, it is the useful tool for doing research systematically because the researchers can use the concordancing tools for searching the desirable structures of the sentence. Thirdly, the concordancing tool helps the researcher know the frequency of search terms quickly. The results of this study are useful for translation teachers, and translators.

2. The concept of serial verbs

Serial verb is Thai characteristic. According to Chuwicha (1993, p. 4), Filbeck (1975, p. 112, cited by Decha 2006, p. 20) serial verb is a string of verbs occurring in sequence or serially within a clause. In a series of verb, a mixture of transitive and intransitive verbs, along with objects and locational nouns are commonly found. In Thai language, serial verb occurs when two or more verbs occur consecutively in a sentenced.

Sutthichatchawanwong (2006) explains about Thai serial verb constructions with directional verbs in terms of their syntactic and semantic aspects in comparison with their English translations. English forms representing serial verb constructions contain single words, phrases, clauses/sentences, and no form. In terms of semantic equivalence, they include the existence of the meaning gain, the meaning loss, the meaning gain and loss, and the equal meaning occurring in the English translations. In addition, no one-to-one correspondence between Thai serial verb constructions with directional verbs and their translations in English.

Decha (2006) cites that translators use many techniques for serial verb translation from Thai into English as illustrated in the following examples.

A. Addition of conjunctions

Source language: หลังจากเสร็จพิธีเย็นวันแรก เช้าวันรุ่งขึ้นให้เด็กอาบน้ำแต่งตัว นุ่งขาวห่มขาว....

Back translation: After the ceremony *of* the first evening, the subject in the next morning takes a bath is dressed in white…

Target language: After the ceremony *of* the first evening, the subject in the next morning takes a bath ***and*** is dressed in white… (Decha, 2006, p., 46, citing Kinnaree Magazine, 1997, April)
This example showed that "and" was added in the target text between two actions; taking a bath and getting dress. However, in Thai version, the conjunction "and" did not exist between the verbs อาบน้ำ 'takes a bath' and แต่งตัว 'is dressed'. The addition of conjunction in this example was because of serial verb which was a significant characteristic of Thai language. Decha (2006, p.) 46) explains that since verbs in English cannot occur consecutively, it is necessary that the translator makes an adjustment by adding a conjunction to separate the two actions.

B. Omission of one or two verbs

Decha (2006, p. 55) cites that the translators omit one or two verbs of serial verb construction and translate only one verb that gives the clearest meaning or shows actual action as shown in the following example.
Source language: สมัยก่อนเมื่อมีการซื้อข้าวเปลือก เจ้าของโรงสีหรือพ่อค้าจะไปรับซื้อข้าวเปลือกจากชาวนาถึงยุ้งฉาง

Back translation: In olden days, when owners of rice mills or traders ***went received*** ***bought*** paddy from farmers at their barns, …

Target language: In olden days, when owners of rice mills or traders ***bought*** paddy from farmers at their barns, … (Decha, 2006, p. 55, citing Kinnaree Magazine, 2004, February)

This example indicated that there were three verbs in the Thai version including: ไป "to go", รับ "to receive" and ซื้อ "to buy". The translator translate only one verb that is the verb "ซื้อ" or to buy. Decha (2006, p. 55) explains that he selected verb is necessary since its action is more important than the other two and the loss of this verb will greatly affect the meaning of the target language. In this example, a real intention of the rice mills' owners or traders when going to the barns is to "buy" the rice. If the translator chooses to translate the verb "to go", the readers will not understand why the owners or traders have to go there. Similarly, if the verb "to receive" is translated, the readers will not get an idea of the rice being sold and the process of selling rice in the old day which is the main idea of this article.

3. Research Methodology

Both Thai and English versions of The Happiness of Kati were the sampling of this study due too many awards. Thai version written by Jane Vejjajiva got S.E.A. Write award in 2006. English version translated by Prudence Borthwick got the second award of John Dryden Translation Competition by British Comparative Literature Association. In terms of parallel corpus compilation, the contents of these books were put in the table in the sentential alignment by using Microsoft Word 2007. This table contained two main columns: the left column including Source language in Thai and the right column including target language in English. After that, the source language was tagged for serial verb construction by putting <serial verb construction> before serial verbs and </serial verb> after serial verbs. Then, two new electronic text files were created by using Notepad. The source language in the left column was copied and pasted in the first text file and the target language in the right column was copied and pasted in the other text file. ParaConc was used for uploading files and searching terms.

In terms of verb categorization, Miller's, Beckwith's, Fellbaum's, Gross's, & Miller's (1993) and Sutthichatchawanwong's (2006) ideas were adapted in this work. Miller & others (1993) divided verbs into many types based on semantic aspect: verb of function and care such as shilver, and ache; verb of change including Modify, turn, and alter; verb of communication containing order, and question; competition verb such as fight, and race; consumption verb containing eat, and drink; contact verb including scrup, and gasp; cognition verb consisting of reasoning, and understanding; creation verb including Invent, and bake, motion verb and action verb such as shake, twist, Walk, and run; Emotion verb containing Fear, love, and amuse; stative verb including Doing, having; perception verb such as see, sniff, and hear; verb of possession containing give, and receive; Verb of social interaction such as Quarrel; weather verb such as Rain, and snow.

Sutthichatchawanwong defines directional verb as a verb in which its core concept associates with path and direction of motion. This verb can co-occur with other lexical verbs to denote additional information to the main verb in a construction. There are many directional verbs in Thai such as ไป "go", มา "come", เข้า "enter" (in), ออก "exit" (out), ขึ้น "ascend" (up), and ลง "descend" (down).

4. Results of the study

The results showed simple and complex strategies as mentioned below.

4.1 Simple strategies
Simple strategy contained only one strategy as shown in the following examples.

4.1.1 Addition
The techniques of addition consisted of three main types as discussed below.

A. Addition of conjunctions

Example 1
Source language: ลมพัดฉิว เสื้อผ้า***โบก (waved) สะบัด (shook)*** ตามแรงลม

Back translation: The wind blew, and the clothes ***waved shook*** with the wind,

Target language: The wind blew, and the clothes ***waved and shook*** with the wind,

As shown in this example, Thai serial verbs included "waved", and "shook". The conjunction "and" was added in the target language in order to show the series of action.

B. Addition of prepositions

Example 2
Source language: ตอนเย็นเมื่อกลับถึงบ้าน กะทิล้างปิ่นโตและ***วาง (placed) คว่ำ (drain)*** ไว้ที่อ่างในครัว
Back translation: In the afternoon, when Kati got home from school, she washed her lunch container and ***placed*** the sections ***drain*** in a basin in the kitchen.

Target language: In the afternoon, when Kati got home from school, she washed her lunch container and ***placed*** the sections ***to drain*** in a basin in the kitchen.

This example showed two Thai verbs: "placed", and "drained". The preposition "to" was added in order to show the purpose of the action.

C. Addition of conjunctions and prepositions

Example 3

Source language: ส่วนน้ำดื่มนั้นพิเศษสุด ตั้งไว้ใต้รางน้ำฝน เอาไว้***ต้ม (boiled) ใส่ขวด (decanted)*** ดื่ม (drunk) ***ดับ (quenched)*** กระหาย (krahai)

Back translation: As for the jar that held the drinking water, that was the most special. It went under the rain pipe, and the water in it was then ***boiled, decanted into bottles, drunk quenchd your thirst***.

Target language: As for the jar that held the drinking water, that was the most special. It went under the rain pipe, and the water in it was then ***boiled, decanted into bottles, and drunk to quench your thirst***.

As illustrated in this example, it included four Thai verbs: "boiled", "decanted", "drunk", and "quenched". Both "and" and "to" were added in order to show the series of action and the purpose of the action.

4.1.2 Omission

The results showed many types of omission as illustrated in the examples below.

A. Omission of directional verbs

Example 4

Source language: และ "หรู" สุด ๆ คือลวดลายบนปิ่นโตที่***เปิด (would open) ออก (exit)*** ก็จะเป็นข้าวสวยร้อน ๆ แกงจืดควันกรุ่น และอาหารนานาชาติที่ปิ่นโตอื่นไม่อาจรู้ได้ เพราะไม่เคยมีโอกาสได้เสวนากับปิ่นโตหรูสักครั้ง

Back translation: Flash were the embossed designs on that lunch container, which ***would open, exit*** to reveal piping hot rice, steaming clear broth, and exotic dishes the other lunch containers never knew about because they never had the chance to discuss these things with the flash lunch container.

Target Language: Flash were the embossed designs on that lunch container, which ***would open*** to reveal piping hot rice, steaming clear broth, and exotic dishes the other lunch containers never knew about because they never had the chance to discuss these things with the flash lunch container.

This example revealed Thai serial verbs: "would open" and "exit". Exit was omitted in order to show the clearest meaning of the target language.

B. Omission of action verbs

Example 5

Source language: เด็ก ๆ ***เอา***ปิ่นโต***ไป (brought) วาง (put) เรียง (arranged)*** ในโรงอาหารก่อนเอากระเป๋าหนังสือไปเก็บในห้องเรียน

Back translation: The children ***brought, put, arranged*** their lunch containers in the dining hall before putting their bags away in the schoolrooms.

Target language: The children ***put*** their lunch containers in the dining hall before putting their bags away in the schoolrooms.
As illustrated in this example, Thai serial verbs contained “brought”, “put”, and “arranged”. Two verbs: “brought”, and “arranged” were omitted in order to show the clearest meaning in the English translated version.

C. Omission of action verbs and directional verbs

Example 6
Source language: ค่ำ ๆ ค่อยมาเช็ดให้สะอาดอีกทีแล้ว***ยก (raise) ไป (go) วาง (put)*** ข้างเตาใกล้มือยายตอนเช้า

Back translation: Later, in the evening, she would dry them and ***raise, go, put*** them by the stove, handy for Grandma in the morning.
Target language: Later, in the evening, she would dry them and ***put*** them by the stove, handy for Grandma in the morning.
This example showed Thai serial verbs: “raise”, “go”, and “put”. Two verbs: “raise” and “go” were omitted in order to show the clearest meaning in the translated version.

4.1.3 Adjustment
This technique included alteration from verbs to present participals and verbs to nouns as mentioned below.

A. Alteration from verbs to present participles

Example 7
Source language: นาทีนั้นยายจะเปิดประตูห้องนอนเข้ามาและ***นอน (lie down) กอด (hold)*** กะทิไว้จนหลับไป ด้วยกันถึงเช้า

Back translation: Grandma would open the bedroom door and come **to *lie*** down, to ***hold*** Kati in her arms until they both feel asleep till morning.
Target language: Grandma would open the bedroom door and come to ***lie*** down, ***holding*** Kati in her arms until they both feel asleep till morning.
As shown in this example, Thai serial verbs included “lie down” and “hold”. The verb “hold” was changed to present participal, “holding” in order to show the series of action.

B. Alteration from verbs to nouns

Example 8
Source language: ตาไม่หยุดแวะพัก แต่***ร้อง (called) ทักทาย (greeted)*** ทุกคนที่เห็น

Back translation: Grandpa didn’t stop and rest but ***called, greeted*** to all the people he saw.
Target language: Grandpa didn’t stop and rest but ***called greetings*** to all the people he saw.
As illustrated in this example, Thai serial verbs contained “called” and “greeted”. The verb “greeted” was changed to noun “greetings” in order to show the series of action.

4.2 Complex strategies

The complex strategies contained more than one strategy as shown in the following examples.

4.2.1 Omission and addition

Example 9

Source language: เมื่อตอนสายยาย***แกงหมูเทโพหม้อโต (had made a big pot of pork curry) ไป (gone) ถวายเพล (offered the monks for the meal they took before noon)***

Back translation: Earlier that morning Grandma ***had made a big pot of pork curry, gone, offered the monks for the meal they took before noon***, their last meal for the day.
Target language: Earlier that morning Grandma ***had made a big pot of pork curry to offer the monks for the meal they took before noon***, their last meal for the day.
This example contained Thai serial verbs including "had made", "gone", and "offered". The verb "gone" was omitted in order to show the clearest meaning of the target language. In addition, the conjunction "to", was added in order to show the purpose of the action.

4.2.2 Adjustment and omission

Example 10

Source language: ตา***นั่ง (was sitting) อ่าน (reading)*** หนังสือพิมพ์***รอ (waiting)*** อยู่แล้วกับถาดอาหารเหมือนเคย

Back translation: Grandpa ***was*** already ***sitting***, ***reading*** his newspaper, ***waiting*** there as always.
Target language: Grandpa ***was*** already ***waiting*** there—***reading*** his newspaper, as always.
In this example, it contained Thai serial verbs: "was sitting", "reading", and "waiting". The verb "sitting" was omitted and the position was changed from "reading and waiting" to "waiting and reading". These strategies helped the readers understand the meaning of the translated version more clearly.

4. Conclusion and discussion

This study was aimed to analyse the strategies of serial verb translation from Thai into English. Parallel corpus was used in this study. Both Thai and English versions of The Happiness of Kati were the sampling of this study because they got many awards. Thai version got S.E.A. Write award in 2006 and English version got the second award of John Dryden Translation Competition.

The results showed that the translator used many strategies for translating serial verbs from Thai into English including simple strategies and complex strategies. Simple strategies contained addition such as addition of conjunctions, addition of prepositions, and addition of conjunctions and prepositions, omission including omission of directional verbs, omission of action verbs, and omission of action verbs and directional verbs, and adjustment such as alteration from verbs to present participals and verbs to nouns. Complex strategies included omission and addition, and adjustment and omission.

The results of this study confirm the results of previous study. Like Decha's (2006) work, the translator in this study used addition and omission for serial verb translation from Thai into English. Thus, both addition and omission are found in both fiction and nonfiction translation from Thai into English.

These results are useful for translation teachers and translators. The translation teachers can use these techniques to teach their students. Furthermore, these strategies can help the translators solve their problems when they find Thai serial verbs.

In terms of parallel corpus and translation studies, the author agree to the previous study that the parallel corpus is benefit tool for translation studies. The researchers can use concordancing tool to search terms quickly. Besides, it helps the researcher know the frequency of search terms quickly. In addition, parallel corpus is Useful tool for doing research systematically.

The further studies should be deeply done on the similarities and differences of serial verb translation from Thai into English between fiction and nonfiction.

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Rhetorical Visions of Territorial Sovereignty: An Application of Structural Concepts of Symbolic Convergence Theory in Maritime Disputes Between Asia Pacific Nations

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Abstract

This article applies concepts of Symbolic Convergence Theory (Bormann, 1972) to recent maritime disputes involving a number of Asia Pacific countries. This looks at how the collective words and actions of politicians, military officials, and activists that are found in the media lead to the evolution of rhetorical visions of how each stakeholder group gives meaning and associates emotions and motives to the territorial conflicts. My objective is to look for clues on the existence of rhetorical visions created as a result of these recent symbolic events. From online media sources I obtained quotations and statements made by government officials, military officers and observers. I applied the data to the structural elements that comprise a rhetorical vision, namely, dramatis personae, plot line, scene, sanctioning agent, and rhetorical vision master analogues (Cragan & Shields, 1996). My findings suggest that there are existing rhetorical visions that have yet to be identified and recognized.

Keywords : Symbolic Convergence Theory, Fantasy Theme, Rhetorical Vision, Maritime Disputes, Asia Pacific**,** Symbolic Reality

Background

In the middle of 2012 a series of events involving maritime disputes over lands and sea would erupt almost simultaneously in the fast growing region of the Asia Pacific. A handful of Chinese commercial vessels and a Philippine Navy ship were caught in a standoff over a group of islets called the Scarborough Shoal on April. The stalemate, a symptom of ongoing disputes over ownership of the maritime area, would last for at least months. Manila has attempted to take the case to the international court, citing the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Seas (UNCLOS) and has called for multilateral dialogue with Beijing that includes other ASEAN claimants. Beijing has refused and has insisted on a bilateral approach. To stress its sovereignty claims the Philippine government renamed a part of the South China Sea as the West Philippine Sea. Beijing and Taipei would dismiss Manila's move, with both saying the designation did not affect their own sovereignty claims. Vietnam has also had similar disputes with China which reached its climax during the Sino-Vietnamese War in the 1970s.

Months later the President of South Korea made a visit to the Dokdo (Korean designation) / Takeshima (Japanese designation) islets which sparked a formal protest from the Japanese Government. The South Korean president also demanded that the Japanese emperor apologize for the country's 35-year colonial ruling over Korea. His comment, coupled with his recent visit to Seoul's easternmost islets of Dokdo, fueled anti-Korean sentiments in Japan and triggered a number of protests. While Tokyo has tried to take the case to the international court, Seoul refused arguing that there is no territorial dispute since it claims the islands belong to South Korea. The increasingly bitter diplomatic row had prompted the two Asian neighbors to wage advertising campaigns at home and abroad in the following months, promoting their respective claims on the islands. In a separate but related incident a Japanese man, member of an ultra-right Japanese party, allegedly put a wooden post with a phrase claiming Japan's sovereignty over the islets next to a monument commemorating a Korean independence fighter, located in Kanazawa of Ishikawa Prefecture on September. Three more Japanese men also placed poles with slogans claiming the islets as Japanese territory outside the Northeast Asian History Foundation in Seoul.

Japan and China would also be entangled in another separate dispute over the Senkaku (Japanese designation) / Diaoyu (Chinese designation) group of islands after some Chinese activists landed on the islands and were arrested by the Japanese Coast Guard for planting Chinese and Taiwanese flags. It would take only a week for a group of Japanese citizens to land on the same islands and place the Japanese flag in response.

In early September, Japan's government bought the same Senkaku/Diaoyu islands from its Japanese owners. While seen by many as an attempt by the Noda administration to head off a plan by the Tokyo governor Shintaro Ishihara to purchase the islands, the Chinese reaction was furious. It sent patrol boats towards the islands which are controlled by Japan. Later that same month the State Council Information Office published a white paper on Diaoyu Dao, which presented arguments to claim the islands as inherent territory of China. It called "Japan's occupation of Diaoyu Dao during the Sino-Japanese War in 1895 is illegal and invalid…(and that) Japan has repeatedly stirred up troubles on the issue of Diaoyu Dao." Then, in October three Japanese members of a Taiwanese symphony orchestra were denied visas ahead of a concert tour of the Chinese mainland.

China and South Korea have likewise had their troubles. A Chinese fisherman was killed when the South Korean Coast Guard raided their boat in mid October. Some 300 Chinese fishing boats have been spotted by the Coast Guard in Year 2012 alone in what Seoul calls "illegal fishing" and "intrusion" into their exclusive economic zone. Since 2001 over 4,600 Chinese boats have been seized according to South Korea's Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries. Korean Coast Guard officers have also lost their lives in the past during confrontations with Chinese fishing boats. In October, both countries avoided adding to the tension over China's plan to dispatch a drone to inspect another area called Leodo after Beijing notified Seoul that the aircraft was intended not for any jurisdiction claim but only for surveillance purposes.

These events have added fuel to the fire of already existing fantasy themes among the Chinese and Koreans due to past Japanese colonialisation, and concerns among Filipinos, Japanese, and Vietnamese over what they see as a more aggressive, assertive Chinese superpower.

While reading and watching the news I wondered what these events meant to the participants, whether they physically participated (the protesters or those who sailed to the islets) or were engaged in discussions. Of particular interest to me are the symbolic meanings shared by the participants. I first turned to Burke's theory of Dramatism and Fisher's Narrative Paradigm (Wood, 2004), but after pouring through those articles I found the presence of common, recurring themes that were being repeated in statements by different people. This led me to the search for fantasy themes and ultimately to Bormann's ideas on symbolic convergence.

Literature

Symbolic Convergence Theory (SCT) started as a message-centered theory. It has its roots in Ernest Bormann's fantasy theme analysis which he used to study communication in small groups. He proposed that there is "a link between the dramatic imagery members use when they talk to each other and the degree of group consciousness and solidarity (Griffin, 2003)." When individuals share common fantasies, they become a cohesive group, and Bormann calls this phenomenon symbolic convergence.

Over time it evolved into a general theory of communication. SCT has been found to share similarities with discourse. Its aim is to understand how a group of people enter into a collective consciousness to share meaning, emotion and motive for action. It explains how people come together to share a common symbolic reality (Cragan & Shields, 1996). It looks at how people from different eras and places are able to experience an event in the same way. In SCT, meaning is found in the message, which contrasts with the neo-Aristotelian proposition and that of others. The theory contains six epistemological assumptions (Bormann, 1972): (1) Meaning, emotion, and motive for action are the manifest content of a message; (2) Reality is created symbolically; (3) Fantasy theme chaining creates symbolic convergence that is dramatistic in form; (4) Fantasy Theme Analysis is the basic method to capture symbolic reality; (5) Fantasy themes occur in and chain out from all discourse.

Fantasy themes (Cragan & Shields, 1996) are employed to analyze symbolic realities. Fantasy themes can shape a common experience of a group of people into a symbolic reality. The contributions of people, either through words or actions, form this symbolic reality into a composite drama called a rhetorical vision. A rhetorical vision is formed when a "set of integrated fantasy themes is voiced repeatedly across many groups (Griffin, 2003)" and is therefore used to analyze symbolic realities that involve much larger populations. It can be spread and reinforced through the media. Such rhetorical visions can be found in various contexts including territorial conflict between nations.

Method

The artifacts I used in this study are made of quotes and excerpts from articles found on online newspapers based in China, Japan, the Philippines, South Korea, and Vietnam. The articles date from the months of July till October, 2012. I collected a total of 64 articles, some 44 quotes and phrases from a total of 29 different websites (some articles on a number of online newspapers were from news wire agencies such as Reuters, Associated Press, Agence France-Presse, Yonhap, and Xinhua).

Findings

Five main elements that comprise a rhetorical vision (Cragan & Shields, 1996) include dramatis personae, plot line, scene, sanctioning agent, and the three master analogues. From the quotes and phrases we can extract ideas that can then be applied to the structural concepts.

Dramatis personae are the characters portrayed in messages that make a rhetorical vision seem real. There could be heroes, villains and supporting players. From the Chinese and South Korean side, the Japanese are portrayed as unrepentant, former imperialists who are violating their sovereignty. The Japanese are depicted as villains.

“Any claim by Japan toward the Dokdo islands is seen like an invasion and reminds Koreans of Japanese colonial rule,’ said Professor Hyun.
“Japan cannot solve its territorial disputes with China over the Diaoyu Islands without thorough and critical examination of its aggression during World War II, German broadcaster Deutschlandradio said in a commentary over the weekend.”
“Japan’s territorial claim to Dokdo has been viewed by South Koreans as a sign Tokyo has not fully repented for its imperialist past.”
“South Koreans see those claims as amounting to denying Korea's rights because the country regained independence from the 1910-45 Japanese colonial rule and reclaimed sovereignty over its territory, which includes Dokdo and many other islands around the Korean Peninsula.”

Seoul expressed displeasure Thursday over visits by Japanese politicians to a controversial war shrine in Tokyo, calling the act “extremely regrettable” and demanding its neighbor face up to its past atrocities…The visits “are not considerate of the feelings of the people of neighboring countries that suffered from Japan’s imperialism” and are “extremely regrettable” foreign ministry spokesman Cho Tae-young said during a briefing. “We urge the responsible Japanese politicians to sincerely face up to history.”

Specifically, the Japanese Prime Minister, his government, and a number of so-called right-wing Japanese activists are given mention as the propagators of the wrongful acts.

”Japanese right-wing activists illegally entered waters around China's **Diaoyu Islands** on Wednesday, as Tokyo winked at such provocative moves that have sent China-Japan ties to new lows.”
“We strongly protest Prime Minister Noda’s reiteration of an unjust claim over Dokdo that is clearly our territory historically, geographically and under international law. We urge an immediate withdrawal,” Seoul’s Foreign Ministry spokesperson Cho Tai-young told a press conference.
“At a time when the two sides should step up negotiations, the Japanese government's connivance in domestic rightist extremism is further complicating the already serious situation.”

The Chinese also depict the Philippines and Vietnam as villains in its messages.

“’China now faces a whole pack of aggressive neighbors headed by Vietnam and the Philippines and also a set of menacing challengers headed by the United States, forming their encirclement from outside the region,’ wrote Xu Zhirong, a deputy chief captain with China Marine Surveillance, in the June edition of China Eye, a publication of the Hong Kong-based China Energy Fund Committee.”

The editorial (China Daily, 25 July) criticizes Philippines President Benigno Aquino III for calling Huangyan Island, also known as the Scarborough Reef, “the backyard” of the Philippines. It says Aquino “should be aware of one basic fact: The Philippines' sovereignty claim to parts of the South China Sea and Huangyan Island has no historical and legal support. ..“The Philippines must be cautious while making choices among the three options,” the short and direct editorial says. “It concerns one island of China, but the future of the Philippines.”

Chinese officials have also accused the United States of being a meddler in regional affairs. They see America as one who is taking the side of China’s rivals.

“Since the establishment of Sansha, *‘the US government and several politicians have repeatedly made irresponsible remarks on the issue, reflecting Washington's attempts to meddle in Asian affairs,*’ China’s state-run news agency Xinhua said…China accuses the US of trying to isolate it from neighboring nations. *‘The US selectively takes sides in these disputes. By doing so, Washington intends to alienate China from countries around the South China Sea,*’ Xinhua reported.”

From the Japanese side, they see China and South Korea as the ones who are causing trouble.
“Fujisaki downplayed speculation that the row and the island dispute with South Korea could flare into full-blown conflicts, saying: ‘That's not going to happen, that should not happen…This is not started by us — by Japan — and we have a good historical and legal position…However, our position is very clear — we are not going to raise tension and try to take it up emotionally. We would like to calmly deal with this.’"

Some Japanese protested over statements made by the South Korean President which they found as insulting to the Japanese Emperor.

The protesters shouted “Takeshima is Japanese territory,” “South Korean president should apologize to the emperor,” “Sever diplomatic ties.”
Plot line details the actions committed in a rhetorical vision. Each country accuses the other of violating their sovereign rights. Vietnam media said of China:

“On October 11 Vietnamese Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman Luong Thanh Nghi said China’s acts violated Vietnam’s sovereignty over the Hoang Sa and Truong Sa archipelagos as well as international law and the agreement on basic principles guiding the settlement of sea-related issues between Vietnam and China signed in October 2011.”
“The Chinese actions seriously violated Viet Nam's sovereignty according to international law and the agreement on basic principles guiding the settlement of sea-related issues between Viet Nam and China signed in October 2011, Nghi stressed.”

The Chinese made very similar comments about its neighbors.

“Less than two weeks after the conference in Bali, the People's Daily, the official newspaper of China's Communist Party, published a front-page commentary that accused the Philippines of violating China's territorial sovereignty by building a military shelter on one of the disputed Spratly Islands. The article ended with a harsh warning: ‘Those who make serious strategic misjudgments on this issue will pay the appropriate price.’"
"It is obvious the Philippine side has not realized that it is making serious mistakes and is stepping up efforts to escalate tensions instead,’ Ms. Fu said in a statement on the website of China's Foreign Ministry. ‘It is hoped that the Philippine side will not misjudge the situation and not escalate tensions without considering the consequences.’"
“Japan's current move of making provocations and denying the existence of the disputes will not only harm bilateral relations, but also hurt Tokyo's long-term interests, Cui warned, adding Japan's attempt is a one-sided wish and destined to failure.”
“Japan's follow-up measures of illegal "nationalization" of China's Diaoyu Islands are clear. On the one hand, Japan tries to institutionalize its occupation of the Diaoyu Islands through state apparatus. On the other hand, Japan attempts to distort the fact and seek for international support by internationalizing the Diaoyu Islands issue.”

Chinese media accused Japanese of entering their water illegally:

”Japanese right-wing activists illegally entered waters around China's **Diaoyu Islands** on Wednesday, as Tokyo winked at such provocative moves that have sent China-Japan ties to new lows.”

The Philippine government made certain moves stressing that the country was protecting its territory.

“On July 23, Aquino publicly confirmed his government was going to purchase military attack helicopters to beef up its maritime combat capabilities in the region...’If someone enters your yard and told you he owns it, will you allow that? It’s not right to give away what is rightfully ours,’ he said.”
“The Philippine Navy has dismantled another illegal structure near the Kalayaan Islands just off Palawan province…(We will) improve our capability to defend our territory so we can call those areas as our own,’ Sabban said.”

Scene refers to the location of the actions. The involved nations accuse each other of conducting activities in their rightful territories. They would label such acts as illegal or wrong. The Vietnamese said about the Chinese establishing a new city in the disputed area:

“Following a series of illegal activities, including building and developing the so-called ‘Sansha city’, China held a flag raising ceremony to mark its National Day on Phu Lam island in the Hoang Sa archipelago on October 1.’”

China and Taiwan made a similar complaint when the Philippines renamed a part of the area it claims under its territory:

“China's foreign ministry spokesman Hong Lei told reporters: ‘The act by the Philippines cannot in the least way change the fact that China has indisputable sovereignty over the islands in the South China Sea and adjacent waters…In Taipei, the foreign ministry said in a statement that Taiwan ‘does not recognise this unilateral move that will provoke disputes and sternly reaffirms its territorial claim’ to the sea.”

Japan protested over the South Korean President’s visit to the Takeshima/Dokdo islets:

“Earlier in the day Japan’s lower house adopted a resolution calling for an end to Seoul’s ‘illegal occupation.’ The lawmakers criticized President Lee Myung-bak’s trip to Dokdo on Aug. 10 and his demand for Emperor Akihito’s apology for Japan’s colonial atrocities…During the House session, Noda also branded Lee’s visit an ‘illegal landing.’”

The Chinese likewise indicated its spat with Japan was becoming a dangerous situation:

“This is now a very serious and dangerous game of chicken between China and Japan,’ says Zhu Jian Rong, a Chinese expert on East Asia relations, speaking in Tokyo on Tuesday. ‘It’s like a war situation, where neither side can show any weakness or compromise.’”

A *sanctioning agent* functions to legitimize the symbolic reality. It serves to justify and continue the rhetorical vision. A commonly found message in both Chinese and Japanese rhetoric is their reference to the islands as historically belonging to their country.
“In response to the formal protest from the Japanese government, a spokesperson of China's Foreign Ministry said: ‘The Diaoyu island and its affiliated islands have been China's inherent

territory since ancient times. Chinese Fishery Administration Vessels patrolled the waters to maintain normal orders of fishery production.'"
"Legally, historically, those islands are under Japanese sovereignty,' said Kawamura, deputy chief of mission at Japan's consulate general in New York. 'There is no question about it,' he said."
"Yoo Gwang-un, a Korean historian based in the U.S., said, 'The document shows that it is not true that Japan has claimed its sovereignty over Dodko since 1905 and that the U.S. did not acknowledged it at that time.'"

The Philippine government renamed its part of the South China Sea as the West Philippine Sea and stated that it has the right to name its territory:

"The President has also signed Administrative Order (AO) No. 29 'naming the West Philippine Sea of the Republic of the Philippines.'…The AO justifies ownership over 'maritime areas on the western side of the Philippine archipelago...These areas include the Luzon Sea as well as the waters around, within and adjacent to the Kalayaan Island Group and Bajo De Masinloc, also known as Scarborough Shoal.'"

The *three master analogues* are the righteous, social and pragmatic. The *righteous master analogue* establishes whether something is right or wrong, just or unjust, moral or immoral. The Philippine President asserted his country's right to have its share of territory as only just:

"I do not think it excessive to ask that our rights be respected, just as we respect their rights as a fellow nation in a world we need to share,' Aquino said, referring to China."

Chinese officials have condemned the Philippine's activities as a mistake, a violation of laws, and a misjudgment:
"It is obvious the Philippine side has not realized that it is making serious mistakes and is stepping up efforts to escalate tensions instead,' Ms. Fu said in a statement on the website of China's Foreign Ministry. 'It is hoped that the Philippine side will not misjudge the situation and not escalate tensions without considering the consequences.'"
"Thus, Philippines does not merely abuse UNCLOS in this regard, its claim also 'represents a violation of the fundamental principle of the inviolability of territorial sovereignty enshrined in the UN Charter,' Zhang (Chinese embassy spokesperson) said…'Clearly, the Philippines here has misinterpreted and misapplied UNCLOS on the basis of its own interests, which is contrary to international law and to UNCLOS,' Zhang said."

The *social master analogue* stresses on human relations such as family ties, friendship, trust, or humaneness. South Korean officials have denounced Japan for being inconsiderate of the sentiments of its former colonies:

"Seoul expressed displeasure Thursday over visits by Japanese politicians to a controversial war shrine in Tokyo, calling the act 'extremely regrettable' and demanding its neighbor face up to its past atrocities…The visits "are not considerate of the feelings of the people of neighboring countries that suffered from Japan's imperialism' and are 'extremely regrettable' foreign ministry spokesman Cho Tae-young said during a briefing. 'We urge the responsible Japanese politicians to sincerely face up to history.'"

Chinese media accused Japan of not being cooperative and harming negotiation efforts:

“At a time when the two sides should step up negotiations, the Japanese government's connivance in domestic rightist extremism is further complicating the already serious situation.”
“Japan's current move of making provocations and denying the existence of the disputes will not only harm bilateral relations, but also hurt Tokyo's long-term interests, Cui (Chinese official) warned, adding Japan's attempt is a one-sided wish and destined to failure.”

The South Korean President lectured the Japanese on relations:

“Korea and Japan should solidify the foundation for the development of their partnership with the courage and wisdom to confront history and sincere actions underpinning it,’ Lee (South Korean President) said in a congratulatory address.”

A South Korean official labeled Japanese as not being educated properly on history:

"This is because (Japan) did not properly educate (its people) about history,’ he said. ‘After all, it is a matter to be resolved when Japan teaches correct history.’"

The *pragmatic master analogue* looks at utility, practicality, or cost effectiveness. The Chinese depict the Philippines as making a risky move by making its claims to the Scarborough Shoal. It gives an indirect warning to the Philippines for challenging them:

“The editorial (China Daily, 25 July) criticizes Philippines President Benigno Aquino III for calling Huangyan Island, also known as the Scarborough Reef, ‘the backyard’ of the Philippines. It says Aquino ‘should be aware of one basic fact: The Philippines' sovereignty claim to parts of the South China Sea and Huangyan Island has no historical and legal support…’The Philippines must be cautious while making choices among the three options,’ the short and direct editorial says. ‘It concerns one island of China, but the future of the Philippines.’”

A Chinese military official accused its neighbors of staking their claims only recently when the areas where believed to have natural resources:

"Relevant countries did not begin to lay claim to islands and sea waters in the area until the discovery of large amounts of oil and gas reserves in the South China Sea,’ he said.”

Japanese officials have expressed how important it was for them to maintain security in the area:
“Foreign Minister Matsumoto stated in the Diet, ‘Japan has a great interest in the territorial disputes in the South China Sea because they could have an impact on peace and security of the Asia-Pacific region, and they are also closely related to safeguarding the security of maritime traffic.’"
“Foreign Minister Koichiro Gemba on Friday vowed continued dialogue with China over a blistering territorial dispute, but warned there were limits on how far Tokyo would go to compromise…Gemba added: ‘It’s not easy. The important thing is that we cannot give over what we cannot give over.’”

Some Japanese observers had suggested a cautionary approach to engaging in diplomacy with China:

"Dealing with China requires deft diplomacy. It cannot be a straightforward approach, something the DPJ has so far failed to grasp."

South Korean officials have branded Japan’s claims to the islets as unjust and bad for relations:

"I'd like to emphasize again that Japan must not damage Korea-Japan relations and public sentiment by repeating its unjust claim to Dokdo but should make efforts for the development of the relations between the two countries by withdrawing the unjust claim,' Foreign Ministry spokesman Cho Tai-young said at a regular press briefing."

Conclusion

Results reveal that these events all share some common fantasy themes: they involve government officials and military officers who state their respective nations' sovereignty on what they each consider as their territories; opposing sides reject each other's claim; these have led to demonstrations by activist groups against what they define as illegal attempts by the other side to stake claims on their territory; the media is heavily involved in covering the news and, arguably, partly responsible for igniting public tension.

The involved parties (government officials, military chiefs, activist groups) from the said Asia Pacific nations are caught up in symbolic realities of territorial disputes and issues of sovereignty.

In this article I apply structural concepts of symbolic convergence theory (Bormann, 1972) to see how these symbolic events are evolving or have evolved into rhetorical visions. They have been created from symbolic realities that lead the citizens of those countries from opposing sides to see the other as the intruder and their side as the one being invaded and violated. My hypothesis is that there are existing rhetorical visions pertaining to these symbolic events, but they have yet to be identified and recognized. In order to fully recognize and label a rhetorical vision the basic unit—fantasy themes— must be present. In addition, the structural elements that make up a rhetorical vision need to be identified. Through qualitative analysis of the data this initial study has been able to point out some of the more significant fantasy themes, and it has also shown evidence to suggest the existence of rhetorical visions associated with the maritime disputes in the Asia Pacific. However, one more important criterion is that a rhetorical vision must go through a process of being created, shared and sustained in the consciousness of those who are caught up in the symbolic reality until it reaches decline and a final end. In other words we can only say for certain that this or that was a rhetorical vision after it is over. If any of these rhetorical visions do attain such prominent status then perhaps it will be given a name—a symbolic cue. The Cold War is a good example of a rhetorical vision which had reached its terminus stage with the fall of the Berlin Wall. The sight of people hammering away at those walls served as its symbolic end. Perhaps, Climate Change and Global Warming, too, are rhetorical visions that are at their consciousness-sustained stage and will later experience a decline. One might propose that a new set of rhetorical visions are about to emerge with the likes of the "Eurozone Crisis", an "Asian Arms Race", or even Myanmar as "Asia's Last Frontier."

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Contrastive Analysis of Headlines in Thai and English Language Newspapers in Thailand

Chalaysap, Natchaya

Abstract

This qualitative research aimed to examine vocabulary, syntactic structure and rhetorical structure in headlines from English and Thai newspapers in Thailand and to compare the similarities and the differences between them. The data were selected by quota sampling and purposive sampling to derive a variety of characteristics to be studied. The number of studied headlines was 224 in total: 112 from an English daily newspaper, the Bangkok Post, and 56 each from two Thai daily newspapers, Thairat and Matichon, issued during January 1-7, 2012. Only the first decks were analyzed. It has been found that both English language and Thai language newspapers follow the same rules of writing news headlines, but there are some variations due to the difference in grammar between the two language themselves and the influence of Thai culture, causing difference in the way to attract readers, in particular. For instance, Thai headlines prefer active voice to passive voice, while both are found as often in English headlines. Both English and Thai newspapers omit some words in the headline, but the words omitted are of different types. For example, while English newspapers omit *articles* and verb *to be* in the headlines, Thai newspapers omit linking words like *and, but, because,* and use a hyphen to link words, phrases or clauses. In both English and Thai headlines, question marks and quotations are used in the same way, but exclamation is used more often in Thai headlines. Other punctuation marks, i.e., colons and dashes, are not found in Thai headlines and so are commas. Noticeably, Thai headlines are often longer than English headlines, as more details are added. As for vocabulary, both have a variety of vocabulary types. Colloquial language, abbreviations, expressions, and single-syllable or short words are prevailing in both English and Thai headlines. However, short words in Thai headlines, such as “chong” (means “propose”), are usually used in mass media rather than in daily life. Also, English words written in Thai alphabets are often found in Thai headlines. In addition, Thai headlines contain sarcastic expressions and indirectly contain the writer’s opinions, while English headlines present news more objectively. It is recommended that further research should compare the characteristics of English and Thai or other language newspapers, using quantitative data.

Introduction

Needless to say, the main role of newspapers in any country is to spread up-to-date news to the public. Although newspapers in different countries follow the principle newspaper writing in Western countries, some characteristics are unique to local language newspapers, especially the headline, the most striking part of a news story/column, and the most frequently read (Van Dijk, 1986: 156). Besides summarizing the essence of news in a few words, headlines are used to arouse readers’ curiosity, their desire to buy newspapers (Ungerer, 2000: 48). For second language readers, however, headlines are not easy to read because language of the headline is not regularly used for communication in daily life (Waterhouse, 1993 cited in Sanderson, 1999: 22). Reah (1988) states that organization and language in the headline—lexical features, syntactic structures, and rhetoric features—have special characteristics. However, if readers know the syntactic structure or grammar of the headline, they will find it easier to read.

In Thailand, both Thai and English language newspapers are available and the researcher has observed their similarities and differences in terms of choices of words, grammatical features, syntactic structure, and rhetoric of the headline. Khodabandeh's study (2007) has inspired her to conduct contrastive analysis of headlines in English and Thai language newspapers, as this will benefit the teaching of translation and journalist English and Thai.

Mårdh (1980: 14) defines a headline as part of news that has a different font size and style from the text that follows. It can consist of a deck or 1-3 decks. The first deck will contain a larger font, and each deck has its own syntactic structure. The major functions of the headline are to separate news stories, to identify the outstanding point or issue in the news and to arouse readers' interest. That is why it contains bigger fonts and its content must be able to draw attention from passers-by. This is especially true for front-page headlines. Mårdh (1980: 15-16) divides headlines into two types: the summary head and the connotative head. The summary head sums up the news essence without the writer's intent to arouse people's feelings, while the connotative headline hardly tells anything about the news, but is aimed at drawing people's attention through, for instance, word play.

Halliday (1967) states that economy grammar is applied to headline writing and this type of grammar is called a block language. The block language uses syntactic structure at a lower than sentence level—sometimes noun phrases with complicated modifiers and sometimes even dependent clauses alone. It also omits words of low information value such as articles and the finite verb form of *verb to be*. Readers are often required to have some background knowledge for correct interpretation.

Earlier research usually focused on a certain part of a news story, especially the headline, or on certain columns such as editorials. Straumann (1935) is considered the pioneer in studying the English newspaper headline. He divided headlines into four types based on their formal and positional characteristics of words: neutrals, nominals, verbals, and particles. Mårdh (1980) points out some weaknesses of Straumann's study, saying that it did not use the terms generally used in standard English grammar and neither did it count the frequency of occurrences of individual syntactic structures.

With respect to word choices, Wächtler (1953 cited in Mårdh, 1980) studied informal words used in American and British newspaper and magazine headlines and found that the necessity for headlines to be brief, simple and informal contributed to the differences in American newspapers and British newspapers and magazines. The former omitted prepositions more often than the latter, while the latter usually omitted *that* in front of the noun clause object. Wächtler also found that word omission sometimes caused ambiguity. He concluded that the more the number of nouns in the nominal construction, the more the difficulty to interpret the headline.

Mårdh (1980), who examined the language of the English newspaper headlines, identified the linguistic features of the headline as follows: omission of articles and helping verbs (especially *verb to be*), omission of subject and finite verb, nominalization, a noun with complicated modifiers in the subject or theme position, use of an adverb phrase as a headline, use of single-syllable words, use of puns, word play, alliteration, use of word order for emphasis, with the most emphasized words or phrases at the beginning of the headline statement, and use of dependent clauses alone as a headline. Mouillaud and Tetu (1989 cited in Develotte and Rechniewski, 2000) analyzed the headlines of Le Monde, a French newspaper, and found that the newspaper omitted declarative verbs, punctuation marks, pronouns, and conjunctions that indicate time and place, and that it used present tenses and nominalizations.

Comparing headlines of English and Persian newspapers in Iran, Khodabandeh (2007) found that they were similar in that both preferred dynamic verbs, active voice, short words, declarative sentences, finite clauses, and simple sentences. They were different in forms of tenses, modifications and omission.

In analyzing the rhetoric of headlines, Scollon (2000), who compared Chinese and English newspapers, revealed the difference in organizational structure between them. That is, the English newspaper preferred deductive rhetorical mode, while Chinese newspapers preferred inductive rhetorical mode.

In Thailand Jeraja Boonwanno (2002) studied figures of speech in newspaper headlines and found that news headlines used 11 types of figures of speech, the most popular of which was metaphors and the least popular was simile, and that social and cultural news used figures of speech most, followed by political and economic news . Nearly all figures of speech contained three elements: (1) words—single and compound words, (2) phrases—verb phrases, noun phrases and adverb phrases, (3) sentences—affirmative sentences and negative sentences—with the former occurring more often. Strong emotions were conveyed through verbs, but polite, proper words and noun phrases were used to refer to people in the news.

To conclude, writing of headlines in newspapers of different languages seems to follow universal standards, with some variations in local newspapers. It is therefore interesting to know what variations exist.

This study was conducted to find out lexical, syntactic, and rhetorical features in the headlines of English and Thai language newspapers in Thailand in order to compare the similarities and differences in the afore-mentioned aspects.

Procedures

Data and Sampling. The data were taken from an English daily newspaper, the Bangkok Post, and two Thai daily newspapers—Thairat and Matichon. Quota sampling was used to select 112 headlines from the Bangkok Post and 112 from Thairat and Matichion (56 each) issued during January 1-7, 2012. The total was 224 headlines. Headlines from sports news were not included in the study, however.

Data Analysis. The sample headlines were analyzed by categorizing them on the basis of their lexical, syntactic and rhetorical aspects and each category was presented with examples. Then the findings from the English newspaper and the Thai newspapers were compared to find out the similarities and the differences.

Results and Discussion

Since ways of presenting news by Thai reporters follow those in the Western world, many similar lexical, syntactic and rhetorical features have been found in this research. Some differences or variations, however, were also found. The details are as follows:

I. Lexical features. Major similarities and differences are given below.

1. ***Use of abbreviations***. Both Thai and English newspapers use abbreviations in headlines because of limited space. Both Thai and English newspapers use formally abbreviated or shortened words that contain only the first letter of each syllable (such as BoT = Bank of

Thailand, ครม.(kor ror mor.) = คณะรัฐมนตรี (knana ratthamontri) [the cabinet]). Unlike English headlines, Thai headlines also contain words that are informally abbreviated or shortened by news reporters themselves (such as รบ. = รัฐบาล). Words are shortened in other ways as well and Thai and English newspapers do not always shorten words in the headline in the same way. In English headlines, the middle or the last part of a word is usually omitted, whereas in Thai headlines, the first or the last part of a word, *not the middle part*, is usually omitted. Unlike English headlines, Thai headlines have no abbreviated words of which the last letter remains.

a. Omission of the first part
   Thai: พิษ**ท่วมใต้** ทำตรุษจีนปีนี้หงอย (Pit **tuam tai** tam tarutchine pee nee ngoi)
   ท่วม = น้ำท่วม [**nam**tuam =flooding], ใต้ = **ภาค**ใต้ [paak tai = the southern **region**]
   [Meaning: Impact of **flooding** in the **South** makes Chinese New Year less joyful]
   English: -
b. Omission of the middle part
   Thai: -
   English: **S'pore** cuts leader's salaries by a third (**S'pore** = **S**inga**pore**)
c. Omission of the last part
   Thai: สงขลาอ่วม พายุงวงช้าง **นครศรี**วุ่น (Songkla aum payu nguangchang Nakornsri wun)
   นครศรี = **นครศรี**ธรรมราช (**Nakornsri**thammarat)
   English: The good and bad about online medical **info** (info = **info**rmation)
d. Omission of the middle part of the word, with the last letter of the word still at the end
   Thai: -
   English: BoT baulks at **govt** bid to drop debt in its lap (govt = government)

2. ***Use of short words***

In both Thai and English headlines short or single-syllable words are preferred. However, short words in English headlines are used in daily life and the meanings of these words can be looked up in the dictionary. In contrast, Thai headlines often contain short words that are not used in everyday life; news writers often assign a special meaning for common words or coin new words.

Thai: กสทช.**เฉ่ง**ดีเทค**ล่ม**ซ้ำซาก (kor sor tor chor. cheng DETAC lom sumsaak)
เฉ่ง (cheng) = ตำหนิ (blame), ล่ม (lom) = out of order, not working)
English: UK tells Burma **ties** linked to reform (ties = relationships)

3. ***Phrasal verbs***

The English language has phrasal verbs, but the Thai language doesn't, and English headlines use this type of verbs frequently.
Thai: -
English: Prawet **spells out** his views on Section 112 (spell out = express)

4. ***Use of slang***

Thai and English newspapers use slang, to add color to their headlines.
Thai: จับ**หัวโจก**ใต้ 2 รายชั้นแกนนำสั่งการ (chab huajoke tai song rai chan kaennum sungkarn)
หัวโจก (huajoke) = หัวหน้า (head)
English: 'Brutal' **cops** arrest 17 at student rally (cops = police)

5. *Colloquial language*

Both Thai and English newspapers use colloquial language in the headline.

Thai: ถูก**หวยที่ 1** อดีตผอ.ร.ร.ฟัน 34 ล้าน (took huay tee 1 adit phor or. ror. ror. fun 34 lan)

หวยที่ 1 (huay tee 1) = the first lottery prize

English: You can't **make this stuff up**: Top odd news of 2011

6. *Use of the capital city name to refer to a country or the government of that country.*

This usage is found only in English headlines.

Thai: -

English: Oil sanctions on **Teheran** could hurt US rallies (Teheran = Iran)

7. *Use of nicknames or given titles*

This usage is found only in the headlines of Thai newspapers

Thai: (1) **ปู**เยิ้บปากรมต.โต้งบประมาณ (**Pu** yeb pak ror mor tor. to ngobpraman)

Pu is the nickname of Ms.Yingluck Shinnawatra, the current Prime Minister of Thailand

(2) ผู้นำลีส่งสารปีใหม่ข่ม**โสมแดง-**ก้าวร้าว เจอดี (phunam Lee song san peemai kom **Somdeang-**kaawround jeu dee)

โสมแดง(Somdeang) = North Korea

English: -

8. *Idioms or expressions*

Both Thai and English newspapers often use idioms or expressions.

Thai: กทม.โยน**เผือกร้อน**ให้ครม. (kor tor mor. Yon pheuk ron hai kor ror mor.)

เผือกร้อน (pheuk ron) = ปัญหา

English: (1) Cyber crime **taking on** sinister forms

(2) Eight-child brood **shines spotlight on** one-child policy

9. *Use of metaphors*

Metaphors are found in both Thai and English headlines. But Thai headlines use them more often.

Thai: แรงงานพม่านับแสน**ยกทัพ**กลับไทย (rangmgan phama nub saen **yoktab** klub thai)

ยกทัพ (yoktab) = move like an army

English: Govt spending gets roasting

10. *Loan words*

Thai newspapers often borrow English words to use in headlines by spelling them out in Thai, while English newspapers in Thailand hardly, if any, borrow Thai words.

Thai: เสี่ย**รีสอร์ต**ดับ สังเวย**เคาต์ดาวน์** (sia resort dub sungwui countdown)

รีสอร์ต = resort, เคาต์ดาวน์ = countdown

English: -

II. Grammatical or syntactic features

1. Types of headlines

a. Noun phrase. Noun phrases are commonly found in headlines in Thai and English language newspapers. But some difference is found in the noun phrase pattern. In English headlines two patterns occur: (a) head noun + modifiers, and (2) topic head noun followed by a punctuation mark (a dash or colon) and then the point of news. The first pattern is found in Thai headlines, as well, but the second pattern is different in that punctuation is not used in Thai headlines.

Thai: (1) กำลังซื้อเฟอร์นิเจอร์เพียบ (kamlungsue furniture paeb)

(2) ยิ่งลักษณ์ ชินวัตร บุคคลแห่งปี (Yingluck bookkon haeng pee)

If both headlines are translated into English, they will look like the following:

(1) Big purchasing power for furniture
(2) Yingluck Shinnawatra, person of the year

English: (1) Protest at new constitution
(2) The big issue: Crystal ball gazing

b. Sentences. Most headlines in English and Thai newspapers are in the form of sentences, especially simple sentences. However, compound and complex sentences are seen once in a while. The difference between Thai and English headlines are that there is no connector in Thai headlines, but in English headlines, the writer provides a comma to link clauses in a compound sentence and use a conjunction to show the one clause is subordinate to another clause.

Thai: (1) 'อุ้ม-สิริยากร' **แต่ง**แฟนมะกัน (Aum-siriyakorn **tang** fan makan)

(2) **รวบ**โจรปล้นทอง **ยิงตชด.-โดน**วิฯ (**ruab** jone plon thong **ying** tor chord or.-**don** wi)

(3) **ประท้วง**เงียบ'พืชสวนโลก' พนง. **หยุด**ขายตั๋ว-**เซ็ง**เงินช้า (**pratuang** ngieb 'phued suan loke' **yud** khai toi-**seng** ngern cha)

English: (1) France skeptical of monitors (simple sentence)
(2) Boeing orders rise **but** Airbus still leads (compound sentence)
(3) Air fares still unchanged **after** EU imposes carbon charge (complex sentence)

c. Dependent clauses. This form of headlines is rarely used in both Thai and English newspapers. In the sample of Thai headlines and that of English headlines, only one Thai headline was found in the form of dependent clause. None of English headlines in the sample is written in dependent clause.

Thai: เมื่อกระทรวงศึกษาธิการ...ให้(บังคับ)ครูและนักเรียนต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษ (muer krasuangsuksathikarn…hai(bangkub) krue lae nakrean tong phud phasa angkrit)

English: -

2. Grammatical features

Some interesting grammatical features found in Thai and English headlines are as follows:

a. Omission of words. Some words are omitted in Thai and English headlines, but omitted words are different. In English headlines, verb 'to be' and articles are left out, while in Thai headlines, connectors are usually omitted.

Thai: สวดมนตร์ข้ามปีฮิตทั่วปท. นับล้านแห่ร่วม (suad mon kham pee hit tour por tor. nab lan hae ruam)

There are two clauses in this headline: (1) สวดมนตร์ข้ามปีฮิตทั่วปท. (suad mon kham pee hit tour por tor.) and (2) นับล้านแห่ร่วม (nab lan hae ruam). The connector "and" is left out.

English: (1) Pickup truck collides with bus killing 12 mourners (Omission of articles in front of "pickup truck" and "bus")
(2) Immigration reduction not working (Omission of *verb to be*)

b. Tense usage. Differences are found in tense usage between Thai and English headlines. There are some rules for tense usage in English headlines, but this is not the case in Thai ones. Tenses in Thai are not always obvious in Thai headlines. Readers have to infer from the context or from some words in the sentence whether the event has already happened, is happening, or will happen.

Thai: (1) ฝน**ยัง**ถล่มภาคใต้ น้ำป่าซัด สะพานพังตัดขาด (phon **young** talom paktai nampa sud saphan pung tad khard)

In the first clause of this sentence, the word "ยัง (young)" meaning "continue" indicates that the event has already happened and continues until present.

(2) สหรัฐฯ**จ่อ**ลดกองทัพครั้งใหญ่ แผ่อำนาจในเอเชียแทน (saharat chor lod kongthap krungyai phae umnat nai Asia than)

The word "จ่อ (chor)" means "is going to happen".

On the contrary, tense usage in English headlines is not the same as that in common usage. Present simple, for example, is used to replace the past simple or the present perfect tense to indicate what happened or has already happened. Non-finite forms are also used to indicate time. The present participial phrase replaces the present progressive tense, the infinitive phrase, the future simple tense.

English: (1) Burma sets date fir by-elections (The action has already happened.)
(2) Militants 'looking for recruits (The action is happening.)
(3) Charter draft to take one year. (The action will happen.)

c. Use of modals. Modals are sometimes used in English headlines and when a modal is used, it will not be omitted. Modals are hardly found in Thai headlines.

Thai: -

English: Arab League '**must** end Syria mission'

d. Active vs Passive voices. Verbs in Thai headlines usually take an active form, but the subject of the verb is often left out. However, in the headline in which the subject is omitted, a passive form of a verb is usually used when translated into English. On the contrary, both active and passive forms of verbs are common in English headlines and when the passive verb is used, the auxiliary verb (verb to be) is omitted.

Thai: **มอบ** 2 แสนให้คนดีเก็บเงินคืน 3.7 ล้าน (moob 2 saen hai khon dee keb ngern kheun 3.7 lan)

Two hundred thousand baht **was given** to the decent person who returned the amount of 3.7 million baht to the one who had lost it.

English: Court ruling seen as pivotal to ending border row (Omission of *verb to be* in front of "seen")

e. Presenting news sources. In Thai headlines the speaker is given first, followed by what he or she said. But in English headlines, the speaker is often given after what is said and is separated by a punctuation mark (a comma or a dash).

Thai: **'เติ้ง'** ห้ามแตะ! ม.112 กม. อาญา (**'Terng'** harm tia! Mor. 112 kor mor. aya)

English: Filipinos won't flee strife-torn Syria, **says PM**

f. Punctuation.

i. Comma (,) A comma is found only in English headlines, not in Thai headlines, to link words, phrases, or clauses, with the meaning "and".

Thai: -

English: Teachers feted for dedication, bravery

ii. Dash (—) English headlines use dashes to indicate the speaker. A dash is also used to separate the general topic from the specific topic. In Thai headlines, this punctuation mark is not used.

Thai: -

English: Celebrity rehab**—**Sek edition, new manager not new woman, what future for new home?

iii. Hyphen (-)

Hyphens are used in Thai headlines to link words and phrases. The meaning represented by a hyphen may be "and", "or", "but", "which", "so that". But in English newspapers the usage of hyphens follows normal or standard rules.

Thai: ข่าวดี-ข่าวร้าย จราจรปี 2555 ถนน-สะพาน-รถไฟฟ้าใหม่ (khao dee-khao rai jarajorn pee 2555 tanon-saphan-rod phi pha mai)

All the hyphens here represent "and".

English: (1) Navy claims medium-range cruise missile test success
(2) Jordan hosts rare Israeli-Palestinian meet

iv. Colon (:) A colon is used to separate the speaker from what he or she said. Also it separates the general topic from the specific topic. This usage is found only in English headlines, not in Thai ones.

Thai: -

English: (1) Opposition**:** Young voters could sway poll
(2) The big issue: Crystal ball gazing

v. Question mark (?)

Both Thai and English headlines use a question mark in the same way, that is, to show doubt or uncertainty or to show that there is still controversy on the subject.

Thai: '2012' ปีโลกแตก**?** (2012 pee loke taek?)

Meaning: Would the world end in 2012?

English: From the year of fury to the year of doom?

vi. Quotation mark (' ')

Quotation marks are usually used to emphasize a word or phrase. This punctuation mark is found in both Thai and English headlines.

Thai: 'กิตติรัตน์' ดอดเจรจาลับ 'ประสาร' ('Kittirat' dod jeraja lub 'Prasarn')

English: North told 'to embrace a new era'

vi. Exclamation mark (!)

No exclamation marks were found in the sample of English headlines in this study, but they were often found in Thai headlines.

Thai: **งามไส้!** สวมสิทธิ์รับจำนำโผล่อื้อ (**Ngamsai!** Suamsit rub jumnum pho oew)

งามไส้! (ngamsai!) = How shameful!

English: -

(3) Types of sentences classified by function

Sentence headlines may classified by function into three main types as follows:

i. Declarative sentence This type of sentences is commonly found in Thai and English headlines.

Thai: ผู้ประกอบการร่วมฝ่าวิกฤติหลังอุทกภัย (phu prakobkarn rum pha wikrit lung utokapai)

English: King urges Thais to learn from floods

ii. Interrogative sentence Headlines that indicate questions do not have a question mark at the end. This is the same for both Thai and English headlines.

Thai: องค์กรอิสระมาจากไหนดี (ongkorn issara ma chaak nai dee)

English: Should old assets be forgot in 2012 in Johannesberg

iii. Imperative sentence Statements showing order, request or persuasion are also found in Thai and English headlines.

Thai: จับตาเทรนด์เทคโนโลยีปี 2012 (jubta trend technology pee 2012)

(Meaning: Keep an eye on the trend of technology in 2012)

English: Put ‘Happy’ in the New Year

III. Rhetorical features

Some remarkable rhetorical features found in this study are shown with examples below.

1. Number of presented points/issues Two or three points or pieces of news may be placed in the same headline in Thai newspapers, but this practice is rarely found in English headlines. In this study one was, however, found in English headlines.

Thai: แม่ค้าเจอถุงระเบิด ไม่รู้เอาให้เพื่อนดู บึมมือขาดบาดเจ็บ (maeka jue tung rabird mai ru aow hai pein du bumb mue kad baad jeb)

Here the writer reports a series of events. There are several points in the same headline.

1.แม่ค้าเจอถุงระเบิด (maeka jue tung rabird) = The street vendor saw a bomb-containing bag.

2.ไม่รู้ (mai ru) = But she did not know what was in the bag.

3. เอาให้เพื่อนดู (aow hai pein du) = She took it to her friend in order to ask him what the object inside was.

4. บึมมือขาดบาดเจ็บ(bumb mue kad baad jeb) = The bomb exploded and tore away the latter’s hand.

English: Celebrity rehab—Sek edition, new manager not new woman, what future for new home?

There are two pieces of news in this headline and they are separated by a comma. The first one is "Celebrity rehab—Sek edition, new manager not new woman" and the second is "what future for new home?"

2. Organization of ideas

i. Brevity. In spite of limited space, Thai headlines seem to be long, containing more points or modifiers, while English headlines are usually short, providing one major point.

Thai: (1) ซิวหนุ่มเหิมบุกชิงเงินแบงก์ (sew num herm buk ching ngern bank)

Meaning: A bank robber was arrested.

(2) 'สุขุมพันธุ์' ปัดยื้อ! ส่งมอบสวนจตุจักร ชี้มติครม.ไม่ชัดเจน 'Sukhumphan' padyue! songmoob Suan Chatuchak chee mati kor ror mor. mai chadjane)

Meaning: Sukhumphan denied that he not intend to delay the return of Chatuchak Market. He pointed out that the delay was caused by the fact that the Cabinet's resolution was unclear.

English: (1) Countdowns go off without a hitch

(2) Flooding brings grief to more southern provinces

ii. Coherence. While coherence in English headlines is shown by conjunctions or punctuation marks, this is not the case in Thai headlines. In fact, cohesion is implied in Thai headlines.

Thai: วางเสปกแทบเล็ตเน้นพื้นที่ขาดแม่พิมพ์ (wang spec tablets nen pheunthi khad maepim)

There are two clauses or ideas which seemed to be loosely linked. The first idea is "wang spec tablets (Specifications of computer tablets were determined)" and the second one is "nen pheunthi khad maepim (The focus is on areas where there is a scarcity of teachers)". To link the second idea to the first readers must have some background knowledge that the government has a policy to distribute computer tablets free of charge to pupils in Prathom Suksa 1 (Grade 1). In the second sentence more information is given; that is, the target areas for tablet distribution are schools in remote areas where there are not enough teachers.

English: (1) If China decides you are a threat, life can become cruel and unjust

(2) Air fares still unchanged after EU imposed carbon charge

iii. Emphasis. Both Thai and English headlines emphasize some word or phrases. The way to show emphasis is the same; that is, using quotation marks or begin the headline with the word or phrase to be stressed.

Thai: (1) **สินเชื่อซ่อมแซมบ้าน**เลือกช็อปได้ (**sin chue somsam ban** luek shop dai)

สินเชื่อซ่อมแซมบ้าน (sin chue somsam ban**)** = loans for home repair

(2) นิยาม **'รธน.ฉบับใหม่'** สร้างบ้านเพื่อ 63 ล้านไทย (niyam **'ror tor nor. chabab mai'** sang ban pue 63 lan Thai)

รธน.ฉบับใหม่ ('ror tor nor. chabab mai') = new constitution

English: (1) **Corruption** rank**s** as biggest worry

(2) Rosana's water-pushing project **'united residents'**

3. Alliteration. Both Thai and English newspapers sometimes use alliteration in the headlines.

Thai: กลยุทธ์ 'ยิ่งลักษณ์' ใช้ **'สงบ' สยบ** เคลื่อนไหว ต่อ**กร เกม**การเมือง (kolyut 'Yingluck' chai '**sa-**ngob' sayob kleun wait or korn game karn muang)

English: Tough on the field, unyielding at the table

4. Ambiguity. Some Thai and English headlines are intended to be ambiguous to arouse readers' interest so that they will continue reading for details.

Thai: 'วิลาศ' เกาะติดถุงยังชีพไม่ปล่อย ('Wilad' khao tit tungyoungcheep mai ploy)

Literally, this sentence means that the man named "Wilad" is still clinging on the relief bags. But when read between the lines, the sentence means that Mr. Wilad has been closely following the irregularity about relief bags.

English: The big issue: Crystal ball gazing

When readers read this headline, they may wonder what "crystal ball gazing" means, thus wanting to read more to find out what is in the news.

5. Sarcasm Sarcastic statements are often found in Thai headlines, but not in English headlines.

Thai: กทม.เพิ่งตื่นเอาผิดบางรัก (kor tor mor. phing tuen aow pit Bangrak)

Meaning: BMA has just awaken and look into irregularities at Bangrak district office

English: -

These are just a few examples of differences in language usage and rhetoric between Thai and English newspapers in Thailand.

Conclusions

News headlines—Thai and English alike—are used not only to highlight the main point of news stories/columns but also to attract people's attention to buy that newspaper. Thai and English headlines are similar in most respects because Thai newspapers follow the Western principles of news-reporting, with some variations because the Thai language has its own grammatical system with some unique features. Similarities are found both in lexical features or word choices (such as use of abbreviated words, short or single-syllable words, slang) and rhetorical features (such as how to emphasize certain information). Other different aspects are, for example, English headlines use phrasal verbs but this type of verbs does not exist in Thai. Both Thai and English headlines omit some words, but the words omitted are different. Punctuation is also different. All in all, there are more similarities than differences.

Recommendations

This research is a qualitative study used only 112 English and 112 Thai headlines as samples. Further research should be a quantitative one, counting the frequency of occurrences of individual features and make a comparison between headlines in Thai and English language newspapers in quantitative terms. Also, comparison should be made between quality and popular newspapers. In addition, other parts of news should be analyzed and compared to see if there is any variation in writing style.

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Appendix

Summary of Lexical, Syntactic and Rhetorical Features of Headlines

Features	Have or not have		Similar	Different
	English	Thai		
I. Lexical features				
1. Use of abbreviation	√	√	√	√
2. Use of short words	√	√	√	√
3. Use of phrasal verbs	√			√
4. Use of slang	√	√	√	
5. use of colloquial or informal words	√	√	√	
6. Use of capital name for the country	√			√
7.Use of nicknames or given titles		√		√
8. Idioms or expressions	√	√		
9. Use of metaphors	√	√	√	
10. Use of loan words		√		√
II. Syntactic features				
1. Types of headlines				
a. noun phrase	√	√	√	√
b. sentence	√	√	√	√
c. dependent clause	*	√	√	
2. Special grammatical features				
a. word omission	√	√		√
b. tenses	√			√
c. modals	√			√
d. active & passive voices	√	√		√
e. news sources	√	√	√	√
f. punctuation				
- comma (,)	√			√
Features	**Have or not have**		**similar**	**Different**
	English	**Thai**		
- hyphen (-)		√		√
- dash (--)	√			√
- colon (:)	√			√
- question mark(?)	√	√	√	
- quotation mark (‘ ’)	√	√	√	
- exclamation mark (!)	*	√		
3. Types of sentences classified by complexity				
a. Simple sentence	√	√	√	
b. Compound sentence	√	√		√
c. Complex sentence	√	√	√	√
d. Dependent clause only	*	√		
4. Types of sentences classified by function				
a. Declarative	√	√	√	
b. Interrogative	√	√	√	
c. Imperative	√	√	√	
III. Rhetorical features				
a. Number of presented points	√	√	√	√
b. Organization				
- brevity	√	√	√	√
- coherence	√	√	√	√
- emphasis	√	√	√	
c. alliteration	√	√	√	
d. ambiguity	√	√	√	√
e. sarcasm		√		√

*Found in previous research but not in this research

Reading Strategies Used by Thai EFL Students in Reading Online and Printed Academic Texts: A Case Study of Srinakharinwirot University

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Abstract

Reading has become increasingly important for ESL/EFL students because of the emergence of information from the Internet. The students need to read both online texts and printed texts in English for their academic purposes. This study examined reading strategies used by science students and English major students, specifically high and low proficient students when reading online and printed academic texts. The study also aimed at discovering how those high and low proficient students use strategies in reading online and printed academic texts in English. The participants of the study were 73 English major students and 75 science students, purposively selected to participate in the study. Quantitative data were collected through Reading Comprehension Test, Questionnaire for Strategies in Reading Online Academic Texts and Questionnaire for Strategies in Reading Printed Academic Texts. To obtain qualitative data, 3 high and 3 low proficient science students and English major students were selected to perform the reading think-aloud tasks. The results revealed that in reading online texts, science students used the Global Reading Strategies most whereas English major students used Support Strategies most. In reading printed academic texts, the students in both groups used Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies at the medium level. The high proficient science students used Metacognitive Strategies most while high English major students used Cognitive strategies most; high and low proficient English students used reading strategies more effectively than the high science students. Developing reading strategies that the high proficient students use in low proficient students is recommended in EFL reading classes.

Keywords: Reading strategies, online academic text, printed academic text, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies

Background of the Study

At present, reading skills have been increasingly important for ESL/EFL students because of the advancement in technology and the emergence of information from the Internet. The Internet has become a huge source of information in various fields, so those students also need to read online texts, mostly written in English for their academic purposes. It appears that the students in the age of globalization need to develop the reading ability to cope with different text forms of both conventional printed texts and electronic texts (Levine, Ferenz & Reves, 2000). That is, ESL/EFL university students, Thai students are not exceptional, need to develop the ability to read in English to engage in reading both types of academic texts: printed texts and online texts, and the types of skills required comprise of academic reading skills and strategies to actively create the meaning and get comprehension from both reading environments.

However, reading in a second or foreign language is problematic for ESL/EFL students particularly most university students who do not major in English because reading is considered a very complex process, especially reading for comprehension. Many researchers then have attempted to understand and explain the nature of reading and the actual reading process in both L1 and L2 settings (Cross & Paris, 1988; Oxford and Crookall, 1989; Grabe, 1991; Goodman, 1996; Aebersold & Field, 1997; Saricoban, 2002,Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Tercanlioglu, 2004). Those researchers mostly agreed that reading is a cognitive process, an active one, in which the readers use strategies to construct meaning from the text. The consensus view about the concept of reading is that reading strategies have recognized as an important tool to help the reader to achieve the goal of reading. It is then necessary to explain the concepts of reading strategies.

Several studies on reading in the first language (L1), second and foreign language settings have indicated that reading strategies are the features that distinguish between proficient and less proficient readers. The studies have also revealed the relationship between the success in reading to the effectiveness and the quality of strategies used. Those studies have discovered that readers use different reading strategies and the use of various strategies are effective in improving students' reading comprehension. It has been also revealed that proficient readers are more aware of strategy use than less proficient readers, and the former group of readers uses different types of reading strategies, and uses them in different ways. Proficient readers are considered strategic readers while less proficient readers are often unaware of how and when to employ reading strategies to help them read effectively (Paris and Jacob, 1984).

Similarly, Pressley and Afflerbach (1995 as cited in Carrell, 1998) indicate that skilled readers are selectively attentive. They tend to be aware of what they are reading; why they are reading; and they have used many different procedures (strategies) for handling the problems and for monitoring their reading comprehension of the text. The reading strategies they use include predicting, making notes, paraphrasing and making inferences. In contrast, novice readers often focus on decoding skills of single words as young readers do, fail to adjust their reading for different texts or purposes, and seldom look ahead or back in text to monitor and improve their reading comprehension. The study by Block (1986) and Sheory and Moktari (2001) show that L2 good readers use more reading strategies than poor readers. This is corroborated by Anderson (1991) in his argument that successful language readers use many more strategies than less successful readers, and successful ESL readers appeared to employ strategies more effectively and appropriately. However, to become successful in reading comprehension, the readers not only know what strategy to use, but they must also know how to use it successfully and know how to orchestrate its use with other strategies (p.19). In other words, successful readers' awareness or metacognitive awareness of reading strategies during the reading process is required. Oxford's study (1990) indicates that successful students use strategies more effectively than less successful students. The effective strategies employed by the successful students include cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies. The successful students also use these strategies more frequently. Since these three strategies are required for effective reading, Oxford suggests that these strategies need to be emphasized in teaching academic reading. Also, many cognitive reading strategies including identifying the main idea, guessing the meaning of words from context, scanning and skimming for details should be developed as general strategies for learners.

Reading strategies also play the important role on EFL students. Slataci and Akyel (2002) discuss that successful EFL students tend to use a combination of global and local strategies. Nevertheless, successful readers use more global strategies. Global strategies employed by successful students include identifying the main idea, seeing how new information fits with the overall text, using background knowledge, making prediction or skimming. Local strategies that the less successful students possess are identifying the meaning and grammatical category of individual words, sentence structure and details of the text. Since successful reading comprehension requires a combination of global and local strategies, Bang & Zhao (2007) suggest that to develop EFL readers to become high performing readers, EFL reading instruction should combine effective reading strategies of both types.

As discussed above, it has become clear that there are differences in the use of reading strategies between successful or proficient readers and less successful or less proficient readers. Overall, it is evident that proficient readers use more extensive reading strategies than less successful readers, and they tend to use strategies effectively and frequently than the less proficient ones. Moreover, research has indicated that proficient readers are aware of when and how to employ reading strategies on a given reading selection. All in all, the reading experts suggest that there are some overlapped reading strategies used by two different types of readers, and certain strategies that characterize successful readers and certain ones that characterize less successful readers. Reading strategies are also considered as one major tool to help readers to comprehend texts, and enhance readers to be able to become high performing readers. Therefore, it is necessary for university students to be able to use effective and multiple reading strategies appropriate for certain types of text and the reading situations.

In an attempt to develop students to reading strategies effectively, reading researchers need to first examine which strategies proficient readers use and how they use them successfully. Having considered EFL reading research in the Thai context, research related to reading strategies, particularly academic reading at the tertiary level has been very scant although Thai university students encounter difficulties in reading comprehension (Tapinta, 2006; Adunyarittikun, 1996; Wirotanan, 2002; Tanthanis, 2007). These students need to employ reading strategies to overcome their reading difficulties. If reading strategies utilized by both proficient and less proficient readers are identified, it will be beneficial to the reading teachers to encourage the less proficient ones to use more effective reading strategies as the proficient readers do. This present study; therefore, aimed to determine reading strategies science students in the Faculty of Science and English major students in the Faculty of Humanities at Srinakharinwirot University (SWU) use when reading printed and online academic texts. The research questions are as follows:

Research Questions

1. What reading strategies do science students and English major students at Srinakharinwirot University use when reading printed and online academic texts in English?
2. What reading strategies do high and low proficient science students and high and low English major students at Srinakharinwirot University use when reading printed and online academic texts in English?
3. How do high and low proficient science students and high and low proficient English major students use reading strategies when they read printed and online academic texts in English?

Materials and Methods

Participants

Participants of the study consisted of 75 third-year science students from different majors in the Faculty of Science: Statistics, Biology, Computer Science, and Mathematics and 73 third-year English major students from the Faculty of Humanities. The two groups of students had similar background in reading, and they are of mixture English language ability. The science students had taken two courses of general English as compulsory courses for freshmen and EN 301 –Reading for Specific Purposes 1 and EN302 - Reading for Specific Purposes 2 in which they are taught to read academic reading on varieties of topics related to their fields. English major students had also enrolled two courses of general English when they were freshmen. They also enrolled in EN 221 – Reading Techniques in the second and EN 322 – Reading and Summary in their third academic year.

Data Collection Procedures

The research instruments were used in collecting data as in the following procedures.

First, Reading Comprehension Test consisted of he reading part of a TOEFL sample test was administered at the beginning of the semester so that the researcher can classify the students into high proficient and low proficient students in accordance with their English reading ability. TOEFL is a well-established language proficiency test which is has the most reliable results in determining language learners' proficiency (Educational Testing Service (ETS), 1997).

Questionnaires for Strategies in Reading Printed Academic Texts was then administered to all participants participants to obtain the data on reading strategies students employ in reading printed academic texts. The questionnaire items were adapted from the empirical evidence in Sheorey Moktari (2001) and Phakiti (2003). The questionnaire was designed to direct students' attention to reading strategy components cognitive, metacognitive strategies used in each stage of reading processes: pre-reading, while/during reading and post-reading.

The Questionnaire for Strategies in Reading Online Academic Texts was used to discover reading strategies students used in reading online academic texts. The questionnaire was originally developed by Sheorey and Moktari (2001) and adapted by Anderson (2003). The questionnaire items asked students about three main strategies: Global Strategies, Problem-solving Strategies, and Support Strategies they use in reading online texts. This set of questionnaires was administered to students three weeks after the students completed the first questionnaire.

The reading texts used in think-aloud sessions were then applied to three high and three low proficient science students English major students to obtain more information and discover how they use reading strategies while reading both online and printed academic texts in real situations. While the students think-aloud, they were tape-recorded and after each think-aloud sessions finished, the students were interviewed in the areas of the student's reading performance and reading strategies used in both types of texts.

Results and Discussion

The Use Reading Strategies in Reading Online Academic Texts

The data from The Questionnaire for the Reading Strategies in Reading Online Academic Texts were analyzed in terms of three sub-categories of reading strategies: Global Strategies, Problem Solving Strategies, and Support Strategies. Global strategies are intentional and carefully planned by learners to monitor their reading, such as having a purpose in mind, previewing the text. Problem solving strategies are the process that readers use while they are working directly with the text, especially when the text becomes difficult; these strategies include guessing the meaning from unknown words. Support strategies are what readers use to help their comprehension, such as using a dictionary, taking notes, highlighting textual information, or translating from one's mother tongue to the target language.

The results of data analysis are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations and Level of Use of Strategies by Science Students and English Major Students in Reading Online Academic Texts

Reading Strategies for Reading Online Texts	Science Students (N=75)			English Major Students (N=73)			t-value two-tailed	p
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Level**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	**Level**		
Global Reading Strategies	2.77	0.61	M	3.13	0.36	M	-4.739	0.000*
Problem Solving Strategies	2.75	0.65	M	3.15	0.40	M	-5.142	0.000*
Support Strategies	2.73	0.67	M	3.18	0.46	M	-4.690	0.000*
Overall	**2.75**	**0.62**	**M**	**3.16**	**0.36**	**M**	**-5.254**	**0.000***

* Significance at the 0.05 level

Table 1 shows that overall both science students and English majors used reading strategies in reading online academic texts at the medium level (*M*= 2.75) and the overall mean of English majors was 3.16. For English major students, those three reading strategies for reading online academic texts were also used at the medium level. The highest level of use by the science students falls into Global Reading Strategies while English majors used the Support Strategies most frequently. The results also showed that there was a significant different in the overall mean of the reading strategies for reading online materials between science students and English major students at the 0.01 level.

For science students, it is interesting to find out that most use of individual strategies fell into the Global Reading Strategies type. This finding corroborated with Boonkit (2006) when the students tried to find the main idea of the text read, and finding the main idea was reported the effective reading strategies for the students in Boonkit's study. However, they use the Support Strategies least. This showed that when reading online, the science students did not depend on the supporters from other sources; they attempted to make sense of the texts by using what they see in authentic texts online. For Problem Solving Strategies, the science students used them at the moderate level, and they also reported that they did not want other supports such as printing out the texts or using other techniques. The explanation can be confirmed by the use of Support Strategies, though it was at the medium level but they were used them the least.

For English majors, they used the most was Support Strategies, followed by Problem Solving Strategies. For Support Strategies, they tend to use the dictionary, take notes or underline unknown words to help them comprehend the texts, for Problem Solving Strategies, they used stopping reading for a moment when stressing or confusing occurred. They also used Global Strategies, and they used them for setting purpose, predicting or guessing the text's meaning and using context clues to guess the meaning. The findings of the study were in line with the results of previous studies (Sheorey & Mokthari, 2001; Mokhtari, & Sheorey, 2002; Huang et al., 2009; Boobkit, 2006) which showed that the students tended to use the Support Strategies to help them to easily understand the meaning or communicate information quickly while they read online academic texts. For most students, the difficulty understanding the text comes from unknown words, so the possible way for them to get the meaning from the difficult text is to use the dictionary to look up for the unfamiliar words. They then try to translate from English into their native language. The Support Strategies help the students to comprehend the meaning of the texts.

The Use of Reading Strategies in Reading Printed Academic Texts

The data from the Questionnaire for Reading Strategies in Reading Printed Academic Texts r were analyzed in terms of Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies. Cognitive strategies are viewed as mental processes directly concerned with the processing of information in order to learn such as summarizing main information, using dictionary, rereading, using grammatical rules to understand meaning. Metacognitive reading strategies involve the learning process such as planning and setting a purpose in mind, rechecking comprehension when the readers encounter ambiguous information, self-questioning, and evaluating accuracy in reading. The analysis of results revealed that when reading academic texts, Cognitive Strategies and Metacognitive Strategies were employed at the medium level by students in both groups. Table 2 shows the reading strategies use by both groups of students in reading printed academic texts.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations and Level f Use of Strategies by Strategies by Science Students and English Major Students in Reading Printed Academic Texts

Reading Strategies for Printed Academic Texts	**Science Students (N=75)**			**English Major Students (N=73)**			**t-value two-tailed**	**p**
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Level**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	**Level**		
Cognitive Strategies	2.93	0.60	M	3.31	0.42	M	-4.702	0.000*
Metacognitive Strategies	2.94	0.63	M	3.26	0.44	M	-3.160	0.002*
Overall	**2.94**	**0.59**	**M**	**3.28**	**0.41**	**M**	**-4.140**	**0.000***

* Significance at the 0.1 level

According to Table 2, overall, science students used reading strategies in reading the printed academic texts at the medium level with the mean of 2.94. In addition, Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies in reading printed academic texts were also used at the medium level. For English major students, Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies in reading printed academic texts were also employed at the medium level. The results also showed that there was a significant different in the overall means of the reading strategies for reading printed academic texts between science students and English major students at the 0.01 level.

Science students employed Metacognitive Strategies more frequently than those of Cognitive Strategies. This showed that science students tended to use the strategies which they can take control over their reading process. The results of individual strategies also support this point when the science students did not use the Memories Strategies (Cognitive Strategies) much, but they used Retrieval Strategies, Planning Strategies and Monitoring Strategies more frequently. For example, they reported that they did the previewing the text for the main idea when planned to read. The results were consistent with what Sheory and Moktari (2001) asserted for the use of metacognitive strategies in their study conducted with native and non-native speaking English students when the native speaking English students carefully planned for reading by monitoring and managing their reading. Such students use metacognitive strategies by setting the purpose and previewing the text for its length and organization to help for understanding (p.436).

English major students employed Cognitive Strategies more often than Metacognitive Strategies. The plausible explanation is that Cognitive Strategies are strategies that ones have learned, and they use these strategies such as summarizing main information, using the dictionary, rereading, and using grammatical rules to understand meaning to directly process information in order to understand the text. They also used Retrieval Strategies most such as using grammar rules to understand meaning or recalling reading purposes and using prior knowledge to help comprehension. Moreover, they also applied the Comprehending Strategies (e.g. using dictionary, translating text into native language or summarizing main information) and Memory Strategies (e.g. note-taking, paraphrasing or rereading). This can be summarized that the students preferred to use strategies such as scanning the texts, using grammatical rules, looking for transitional words, using the dictionary, rereading and summarizing to accomplish their reading comprehension. To achieve in reading strategies use, some researchers suggested that it depends on the flexibility in using strategies of each reader according to the purpose of the contexts (Sheorey & Mokthari, 2001; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002; Anderson, 2003).

The Use of Reading Strategies of High and Low Proficient Science Students and High and Low Proficient English Majors Students in Reading Online Academic Texts

Table 3 and Table 4 illustrate the use of reading strategies in reading online academic texts of high and low proficient science and English major students.

Table 3
Means, Standard Deviations, Mean Differences, and Level of Use of Reading Strategies by High and Low Proficient Science Students in Reading Online Academic Texts

Reading Strategies	**Science Students (HP) (N=19)**		**Level**	**Science Students (LP) (N=19)**		**Level**	**t-value**	**p**
	Mean	**S.D.**		**Mean**	**S.D.**			
Global Reading Strategies	3.01	0.40	Medium	2.70	0.55	Medium	2.033	0.049*
Problem Solving Strategies	3.06	0.49	Medium	2.67	0.59	Medium	2.239	0.031*
Support Strategies	3.11	0.38	Medium	2.63	0.69	Medium	2.662	0.013*
Overall	**3.06**	**0.37**	**Medium**	**2.67**	**0.57**	**Medium**	**2.524**	**0.016***

* Significance at the 0.05 level

Table 3 shows that the mean scores of three sub-categories of reading strategies used in reading online academic texts of high proficient science students were higher than those of low proficient science students. In addition, significant differences at the 0.05 level were found within three main reading strategies. In real situations (think-aloud reading tasks), high proficient science students uses Global Reading Strategies: scanning the text, focusing on the main point and using context clue to guess the meaning, and three strategies in Problem Solving Strategies: using background knowledge, rereading and using grammatical rules. High proficient did not use Support Strategies. Low proficient science students used five reading strategies including scanning the texts (Global Reading Strategies), rereading (Problem Solving Strategies), taking notes, using the dictionary, and translating English into Thai (Support Strategies).

Table 4
Means, Standard Deviations, Mean Differences, and Level of Use of Reading Strategies by High and Low Proficient English Major Students in Reading Online Academic Texts

Reading Strategies	English Majors (HP) (N=20)		Level	English Majors (LP) (N=20)		Level	t-value	p
	Mean	**S.D.**		**Mean**	**S.D.**			
Global Reading Strategies	3.42	0.22	Medium	2.85	0.23	Medium	7.948	0.001*
Problem Solving Strategies	3.45	0.23	Medium	2.85	0.29	Medium	7.282	0.001*
Support Strategies	3.56	0.22	High	2.80	0.29	Medium	9.238	0.001*
Overall	**3.48**	**0.14**	**Medium**	**2.83**	**0.18**	**Medium**	**12.724**	**0.001***

* Significance at the 0.05 level

Table 4 shows that high proficient English majors used online reading strategies at the high level while low proficient students used it at the medium level. When each type of strategies was examined, it was found that high proficient students used Support Strategies at the high level and used Global Strategies and Problem Strategies at the medium level, but low proficient students used it at the low level.

In reading online texts, high proficient English majors used scanning the text, using background knowledge, focusing on the main point, using context clue to guess the meaning, rereading, using grammatical rules while low proficient students used scanning text, taking note, rereading, using dictionary and translating. The results showed that high proficient students used several reading strategies more skillfully. They applied their reading strategies when they faced with the difficult text or unknown words. For example, they focused on the main point while reading to understand the concept of the text, and when they saw the unknown words they tried not to use the dictionary to clarify the meaning, but they continued reading other sentences or used the context or looked for the clues to help them to understand the unknown words.

On the other hand, low proficient English majors were less capable of using reading strategies when reading online texts. For instance, they rarely found the main point or idea of the text or using their background knowledge to help understand the text. They only read through the end of each part of the text, and sometimes they lost concentration while reading because they focused on decoding the meaning of the unknown words. The finding was consistent with the results of Carrell's (1998) and Kletzien's (1991) studies which indicated that the low proficient students were likely to focus on reading as a word-level decoding-process rather than meaning-making process. They did not employ the strategies that high proficient students used to get their comprehension. Although some strategies that high and low proficient students used are in common, they used them with different purposes.

The Use of Reading Strategies of High and Low Proficient Science Students and High and Low Proficient English Majors in Reading Printed Academic Texts

Table 5 illustrates the differences in the use of reading strategies for printed academic texts of high and low proficient science students and Table 6 illustrates the differences in the use of reading strategies for printed academic texts of high and low proficient English manor students.

Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations Mean Differences, the Level of Use of Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies by High and Low Proficient Science Students in Reading Printed Academic Texts

Reading Strategies	Science Students (HP) (N=19)		Level	Science Students (LP) (N=19)		Level	t-value	p
	Mean	**S.D.**		**Mean**	**S.D.**			
Cognitive strategies	3.41	0.51	Medium	2.73	0.56	Medium	3.922	0.000*
Metacognitive strategies	3.27	0.58	Medium	2.79	0.67	Medium	2.353	0.024*
Overall	**3.34**	**0.52**	**Medium**	**2.76**	**0.59**	**Medium**	**3.232**	**0.003***

* Significance at the 0.05 level

As shown in Table 5, the significant differences in the use of reading strategies for printed academic texts of high and low proficient science students were found in the use of Cognitive Strategies at the 0.01 and 0.05 for Metacognitive strategies.

High science students used higher level of reading strategies in reading printed academic text than the low proficient students in both Cognitive Strategies and Metacognitive Strategies. A large amount of research in reading and read strategies revealed that good readers outperform the poor readers in monitoring their comprehension. They are also aware of the strategies use than the poor ones (Garner, 1987 as cited in Song, 1998). The good reader may distinguish between important information and details as they read and they might be able to use context clues to anticipate information and/or link the ideas between the text, and they can apply strategies to make the inconsistencies in the text understandable to them (Baker & Brown, 1984). Similarly, Carrell (1998) asserts that unskilled readers do not often use successful strategies as good readers do; in contrast, they often focus on decoding single words, fail to adjust their reading for different texts or purposes, and seldom look ahead or back in text to monitor and improve comprehension. The unskilled readers have cognitive limitations, they are not motivated to use reading strategies or to read for success; therefore, they do ignore to apply any effective reading strategies. **237**

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, Mean Differences and the Level of Use of Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies by High and Low Proficient English Major Students in Reading Printed Academic Texts

Reading Strategies	**English Majors (HP) (N=20)**		**Level**	**English Majors (LP) (N=20)**		**Level**	**t-value**	**p**
	Mean	**S.D.**		**Mean**	**S.D.**			
Cognitive strategies	3.68	0.16	High	2.94	0.22	Medium	12.110	0.001*
Metacognitive strategies	3.63	0.25	High	2.88	0.18	Medium	10.826	0.001*
Overall	**3.66**	**0.15**	**High**	**2.91**	**0.16**	**Medium**	**15.156**	**0.001***

* Significance at the 0.05 level

Table 6 shows that overall high and low proficient English majors used Cognitive Strategies more often than Metacognitive Strategies. However, both high and low proficient English majors used Cognitive Strategies most. Statistical significance was found in the use of both strategies between high and low proficient English majors.

In reading printed texts, high proficient students used the Cognitive strategies and Metacognitive Strategies more highly than low proficient students. This result can be explained that high proficient students applied reading strategies such as note-taking, predicting, paraphrasing, making inferences, self-questioning, setting purposes in mind, finding the main idea, and using signal words to understand of what they have read. However, the reading strategies use of low proficient students was less effectively. The plausible explanation is that they usually have problems with interpreting single word or fail to adjust their reading goals or purposes. Another possible reason can corroborate with the discussion for the differences between high and low proficient science students described above.

Qualitative Results from the Think-aloud Tasks

The following section presents the qualitative results aiming at answering how high and low proficient science students and high and low English majors use reading strategies in reading online and printed academic texts. Think-aloud transcriptions were analyzed based on the categories of reading strategies in the quantitative part. Table 7 and 8 shows the reading strategies that high and low proficient science students used in reading online academic texts; Table 9 and 10 illustrates the reading strategies revealed reading strategies the two groups of students with different proficient levels used in real situations when they performed the think-aloud tasks.

Table 7

Strategies Used by High and Low Proficient Science Students in Reading Online Academic Texts in the Think-aloud Sessions

Reading Strategies	Online Academic Texts	
	High Proficient Science Students	**Low Proficient Science Students**
Global Reading Strategies	Scanning text Focusing on the main point Using context clue to guess the meaning	Scanning texts Focusing on the main point -
Problem Solving Strategies	Using background knowledge Rereading Using grammatical rules	Using background knowledge Rereading Using grammatical rule
Support Strategies	Taking notes - -	- Using a dictionary Translating English into Thai

As shown in Table 7, high proficient science students used Global Strategies: scanning the text, focusing on the main point, and using context clues to guess the meaning; whereas, low proficient science students used two strategies except for using context clues. For Problem Solving Strategies both groups of science students used the same strategies: For Support Strategies, high proficient science students used taking notes to help whereas low proficient science students did not take notes, but they used a dictionary and translated the meaning of the texts read from English into Thai**.**

Table 8

Strategies Used by High and Low Proficient Students Majoring in English in Reading Online Academic Texts in the Think-aloud Sessions

Reading Strategies	Online Academic Texts	
	High Proficient English Major Students	**Low Proficient English Major Students**
Global Reading Strategies	Scanning the text Focusing on the main point Using context clue to guess the meaning	Scanning the text - -
Problem Solving Strategies	Using background knowledge Rereading Using grammatical rules	- Rereading -
Support Strategies	- - -	Taking notes Using dictionary Translating English into Thai

Table 8 shows that in online reading high proficient English majors used Global Reading Strategies and Problem Solving most while Support Strategies were not used. However, low proficient students used few reading strategies (one Global Strategies and one Problem Solving); they used all Support Strategies. 45

Table 9
Strategies Used by High and Low Proficient Science Students in Reading Printed Academic Texts in the Think-Aloud Sessions

Reading Strategies	Printed Academic Texts	
	High Proficient Science Students	**Low Proficient Science Students**
Cognitive Strategies	Using background knowledge Looking at linguistic markers	Taking notes Using dictionary Translating English into Thai
Metacognitive Strategies	Scanning text Looking at the organization Looking for topic sentence Using context clue to guess the meaning Previewing the main idea	Scanning the text Rereading

As shown in Table 9, it demonstrates that high proficient students employed Cognitive Strategies by using background knowledge when they read printed academic text. Noticeably, those high proficient science students used Metacognitive Strategies most including scanning the text, looking at the organization, looking for topic sentence, using context clues to help in guessing the meaning of words, and previewing the main idea. For low proficient students, they used Cognitive Strategies including taking notes, using the dictionary, and translating English into Thai. In addition, the low proficient students used a few Metacognitive Strategies.

Table 10
Strategies Used by High and Low Proficient Students Majoring in English in Reading Printed Academic Texts in the Think-Aloud Sessions

Reading Strategies	Printed Academic Texts	
	High Proficient English Major Students	**Low Proficient English Major Students**
Cognitive Strategies	Using background knowledge - - -	- Taking notes Using dictionary Translating English into Thai
Metacognitive Strategies	Scanning the text Rereading Focusing on the main point Using grammatical rules Using context clue to guess the meaning	Scanning the text Rereading - - -

Table 10 indicates that in reading printed texts, high proficient English majors used Cognitive Strategies: background knowledge. Interestingly, high proficient students used Metacognitive Strategies: scanning the text, rereading, focusing on the main point, using grammatical rules, and context clue to guess the meaning. For low proficient students, they used Cognitive Strategies: taking notes, using the dictionary, and translating English into Thai. In addition, low proficient students used a few Metacognitive Strategies; they used scanning and rereading the texts.

Implications of the Study

This study has implications for reading instructions in many aspects.
Firstly, the teachers can find the ways to help students become better readers and more aware of the effective reading strategies, particularly metacognitive strategies.

Secondly, low proficient students should be trained to employ reading strategies that high proficient students used in reading both online and printed texts, and teachers should provide activities or encourage the low proficient students to learn and practice their reading strategies.

Thirdly, readers need to be able to understand where, when, why and how to use strategies in an appropriate domains (Baker, 1984). Teachers can provide explicit instruction on cognitive reading strategies or metacognitive reading strategies so that students are better able to use and evaluate these strategies then they can learn to monitor and improve their reading comprehension.

Recommendations for Further Studies

The present study explored leaves a number of directions for future research as follows.

1. It would be interesting to conduct study by exploring reading strategies students use in different types of text such as narrative texts, persuasive text or informative text. The comparative studies on reading strategies used between male and female readers in reading online and printed texts are recommended.

2. The studies should be carried out with the subjects from different contexts, levels and English proficiency level. In addition, the time for study should be expanded, so the researcher can repeat the study to obtain more reliable information.

3. Studies that investigate the effects of strategy training are also interesting for the researchers. This type of research should be also examined to compare the proficiency of reading comprehension between two groups of students: Strategy Training Group and Non Strategy Training Group.

Conclusion

This study was conducted to investigate reading strategies science students and English major students employed in reading online and printed academic texts. The study was a mixed-methods by nature. It combined quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis so that the results reading strategies used by all participants were triangulated. The results of the quantitative data revealed that both high and low proficient students in both fields have a strong tendency to apply reading strategies differently. That is, high proficient students in two different majors used more effective reading strategies than low proficient students in both types of texts. Therefore, to develop students' reading ability, the students with low proficient level should be taught to employ reading strategies that high proficient students use to read both online and printed texts more frequently and automatically.

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TEXTULA: Promoting Filipino Folk Poetry Through Text Messaging

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Abstract

Text messaging has become a primary means of communication in the Philippines. Across social classes, Filipinos send text messages to family members and friends to keep in touch or simply express their love and concern. Amazingly, the supposedly mechanical and thus impersonal cell phone has become an extension of the person and has greatly affected the way people relate to one another. Today, through Short Messaging Service or simply SMS, zealous traders can close big deals in the same way that love struck individuals can seal romantic relationships. Advertisers have also engaged millions of SMS subscribers in games or contests primarily intended to sell commercial products of local and multinational companies.

Since 2003, on the other hand, a group of concerned Filipino artists have made use of the cell phone to promote Filipino folk poetry forms that have almost been forgotten by the present generation due to the proliferation of popular culture in the mass media. This group has continually organized poetry writing contests where participants are asked to send in entries through SMS. This has caught wide attention and thus elevated the cell phone from a mere communication gadget into an apparently effective tool for preserving a folk art.

This short presentation is a preliminary appreciation of what seems to be a promising relationship between poetry and cell phone, which one may actually perceive as a meeting of the traditional and the modern or of the artistic and scientific.

From Orality to "Textuality"

In his pioneering book *Transforming Technologies: Altered Selves, Mobile Phone and Internet Use in the Philippines* (2006), leading Filipino Sociologist Raul Pertierra affirms that the Philippines is known as the texting capital of the world. Based on the data he gathered, Filipinos send over 300 million texts daily, which, he claims, is ten times the per capita world average (Pertierra, 2006, p. 41). Moreover, according to a 2010 report of the GMA News TV, one of the leading television networks in the Philippines, based on a survey conducted by the US-based technology and social media news *blog Mashable.com*, an average Filipino mobile subscriber sends 600 text messages in a month (GMANews.TV, August 18, 2010).

Pertierra cites the availability of the cell phone to people from all walks of life as one of the reasons why most Filipinos engage in text messaging (Pertierra, 2006, p. 15). A one peso SMS is indeed a lot cheaper than a regular call that normally costs 10 pesos per minute for local and 20 pesos for international. Besides, one can send a text message to a loved one or a friend anywhere in the world without the worries of bothering or interrupting an important activity of the recipient. See how it is made to appear convenient and economical in this internet advertisement:

> Sending text messages is an instant and memorable way to talk with your loved ones. You don't have to worry about voice mail or being hooked up to the Internet. Your message will be delivered instantly, no matter where your loved one is. Unlike voice conversations, SMS can be sent and received privately, or in busy situations. You can even delay your messages to arrive a few hours later, so you can send a "good morning" message to Iraq even if you are about to go to bed here (http://www.ipipi.com).

Moreover, in an earlier work, Petierra, Ugarte, Pingol, Hernandez, and Dacanay (2002) explain that text messsaging is an extension of orality. It has allowed people to communicate intimately whenever deemed necessary, defying spatial boundaries or great distances. Though it is in the form of writing, which for centuries has been the foremost human technology instrumental in the preservation of oral utterances, text messaging differs as it combines orality with textuality.

This oral characteristic of text messaging inspired Dr. Victor Emmanuel Carmelo D. Nadera Jr., professor of literature and former director of the University of the Philippines Institute of Creative Writing, to initiate a poetry writing contest where participants would submit their entries using SMS in 2003. Dubbed as "*TEXTANAGA*," a title that combines the words "text" and "tanaga," which is a pre-colonial Tagalog poetry form that consists of four mono-rhyming lines each with seven syllables, this contest was considered by Dr. Virgilio S. Almario, Philippine National Artist for Literature, as an innovative way of reawakening the interest of the people in the native verbal arts. In his introduction in the special publication of the winning entries in this contest in 2003, Almario declares:

> *Bukod sa inobatibong paggamit ng texting, pinalawak ngayon ng naturang kontest ang kamalayan sa tanaga hindi lamang sa mas malaking bilang ng kasalukuyang makata kundi maging sa henerasyon ng mga Filipinong limitado ang kaalaman sa sarili't katutubong panitikan ng Filipinas.*
> (Aside from being an innovative use of texting, this contest has magnified the consciousness about the *tanaga* not only among contemporary poets but especially among the present generation of Filipinos who have very limited knowledge about themselves and the native literature of the Philippines.) (Almario, Baquiran & Nadera, 2003a).

The Committee on Literary Arts (CLA) of the National Commission for Culture and the Arts (NCCA), an agency directly under the Office of the President of the Philippines, adopted *TEXTANAGA* as its flagship project for 2003. It was ably supported by the staff of the UP Institute of Creative Writing (UP ICW), of which Nadera was the director, and by two leading literary and language organizations in the Philippines, namely, *Unyon ng mga Manunulat sa Pilipinas* (Writers Union of the Philippines) and Filipinas Institute of Translation (FIT).

With romantic love as theme, which was understandably chosen to attract more participation as love is the most universal of all human emotions and the most favored subject of any friendly-intimate discussion, the organizers received a total of 10,000 *tanaga* entries from Metro Manila and from the provinces of Bulacan, Nueva Ecija, Pangasinan, Laguna, Batangas, Quezon, Bicol, and Palawan. What was worth celebrating for Almario is that the participants were representatives of various sectors in Philippine society—teachers, students, clerks, businessmen, lawyers, military, and even priests (Almario et al., 2003a).

The organizers invited professional poets and literary critics to judge the entries. Eight weekly "text poets" were declared and each of them received a cash prize of 2,000 pesos, a relatively handsome amount for a four-line poem. All the winning *tanaga* entries plus those that merited the nod of the jurors but did not make it to the top were later compiled in a special commemorative book that was published by the National Commission for Culture and the Arts in the middle of 2003.

Here are the top four winning *tanaga* entries in the first ever poetry writing contest in the Philippines, and probably in the world, that placed text messaging into a poetic use:

Nang ako'y nag-aabang
Ng tala't bulalakaw
Bigla kang napadaan
At ako'y tinamaan. (Mark Abeleda)
(While I eagerly await
For the stars and comets,
You suddenly passed by
And directly I got hit.) (Almario et al., 2003a)

Ay! Masaganang payaw
Ang katawan mo, mahal
At bul-ol akong bantay
Sa mapintog mong palay. (Danny de la Cruz)
(Oh, your body, my love,
Is a fertile land for farming,
I am a god guarding
Your rich, plump grains.) (Almario et al., 2003a)

Ako'y si Juan, irog;
Bayabas kang matayog
Hihintaying mahinog
Hanggang sa 'ki'y mahulog. (Jonatahan Francisco)
(I am Juan, my love,
And you're a guava on top,
I will wait until you ripen
And finally fall into my mouth.) (Almario et al., 2003a)

Sa tapayang malalim
Tayo ay isda't asin
Matagal buburuhin,
Patis ang kakatasin. (Mario Lamar)
(In a large earthen jar,
You and I are fish and salt
That must be preserved for days
To be able to extract a tasty fish sauce.) (Almario et al., 2003a)

The poems were evaluated according to the strict standards of the tanaga. Almario attests that, "*Itinatanghal sa mga nagwagi linggo-linggo ang mataas na uri ng pananalinghaga, gaya ng hinihingi sa tanaga*" (Genuine creativity and outstanding imagery that makes up a *tanaga* is evident in all the weekly winners.) (Almario et al., 2003a). Undoubtedly, these four examples and the rest of the entries selected for publication showcase Filipino language, literature, and culture at its best.

Mark John Abeleda's *tanaga*, for instance, is a playful take on the habit of stargazing that is commonly associated with daydreaming or fantasizing. When the addressee of the poem passes by, the persona suddenly arrives at a realization—an epiphany—that there are better and realistic things worth considering like the addressee with whom the persona has gotten hooked to as implied by the word "tinamaan" that literally means "hit." Paradoxically, this "hit" that is supposed to hurt, as caused by an impact, turns out to be a "haplos" or a caressing touch that lured the persona.

Danny de la Cruz's *tanaga* uses the image of the "payaw" more popularly known as the rice terraces to describe the body of the persona's beloved. The persona likens himself to a "bul-ol," a spirit guardian of the Ifugaos whom these native Filipinos believe to protect their granaries. The "palay" (rice grain) of the persona's beloved is described as "mapintog," which literally means "swelling," thus creating a sensual visual effect of the poem.

Jonathan Francisco's *tanaga* uses the character of a Filipino folktale for a persona—Juan Tamad (Lazy John), who, as his name implies, spends all his days and nights without lifting even a finger. In one of the popular scenes in his story, Juan lies down beneath a guava tree; his mouth is wide open waiting for the ripe fruit to fall. In this tanaga, Juan becomes the lover and the fruit is his object of affection. He does not act positively to attain his goal leaving everything to fate.
Mario Lamar, on the other hand, paints a delectable image of romance. Developing a relationship is like making "patis," a fish sauce that Filipinos love to use to add salty flavor to any dish. With "banga" or an earthen jar as central metaphor, this *tanaga* is indeed sensual as it provokes the imagination to relate this concave container to the womb. Obviously, the salty sauce with a rotten or stinky smell that could be obtained from this container, which is made of mud that is always associated with human frailty, is suggestive of images undoubtedly erotic.
Undeniably, metaphor is a very oral characteristic of the *tanaga*. The poet uses words to paint pictures with the mind of his audience as canvass. He or she chooses words that readily activate the imagination of the listeners. Like all good poetry, a good *tanaga* is that which impels one to visualize what the poet is trying to say.

Moreover, rhyme and meter are two distinct characteristics of the *tanaga*. Repeated sounds and number of syllables create a rhythm that facilitates easy recall and understanding of the poem. Without this rhythm, one cannot simply distinguish whether an uttered expression is a poem or a prose. This oral characteristic is the very reason why there are lines in writing poems. Line cutting is a device specific to writing, not composing poems orally. The oral poet does not think of lines on a page, but of rhythm that listeners can easily detect through rhyme and meter.
In writing the *tanaga* on the screen of the cell phone, one does not follow the formal conventions of writing. In texting, one is constrained to device ways to shorten expressions due to the limited number of characters that can be used in a single message. In texting a *tanaga*, the conventional line cutting seen in written poetry is absent. One recognizes it only as a poem, or specifically a *tanaga*, because there is rhythm as though the receiver of the message can hear in his mind the words that he reads. Consider this illustration:

> *Akoy si Juan irog bayabas kang matayog hihintaying mahinog hanggang sa kiy mahulog.*

This is how the *tanaga* of Jonathan Francisco, an example described earlier, looks on the screen of the cell phone. It only assumed the conventional appearance of a poem in a page when it was chosen to be published in the commemorative book of the *TEXTANAGA* contest.

One can only recognize it as a *tanaga* because of its inherent rhythm provided for by the rhyming words "irog," "matayog," "mahinog," and "mahulog." The last syllable of each of these words is also the seventh syllable of each line of the poem if we envision it in a typical page:

A (1) *koy* (2) *si* (3) *Ju* (4) *an* (5) *i* (6) ***rog*** (7) *ba* (1) *ya* (2) *bas* (3) *kang* (4) *ma* (5) *ta* (6) ***yog*** (7) *hi* (1) *hin* (2) *ta* (3) *ying* (4) *ma* (5) *hi* (6) ***nog*** (7) *hang* (1) *gang* (2) *sa* (3) *kiy* (4) *ma* (5) *hu* (6) ***log*** (7).

This illustration indeed affirms what Pertierra et al. (2002) claim about text messaging: "The construction and use of text messages invoke an ephemeral quality that more resembles the informalities of speech than the norms of writing." Truly, the *tanaga* as texted is poetry that the mind of the receiver can detect as though recited orally.

The *Text* of Success

Shortly after the success of *Textanaga* came *Dalitext* in August 2003. This time, the focus was on the *dalit*, another folk Tagalog poetry form. It consists of four mono-rhyming lines each with eight syllables. With "love for country" as theme, the organizers received 30,000 entries for the whole month of August. The following *dalit* written by Vladimeir Gonzales is an outstanding example of the entries in this contest.

Ang punong mangga'y tinagpas
at sinilaban ang ugat;
bunga'y nalaglag, naagnas,
namula't naging mansanas.

(One chopped down the mango tree
And all its roots were burned;
All its fruits fell off and rotted,
And into apples they were transformed.)

This is a symbolic way of dramatizing the conflict between love of country and colonialism. Mango is the national fruit of the Philippines. Apple, which is primarily associated with the United States of America, particularly New York (which is known the Big Apple), is the favorite fruit of Filipinos especially during Christmas season.

On February 2004 came Dionatext. Diona is another ancient folk Tagalog poetry form that consists of three mono-rhyming lines each with seven or eight syllables. This time, the theme was about the importance of the family. The following *diona* by Raymund Pambid was one of the weekly winners:

Ang payong ko'y si Inay
Kapote ko si Itay
Sa maulan kong buhay.
(In this my rainy life,
Father is my raincoat,
Mother is my umbrella."

Annually since 2004, the same of group of people has been organizing national poetry writing contests via text messaging. Each contest highlighted a particular Filipino folk poetry form by affixing its name into the word "text" as in the case of *Textanaga*, *Dalitext*, and *Dionatext*. Various themes significant to the contemporary Filipino way of life have been utilized.

"Textula," a combination of the words "text" and "tula," the Filipino word for poetry, has become the generic name of the contest. The poet who writes poetry specifically through text messaging has become to be known as "Textmakata." "*Makata*" is the Filipino equivalent of the word “poet.” They even introduced *Textigmo* for the Cebuano speakers and the *Textpaktakon* for the Hiligaynon speakers.

Just this October 2012, Dr. Nadera worked together with Foundation for Advancing Wellness, Instruction and Talents, Inc. (AWIT) and they came up with *Dionatext Kontra Depresyon* (*Dionatext Against Depression*) in observance of the World Mental Health Month. Just as in the previous contests, entries were submitted through text messaging with “triumph over depression” as theme. This contest was able to generate around 10,000 *dalits* that champion positive outlook about life. Ruel A. Solitario of Bagong Silang, Caloocan City, and who is a licensed and practicing occupational therapist, bagged the title Textmakata ng Taon for this *diona*:

Di na sana didilat
Pagkat walang natupad
Buti, libre mangarap!

(I no longer wanted to open my eyes
Because I’ve achieved nothing; thank goodness,
However, I’m always free to dream.)

Retrospection rather than a Conclusion

Yes, it can be said by now that *textula* has been a successful endeavor for almost a decade. Composing contemporary poetry using folk forms is undoubtedly an innovative use of the cell phone. However, one could not help asking several questions regarding its seemingly resounding victory.

Looking at the number of short poems that these contests have generated for the last nine years, which could be estimated at around 100,000, one can readily claim that this is a bountiful harvest. Considering, however, that Filipinos send 300 million text messages daily according to Raul Pertierra, 100,000 is but a fraction or negligible. This implies that there are other important factors to consider in this herculean task of promoting folk poetry forms among the present and succeeding generations of Filipinos.

Colonialism has taken its toll in the way Filipinos value their cultural and literary legacy. Commercialism has compounded the situation in the last 100 years. What was left of the traces of a glorious pre-colonial past still remains undiscovered by the Filipinos themselves. Dr. Nadera and his associates should be commended for all their efforts to reintroduce to their countrymen the art of an oral expression that proves valuable in advancing socio-political causes. They need all the support that can be provided by government agencies like the Department of Education and the Department of Telecommunications. Funding is necessary for a grand venture as this one, but as can always be expected in a profit-oriented system, there is only a handful or more realistically none at all would risk investing.

A certain Joel Malabanan of Cavite, who teaches Filipino Language and Literature in private college in his province and has been a consistent participant and winner in all *Textula* contests, has introduced a similar project in his school. His students as well as his administrators supported his efforts as they saw it effective in the teaching of language, literature, and socio-cultural awareness. But, how many Joel Malabanan are there to stand up for the cause of a seemingly lost form of expression that was once responsible for the integration of society as it used to bear the truth that our ancestors upheld and fought for.

Or, maybe poetry is a form of expression that has to be suppressed as it activates the imagination and instigates one to question convention. History has proven that a poem or a song could unite and drive a people to demand and struggle for their rights and political freedom.
Only last November, news said that there has been a decline in the use of text messaging around the world and even in the Philippines that is said to be its capital. The reason: more internet accessibility and social networking sites such as the Facebook. In what way can this be of help to the promotion of folk poetry forms? As always, I am just so excited to see what the future holds.

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Effects of Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* Students' English Speaking Competence Through AComplete Package of Speaking Skills Training

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to (1) investigate English speaking competence of Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students, (2) compare English speaking competence of Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students before and after the treatment., and (3) explore Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students' opinions towards the lessons created and planned according to the complete package of speaking skill training.

The subject were 15 Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students in the first semester of academic year 2010 at Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University*, Nakhonratchasima campus, Nakhon Ratchasima Province selected by the simple random sampling technique. Twelve weeks were spent on this research. The instruments were (1) the questionnaire related to students' problems about the English instruction, (2) classroom observation, (3) semi-structured interview, (4) teaching notes, (5) speaking criteria, and (6) teaching materials. The scores of English speaking competence were analyzed and interpreted statistically in terms of mean ($\bar{x}$), standard deviation (S.D.), and
t-test (pretest and posttest) with the criterion of 70%.

The results of the study showed as follows:

1.After having been exposed to the complete English package of speaking skills training, most participants' scores in the posttest were higher than the pretest**.** The scores of students' English speaking competence on the posttest of each aspect: grammar, comprehension, clarity, pronunciation, and fluency, were higher than pretest scores with statistical significance at the 0.05 level.

2. The scores of the students' English speaking competence on the overall aspect posttest were higher than pretest scores with statistical significance at the .05 level. Most samples' scores in the posttest were higher than the criterion of 70%. Moreover, the scores of the students' English speaking competence posttest of each aspect: grammar, comprehension, clarity, pronunciation, and fluency, were higher than the criterion of 70% with the statistical significance at the .05 level.

3.The overall satisfaction to the complete package of English speaking training was in the highest level with the mean of 4.87.

In conclusion, the majority of students' speaking competence and listening skills developed satisfactorily. They had a positive attitude on the complete package of speaking skill training.

Statement of the Problems

There are varieties of language in the world, English is the most important foreign language spoken and used for communication among people from various countries all over the world as well as an instrument of search for knowledge of all fields. Moreover, it is the most widely spoken language in the world, and it is the first language spoken in Australia, Canada, the Commonwealth Caribbean, Ireland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. It is used extensively as a second language and as an official language throughout the world, especially in Commonwealth countries and in many international organizations. In other countries, English is widely used, particularly among people who have no other language in common. For example, English is widely used in Hong Kong, Singapore, Nigeria, the Philippines, and Malaysia. Besides, it is often used as a means of communication between people who have different native languages. Besides, it is used not only for communication between native speakers and nonnative speakers of English but between non-native speakers, and it will be used by more people in the future. (Manivannan, 2008:5).

English is most used and communicated internationally and globally. It is also taught as a foreign language in Thai schools. According to the curriculum expectation, students are expected to communicate effectively with native or non-native speakers. In contrast, English instruction in Thai schools appears to be unsuccessful in enhancing English proficiency for communication. Only a few students are able to communicate in English effectively and fluently, whereas the majority of students still lack the confidence to communicate in English. The English communication competence deficiency seems to result from the lack of a proper English instruction which is claimed to be essential language speaking. There are four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, speaking is considered as the most essential skill to be mastered for communicating because it is a foundation of all languages development. English language is a compulsory curriculum for every Thai citizen. Many Thai people no matter they complete a Master's degree or a Doctorate degree are unable to communicate with foreigners in English although they spend more than ten years studying English.

According to the information of the Ordinary National Education Testing (O-NET) in 2010 concluded by National Institute of Educational Testing Service. It was found that in primary six level, 898,000 pupils sat for the ONET. The lowest score of the ONET was English (31.75%). In grade nine, 794,000 pupils sat for the ONET. The lowest score of the ONET was also English (22.54%). In grade 12, 354,531 sat for the ONET, the result of English test remained the same. The score of English came last (19.22 %) (Sumpun Punpurk, 2010). Suwunee Punpurk &Chulika Mahpunthong (2007) studied the English competence of Master's degree and Doctorate degree students from King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok. It was found that the majority of students' English score was lower than the standard criteria.

At present, both the government and private sectors are alert for ASEAN community in 2015. According to the 34th rule of ASEAN, it is said that English is a main language for ASEAN community. However, the majority of Thai students spent about 16 years of time studying English, they are struggling to communicate in English. While people from the other ASEAN countries such as Vietnam, Cambodia, Philippine, and Malaysia can communicate well in English. Thus, it is time for teachers of English to change strategies of teaching English.

The above mentioned problem of students' speaking competence motivated the researcher to find a very effective approach to develop students' speaking skills regularly in the context of their interests. This should be meaningful and be adapted effectively to their daily life communication. Thus, the researcher is interested in creating the complete package focusing on developing learners' natural process of speaking competence in the real setting. Although there are different kinds of teaching approaches which tend to solve this problem, a complete package is quite distinct. This approach can help the learners not only practice speaking in class, but also adapt the language to their daily life. The learners will be involved in the steps of speaking training and lessons which are provided and prepared in a contextual way guiding them to practice speaking competence based on language development.

As a result of the findings from my own teaching practices, I draw on my experiences both practical and theoretical, and attempt to solve the problem of teaching conversational English to Thai students, especially the third year Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students' by using the complete package of speaking skills training created by the researcher. This model had been developed to encourage students to improve their speaking skills according to the real situations in their daily lives.

Objectives of the Study

1. To examine the effects of the complete package of English speaking training On Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students' English speaking competence
2. To compare Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students' English speaking competence scores before and after the treatment with the criterion of 70%.
3. To explore Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students' opinions towards the lessons created and planned according to the complete package of speaking skill training.

Significance of the research

1. The results of the study will be beneficial to English teachers and researchers in seeking proper ways to develop students' speaking competence in English classroom.
2. The results of this study will be a guideline for teachers who are seeking a proper method of teaching to improve their students' speaking competence by applying this approach to their English speaking class.

Research Methodology

This research is a one-group pretest and posttest design. Before starting the research, a pretest will be given to the samples in order to examine their prior knowledge based on English speaking competence before learning through a complete package process constructed by the researcher. At the end of the complete package process, the samples will have posttest to examine speaking English competence through a complete package process to evaluate their English speaking competence. They also have to answer a questionnaire to explore their attitudes towards this complete package process. Besides, the data from the interview and observation will be also used for data analysis.

Scopes of the Study

1. Population

The population in this study is thirty Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students who are taking English course in the third semester of the 2011 academic year at Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University*, Nakhonratchasima campus.

2. Sample

Samples consist of fifteen Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students who are taking English course in the third semester of the 2012 academic year through the purposive sampling random.

3. Variables

3.1 Independent variable is a complete package of English speaking training.

3.2 Dependent variables are students' English speaking competence, and students' opinions towards the complete package of English speaking training.

4. Contents

1. Linguistic competence
2. Communicative competence
3. Functional competence
4. Communicative patterns competence
5. Minimal responses competence
6. Strategic competence
7. Sociolinguistic competence
8. Interactional competence
9. Performance competence

All of the 9 contents for this study were adapted from the book entitled " Nine Strategies of Speaking English As Native Speakers" written by Thawascha Dechsubha (2010).

5. Validity of Research Instruments

5.1 The researcher studies how to create the completed package English instruction, questionnaires, interviews, teaching log, achievement test, and observations.

5.2 Study how to construct the above mentioned research instruments.

5.3 Set the criteria for the above mentioned research instruments.

5.4 Consult the five skilful English experts about how to construct the above mentioned research instruments. They are (1) Associate .Prof.Dr.Puangpen Intraprawat, a teacher of English at Vongchawalitkul University, (2) Dr. Theerawit Pinyonatakan, a teacher of English from School of English at Suranaree University of Technology, (3) Mr.James Patterson Turnbull, an English teacher at Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University, (4). Dr.Jason Ludington, an English teacher at Chulalongkorn University, (5). Dr.Jirasuk Sararut, Chiangmai University

5.5 Improve and develop the instrument tools as suggested.

6. Data Analysis

The data both from the pretest and posttest are analyzed by using mean ($\overline{X}$), standard deviation (S.D.) and t-test. The average scores from the English speaking competence post-tests were compared with the criterion of 70% by using percentage, mean ($\overline{X}$), standard deviation (S.D.) and t-test. The researcher analyzes the data as follows:

6.1 Analyze percentage, means and standard deviation (S.D) of the scores both from pretest and posttest for English learning achievement test.

6.2 Compare pre-test and post-test scores by using t-test for dependent.

6.3 Data from opinion questionnaire are rated by rating scale calculated in percentage. The data reflect the learners' opinion towards the use of the complete package of English speaking skill training.

The rating scale is interpreted as follows:

The scales are adopted in rating the level of their opinions are;

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neutral
4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree

(Rating scales are adapted from Likert scale).

Results of the Study

The purpose of this research is to report on the findings obtained regarding to the effect of English speaking competence of Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students based on a complete package of English speaking training created by the researcher. Moreover, their opinions about studying English through the complete package is also included. The analysis of the data was collected through the pretest, posttest, observation, a questionnaire and an interview.

The findings of the study are presented in this chapter according to the objectives of the study focusing on examining the effects of the complete package of English speaking training on Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students' English speaking competence, comparing Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students' English speaking competence scores before and after the treatment with the criterion of 70%, and exploring Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya *University* students' opinions towards the lessons created and planned according to the complete package of speaking skill training. This study also wants to report on the hypothesis 1, which stated that students who have studied English via the complete package of English speaking training will achieve significantly higher average scores on the speaking posttest than the pretest at the .05 level. Besides, it is going to test the hypothesis 2, which claims that the average scores of English speaking posttest of students who have studied English via the complete package of English speaking training is significantly higher than the criterion of 70% at the .05 level.

Results from the Interview and Oral Presentation

The researcher interviewed the students' interaction in the classroom and utilized in 3 categories : knowledge, English speaking competence and opinion towards learning English. While interviewing them, each student was recorded by the tape. But, it was not possible to identify each student. Thus, I decided to summarize the major issues emerged from the activity. Recording helped identify the major process of the research including the strength and limitations of the research process. The results were as follows:

1. Knowledge

Students expressed the utilization of the English speaking competence assessment
The students excitedly participated in completing activities focused on real life situations, language structure and vocabularies that were associated with daily life. Students also built confidence and used English with less fear of failure. The researcher interviewed fifteen students about their competence and opinions about studying English through the complete package of English speaking training.

2. English speaking competence

Students think that learning English with the complete package improves their English language skills. They expanded their thinking further :

Information about my observation in the class while teaching them also showed that the majority of students did not have self-confidence in speaking English because of thinking that they were not good at grammar. Thus, they felt shy to speak English. As a result, they seldom spoke in English. However, their English speaking competence developed after being taught to develop their English speaking competence through the complete package of English speaking training.

3. Opinion towards learning English

Students' opinion toward learning English through the complete package of English speaking training was evaluated. They reflected their opinions about studying English in the classroom through the complete package process by saying that they also enjoyed learning through the activities arranged by the teacher.

Some of the students' reflection mentioned above can be proved that their English speaking competence improved. Besides, they are interested in being actively engaged in the learning process by sharing their ideas with the teacher, and their friends effectively. Thus, this evidence can prove that they have become active participants and self directed learners because of having high motivation in learning, planning their own activit.es, and being interested in the learning process. Therefore, learning English through the complete package of English speaking training could develop students' English speaking competence.

Conclusion

The final finding of the study indicated that students' English speaking competency improved significantly after the complete package process. However, in order to make the finding clearer, the conclusion was divided into nine categories as follows:

1. The post-test mean score of English speaking competency of students who studied through the complete package of English speaking training was significantly higher than the pre-test mean score at the .05 level. The results from Table 5 showed that before learning English via the complete package of English speaking training, the highest score of the English speaking competency pretest of students consisted of 14 points, and the lowest score of English speaking ability pretest of students appeared 11 points. After studying English via the complete package of English speaking training, the highest score of the English speaking competency posttest of students remained 22 points. The lowest scores from the posttest increased from 11 to 16 in the posttest. Most participants' scores in the posttest are higher than the pretest.

2. The post-test mean score of English speaking competency of students who studied through the complete package of English speaking training was higher than the criterion of 70% with the statistical significance at the .05 level. The results from Table 7 showed that the highest score of English peaking ability posttest consisted of 22 points, and the percentage mean score was 80.00%. The lowest score of English speaking ability posttest remained 16 points, and the percentage mean score was 64%. As a result, the total mean score of English speaking ability posttest was 18.933, and percentage mean score was 75.73%. So, the results indicated that students passed the test which was set at 70%. Most participants obtained scores in the posttest higher than the criterion of 70%.

3. Students' opinion about studying English through the complete package of English speaking training was positive. The results of their English speaking competency improved. The overall satisfaction to the lecturer was in the highest level with the mean of 4.87. According to the table 9, the mean score of 4.21 – 5.00 referred to the highest satisfaction of students about the complete package of English speaking training.

4. The scores of students' English speaking competency on the posttest of each aspect: grammar, comprehension, clarity, pronunciation, and fluency, were higher than pretest scores with statistical significance at the 0.05 level. The results from Table 8 showed that the scores of the students' English speaking competency posttest of each aspect: grammar,

comprehension, clarity, pronunciation, and fluency, were higher than the criterion of 70% with the statistical significance at the .05 level. In addition, the scores of the students' English speaking ability posttest of overall aspects were higher than the criterion of 70% with the statistical significance at the 0.05 level. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was validated.

5. The Table 9 showed that the majority of trainees thought that the lecturer gave knowledge with politeness and friendliness. The overall satisfaction of English capacity development was in the highest level with the mean of 4.87. While giving knowledge and training came second, and were considered very useful.

6. Data from the interview indicated that students admitted that their English speaking competency improved significantly after joining this project. Moreover, the overall satisfaction to the lecturer was in the highest level with the mean of 4.87 as in "1 improve my speaking when the teacher allows me to answer the questions. I have a chance to practice my listening and speaking ability while being interviewed."

7. The majority of questionnaire answerers claimed that the service of English listening was most needed with the percentage of 35.71 as presented in Table 10.

8. Students had a positive thinking on studying English through the complete package of English speaking training. Moreover, 37.93 % of them indicated that joining this project assisted their English speaking competency.

9. Data from my observation while doing this research showed that students thought that their English speaking competency with the complete package improved significantly as the evidence in chapter 4 (Most participants' scores in the posttest were higher than the criterion of 70%).

In conclusion, most students achieved significantly higher scores on the English speaking competency posttest than the English speaking competency posttest. The overall scores of English speaking competency posttest of students were significantly higher than the criterion of 70% at the .05 level. Thus, it can be concluded that the complete package of English speaking training can improve students' English speaking competency.

Recommendations

Two kinds of recommendations will be explained as follows:

1. Recommendation for instruction

1.1 For creating the complete package of English speaking competency, the teacher should prepare to build up the complete package English speaking competency by reading theories or research related to the complete package.

1.2 The teacher should encourage students to acquire speaking experience both inside and outside the classroom.

13. The contents used in the learning activities should be relevant to students' interests or needs.

2. Recommendations for further study

2.1 Further studies should investigate the instructional materials promoting the integration of English speaking competency.

2.3 Further studies should be related to the design of the complete package accompanied by sound, animation and video.

2.4Researchers should continue to study a variety of methods to improve English capacity by using the complete package of English speaking competency.

2.5 Further studies should be conducted using samples with different levels of learning achievement to find out the real results of the complete package of English competency.

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Multi-Model Strategies for Improving Report Writing

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Abstract

College students are expected to acquire the ability to communicate using written materials for assignments, exams or term-papers. It is vital to achieve communicative goals through a variety of written texts for a spectrum of purposes. Students must approach written assignments with alluring, succinct, and creative text that quickly generates cognitive comprehension and aesthetic appreciation. This paper describes some multi-model strategies for generating written reports and improving them through an iterative process of reviewing, editing and rewriting. One of the assumptions is that repeated attempts of multiple inspiring, innovative, thrilling, creative and stimulating, review and editing techniques can be used for developing a well-written report through stages of improvements. A case study is used for demonstrating the effectiveness of the process and the multi-model strategies employed for improving research reports written by college students.

Keywords: Cognitive load, cognitive models, problem-solving, skills.

Introduction

There are no formal prerequisite qualifications for being a good writer, but there are a number of skills that are useful. Skills in language, rhetoric, syntax, clarity of thought and discussion are just a few to get started. This research is from an instructor's perspective. It suggests some basic areas that come together when a student creates a report. Some organized strategies are recommended which are based on recent studies of cognitive models of writing. Instructors can play an important role in the entire process. Although the so-called modes such as narrative, descriptive, expository and argumentative can be useful in instructional contexts, effective instruction "will teach students the skills they need to produce a wide range of texts, for a variety of purposes, across a broad class of social contexts" (Deane, Odendahl, Quinlan, Fowles, Welsh, & Bivens-Tatum, 2008, p. 1). The written form of communication has become significantly more important and broad in the modern technology driven times due to the fact that our communication mode is mostly in written forms, such as, emails, messages, reports, and the internet. Good writing requires an extensive skill set (Donovan 2007). Language, syntax and context need to be understood. A firm grasp of grammar is essential. A good command over the language and a knack for narrative may benefit a writer's capacity to generate informative and captivating communication. It is not reasonable to assume that people are born with a talent for writing. Writing skills are acquired through formal or informal education, training and practice. "Better writing is not something that happens overnight. It's a long-term commitment, but the payoff is great. If you make a choice every day to improve your writing, then your work will get stronger, become more compelling, and you'll drastically increase your chances of getting published and attracting a readership" (Donovan 2007). According to Farris (2001), teachers should share their writing with students. "The sharing of writing allows a teacher to send a message to students: Writing is a demanding but valuable skill to acquire." (Farris 2001, p. 304). Sharing, mentoring, guiding and helping students to write well work for both secondary and college students (Graham & Perin 2007). From the perspective of an instructor, it would appear that students understand the need to communicate in well-written reports; however, there is a tendency for students to struggle with the ability to establish a focus on the theme or topic. If students are given a range of topics on which to write their first challenge is to select a satisfactory topic that they understand sufficiently well to develop into written text. They need to feel comfortable and competent to deliver a viable product. Often times they seek after a familiar topic rather than develop the skills to conduct research, analyze alternatives and identify useful resource material. Guidance and support from a compassionate instructor in a timely manner may provide adequate help.

Models of writing

There are many models of writing; most interesting among them are the cognitive models of various kinds. Cognitive models tend to view writing as problem-solving (Deane, Odendahl, Quinlan, Fowles, Welsh, & Bivens-Tatum, 2008). Expert writers often build ornate goals which need problem-solving mechanism (Bereiter & Scardamalia 1987). For expert writers, certain processes (such as the transcription process) become relatively automatized. That is, the knowledge transforming approach is prevalent among experienced writers. Novice writers, on the other hand, typically take a different approach. They take a knowledge-telling approach in which content is generated through association, with one idea prompting the next (Bereiter & Scardamalia). The knowledge is assumed to be stored using a semantic network or distributed network where ideas are interconnected in intricate ways. The tendency to follow this pattern of written communication can often result in fragmentation and obscure assumptions between and among paragraph transitions. With experience and instruction a novice writer can become an expert; that is, many of his/her pertinent processes can become automatized and thus impose minimal cognitive load, freeing up resources for other writing processes (Deane, Odendahl, Quinlan, Fowles, Welsh, & Bivens-Tatum, 2008). Regular practice under proper guidance is one the most important steps in becoming a good writer.

Multi-Model strategies

Most of the models dealing with aspects of writing are evolving and changes are added as new insights are revealed. However, one can learn from the cognitive models which view writing as problem-solving (Deane, Odendahl, Quinlan, Fowles, Welsh, & Bivens-Tatum, 2008). The following strategies are suggested on the basis of cognitive models:

1. Acquire information: Read related articles, books, magazines etc. in the topic area or relevant areas and prepare notes. Discuss and debate the issues with other knowledgeable persons, if possible.
2. Make a list of references: Make a bibliographic reference list for the topic area.
3. Conduct research: Do your own experiments, if needed or collect results of research in the focused area.
4. Plan for writing: Make sure adequate knowledge about the topic is acquired and the format and style are familiar. The American Psychological Association (APA) style and format are very popular.
5. Start writing: Start writing with an abstract or introduction or any other section of the report. Concentrate primarily on semantics.
6. Monitor your writing: Monitor your writing process with a metacognitive strategy.
7. Focus on the introduction section: At the initial stage, try to finish writing the introduction section with a lot of references. Describe who did what in the past with adequate references. Plagiarism can be avoided by using appropriate references.

8. Pay attention to grammar, spelling, style and rhetoric: Tools can be used for spelling, grammar, style etc. However, additional attention may be needed for better achievements.
9. Review, revise and rewrite: Careful review helps in identifying defects, omissions, plagiarism, incompleteness etc. A compassionate reviewer can help the writer to cope with the challenging tasks.
10. Complete all sections: Pay attention to the big picture. Relate the sections such as abstract, introduction, main thesis, discussions, evidential reasoning, and conclusion. Everything should fit together.
11. Proofread and edit: A checklist may help in this step.
12. Repeat steps 9, 10 and 11 as needed.

An important role of the instructor at the college level is to review the report with the student and give appropriate feedbacks to the student in a timely manner. The review should address the problems in the written text; it should not criticize the writer. Each review should be treated as an opportunity for improvements. In Figure 1, the solid arrows depict the iterative application of a typical review process. However, some of the reviews may take the process back to the planning stage in order to correct major misconceptions. A top-down approach to planning or advanced planning that includes outlining may reduce cognitive load compared to real-time planning which takes place at the point of inscription when the writer pause to think about what to do next (Matsuhashi, 1981; Schilperoord, 2002). The real-time planning or dynamic planning requires juggling too many things at the same time including the structure, organization, style, format etc., with other writing processes, such as text generation and transcription. A prewriting phase is a useful component in a writing process that needs to produce a large complex report. The writer can monitor his/her writing process using metacognitive strategies (Dunlosky & Metcalfe 2008).

The iterative process of review, indicated by the solid arrows in Figure 1, was applied to a case study in which a project report was written in a period of two months. The student wrote three drafts of the report and submitted each of them for the review process in a timely manner. English was the second language for the student. Each draft was reviewed and feedbacks were given to the student within four days. A face to face discussion was held between the student and the instructor (one of the authors of this paper) each time the review was completed.

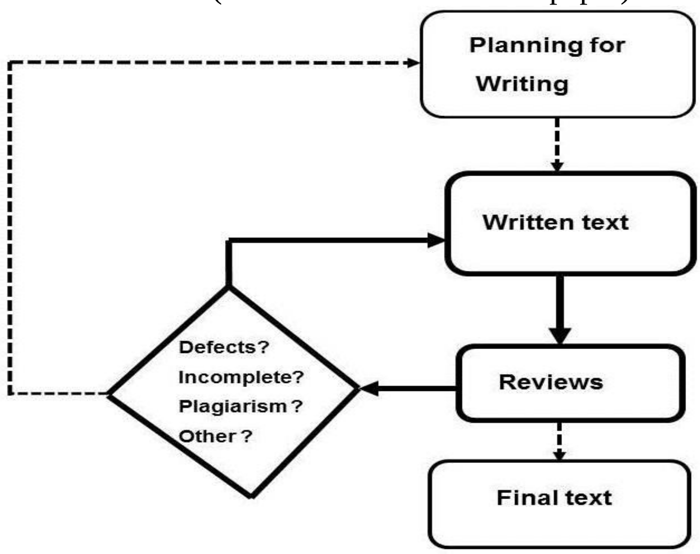

Figure 1: The importance of the review process

The review of the first draft led to the changes in planning shown at the end of the dotted arrow in Figure 1. The planning changes were mainly at the organization and outline phase of the document preparation. In addition, this review recommended concentration on the introduction section with appropriate references. The second draft fixed all major problems and significantly improved the introduction section of the document with a thorough discussion of who did what in the past in this area. The technical terms were explained appropriately with citations and references. The improvements in the introduction section created a momentum in the rewriting process and the student participated enthusiastically in the subsequent steps of the process. The introduction is the first narrative section of the report which usually impacts both the writer and the readers (Abbot 2008). The final version of the report incorporated well-organized sections including abstract, introduction, requirements analysis, design, implementation strategies, discussion, and conclusion. All these sections together created a coherent document with a logical sequence of ideas.

Conclusion

Cognitive aspects of writing are not fully understood yet. However, cognitive models of writing have revealed some insights into the writing process that can be useful in the teaching-learning environments. Writing is a complex cognitive process with heavy cognitive loads on writers. In an iterative process of writing, reviewing, rewriting, editing and practicing, most writers improve their skills. Utilization of the feedback of the review process by the writer is an integral part of report writing. Additional improvements are possible, because some of the key processes are automatized resulting in reduction of cognitive loads in the problem solving process of writing. Developing reading skills and using these in the process of writing is a big value-added improvement. Reading works of other authors helps an interested writer develop concepts of expression. The use of language can enhance and portray powerful and expressive character. As writers avails themselves of substantive readings, they acquire the ability to understand, appreciate, and perhaps adapt their ability to express and carry meaning and purpose in their own written communication. Being knowledgeable and hands-on with available tools and artifacts improves the quality and readability of created reports. Teachers and educators play an important role in the learning process of the students. Teachers should be able to adjust strategies with agility and must introduce writing skills early in the teaching learning process. Multi-model strategies for improvement in writing seem to work well when adjustments are made based on the student learning capabilities, interests and needs.

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An Analysis of Lexical fossilization: Near Synonym Errors

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Abstract

The importance of error analysis and appropriate feedback to address common vocabulary errors in second language (L2) writing are widely accepted, but there has been relatively little research into whether these common errors will tend to re-occur over a period of time and hence, can be classified as lexical fossilization. In this paper, the authors used a longitudinal approach, with a combination of typical error and corrective feedback approaches, to determine lexical fossilization and to validate the predictive capacity of a personally developed L1 Markedness and L2 Robustness (M1R2) Rating Scale based on the principles of Selected Fossilization Hypothesis proposed by Han (2009). Moreover, the author used the taxonomy of errors proposed by Hemchua and Schmitt (2006) to analyze the three categories of near synonym errors in four (4) writing compositions of third-year university students for a period of twenty (20) months. The analysis revealed that (a) case II errors (in which the meaning of the synonym used and the appropriate synonym were not exactly identical) was the most numerous and persistent type of error followed by case I (informal vs. formal) and case III (meaning vs. usage); (b) the M1R2 Rating Scale corroborated the results of the longitudinal study and classifies case II and III to be fossilizable while case I to be learnable; and (c) the identified reasons for persistent errors were from both internal and external factors. The findings from this research have tremendous implication for L2 vocabulary teaching and learning, and should be dealt with great urgency and dedication by both learners and teachers.

Keywords: Near Synonym Errors, Lexical Fossilization, Selected Fossilization Hypothesis, L1 Markedness, L2 Robustness

Introduction

While vocabulary is now becoming the center of teaching and learning as evidenced by an increasing number of researchers specializing in vocabulary studies (Nation, 2008), there are still grey areas in which proper acquisition and/or learning of a language is being neglected. One of these areas is the teaching of vocabulary. Lexical correctness is very important because a slight lexical error can lead to misunderstanding of the intended meaning of the message. Following Hemchua and Schmitt (2006, p.3), the reason why lexical errors are important is because "lexical errors are potentially disruptive and deserve attention." According to Buoy (2000) and Kroll (1990), lexical errors are considered more numerous than grammar errors and likewise considered by native speakers to be *one of the most irritating errors made by second language learners* (Santos, 1998). In as much as prudent selection and organization of lexis is needed for the classroom, corrective feedback is also very important. But on the contrary, not all lexical errors are to be treated and corrected with the same urgency and attention; some require time and ample exposure to or extensive use of the corrected form, but some necessitate neglect, as they can never be fully acquired for various reasons (Selinker, 1972). In the analysis conducted by Hemchua and Schmitt (2006), for Thai university students, it was found out that near-synonym errors were the most numerous type of errors in their writing composition. However, knowing common lexical errors for particular second language learners in order to provide appropriate treatment is not enough. It is also important to know whether they have the tendency to reoccur. It is therefore vital to know whether a certain lexical error is incorrigible or not, what measures are needed to approach it, whether it is worthy of correction, or in the worse case, whether it is fossilized. With firsthand experience teaching essay writing to Thai students, the researchers were greatly convinced that Thai students' common errors—near synonyms errors, have a high possibility of reoccurring. This observation provided impetus for this research study on the conception of selective fossilizable Thai learners' errors. The researchers used the lexical error taxonomy proposed by Hemchua and Schmitt (2006) to categorize each error. The objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To analyze and identify the near synonym errors in the written composition of Thai learners;
2. To analyze and determine whether near synonym errors are fossilizable lexical errors for Thai learners;
3. To test the predictive power of Selected Fossilization Hypothesis;
4. To identify the causal factors of fossilization in the written composition of Thai learners.

Furthermore, it was also hypothesized that (a) lexical errors do fossilize and (b) near synonyms are fossilizable lexical errors. This study explored only near synonym errors and ignored grammatical and other lexical errors.

Method

Participants and Procedures

The participants were ten purposely-selected third year English major students from Rajamangala University of Technology, Thanyaburi who took essay writing class. They were in the middle quartile of the class in terms of class standing, in order to properly represent the population in terms of writing ability. The researchers specifically chose third year English major students because of the following reasons: (a) research shows third year English major students holistically perform better than other levels (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006) and (b) the same population demonstrates the most numerous near synonym errors (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006). The informants were similar in age, ranging from 19 to 20 years old. The study lasted over a twenty-month period. Below is the timeline of the study:

Month	Task
1	- First writing task - Diary writing/Interview
2-3	- Tutorial (two hours per week) - Diary writing
4	- Second writing task - Diary writing
5-10	- Free from instruction
11-17	- On-Job Training (OJT)
18	- Third writing task
20	- Fourth writing task (The same topic as first writing task)
20 +	- Data analysis and finalization of results

On-Job Training (OJT) was a curriculum-based cooperative learning program. The students who underwent OJT were required to work or be a student trainee for any company related to their field of work in order to expose them to actual on-hand experience in the workplace. The instruments in this research were: (a) analysis of essay examinations and diary writing, (b) interview of participants, and (c) M1R2 rating scale and (d) questionnaire on the effectiveness of tutorial sessions.

Analysis of Near Synonym Errors

In conducting this research, the authors solely focused on near synonym errors. The researchers, three native English teachers and two-experienced Thai English teachers, analyzed the essays of the students based on the classification of lexical errors proposed by Hemchua and Schmitt (2006). Below were the cases of near synonym errors:

a) Case I: The use of informal words instead of formal ones.
Example: *We can communicate with people and get <gain/acquire> knowledge from other countries by using computers.*

b) Case II: The meaning of the synonym used and the appropriate synonym are not exactly identical.
Example: *You will get up <wake up> in the morning because of the sound of birds.*

c) Case III: Two words which are close in meaning but different in usage.
Example: *Because the city has <there are> many hospitals.*

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to check whether the sample (near synonym errors) had significant differences among them. Although the data from this research came from the productive task and the claim that there were no significant difference in the errors among fours essays may seem far-fetched, and in fact highly subjective, it is at least a logical theory even if to say nothing more than vocabulary is open-ended. This is also essential in dealing with an idiosyncratic conception of fossilization because it can consider individual variation.

Error Count

In making an error count, individual cases of near synonym errors were counted at a word level, phrasal level and sentential level based on the error count criteria proposed by Hemchua and Schmitt (2006):

1. Individual lexical item (for example, It makes me want to touch <experience> the real place.)
2. Word combinations
    a. Two lexical items (for *example, It's better than to do it only one <alone>*.)
    b. Phrases (for example, *It makes me know <helps me learn> how to swim.*)
    c. A whole sentence (for example, *Every time that I hitch-hiked, it will be a car of country people.<I was picked up by a car driven by country people.*>)
3. Multiple errors in one sentence or a phrase were counted separately (for example, *Ankor Wat make <allows/gives me the opportunity> touch<to experience> an old<ancient> culture*.)
4. Identical errors (same word and similar meaning) made by the students were counted as one error.
5. To qualify as identical errors, both the erroneous form and the likely target form had to be identical (for example, *I get <gain>knowledge./ I get <gain>new experience.*)

Moreover, it is important to note that some errors were difficult to categorize and do not belong to the aforementioned error categories. In this case, the errors were counted as undefined errors.

M1R2 Rating Scale

This rating scale is an instrument developed by the researchers based on L1 markedness and L2 robustness, using the principles of selected fossilization hypothesis. This rating scale is termed the M1R2 Rating Scale, which stands for the markedness of L1 and the robustness of L2 rating scale. The researchers collected data by administering subject-completed rating scales to randomly-selected raters — five native speakers of Thai, five Thai English teachers and five third year Thai English major students for L1 markedness analysis (herein referred to M1 raters); as well as five English teachers who are not native English speakers, five English speaking foreigners (of any nationality except Thai) and five English speaking students aged 19-22 years old for L2 robustness analysis (herein referred to R2 raters). The rating scale is composed of all examples of NSE (classified into class) found in Essay I. The complete details and conception of the M1R2 rating scale are illustrated in Appendix A.

Results and Discussions

The major question in this study was whether near synonym errors are fossilizable linguistic elements for Thai learners. To address this accordingly, proper analysis and counting of near synonym errors is not enough. It is also of prime importance to analyze the relations between the numbers of words and errors in each essay, the trend or pattern of each error case, and the *wild synonyms* or those erroneous synonyms that did not qualify to be in any error category. The following data (see Figure 6) represent the result of the analysis of near synonym errors in the written compositions of Thai learners from the four essay writing compositions of third year English major students. It revealed that essay 4 had the most numerous errors (66 errors) followed by essay 3 (64 errors), then essay 1 (58 errors), and essay 2 had the least (52 errors). We can see from this data that essay 2 had the least number of errors and significantly, half of the students were able to improve, which means their number of errors decreased. It can be interpreted that the intervention (tutorial session), which took place between the first and second essays, may somehow have helped the students.

Another observable finding from this data is the parallelism between essay 1 and essay 2. The numbers of errors from both essays are similar. For essay 3 and essay 4 on the other hand, the relationship is quite dissimilar and there was no clear pattern between the two. It can be inferred that during their OJT, which took place between essay 2 and essay 3, students suffered from what Selinker (1972) called *Backsliding.* According to Selinker (1972), backsliding occurs when students commit the same errors they previously learned. Essay 2 provides evidence that some near synonyms were learnt by the students and the dramatic increase in the number of errors in essay 3 is evidence of *backsliding.* This proposition may be explained by Thorndike's *Decay Theory* in his book The Psychology of Learning in 1914. According to Thorndike, learners need constant practice and revision of what they have learned because if not, it will gradually fade from their memory and ultimately disappear. Most of the students admitted that OJT did not provide sufficient opportunities to practice their English and in turn, they have forgotten most grammatical rules and synonyms they learned.

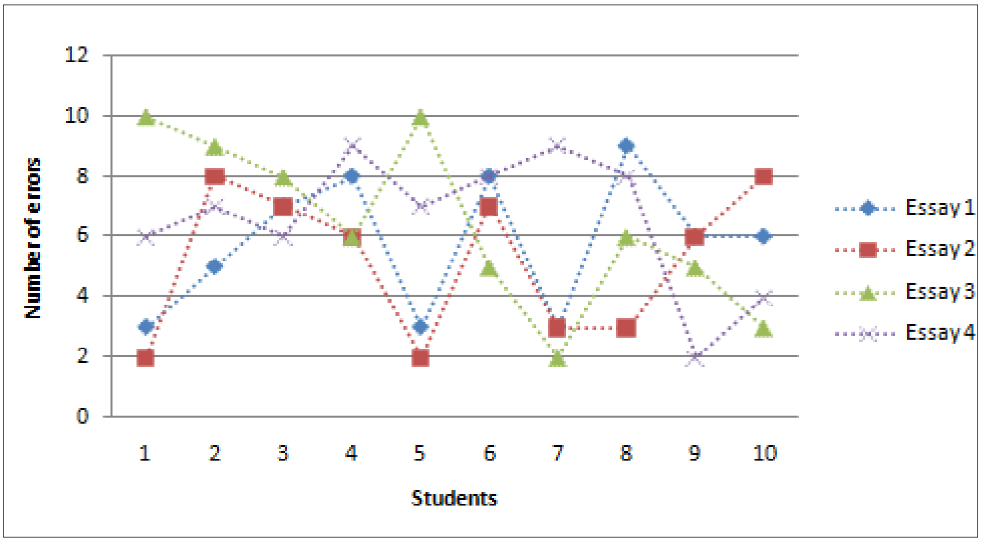

Figure 1 Number of errors per student

In order to analyze and determine whether near synonym errors are fossilizable lexical errors for Thai learners, a longitudinal study of 20 months was conducted to analyze and count the total errors and number of words (see Figure 7) in the four writing essay compositions. From the data shown in Figure 7, it is evident that the number of words in each essay has a certain degree of correlation with the number of errors thereby unearthing another viable line of inquiry and discussion. There are two issues worth discussing in the data from Figure 7. The first is the assigned topic of each essay.

The researchers were convinced that essay topic could influence the writing output of each student in both lexical use and number of words. Essay 1 and essay 4 therefore focused on exactly the same topic. As expected, students committed the same errors, for example: Essay 1: *I can get <gain>experience…I would like to take <visit>…,* Essay 4: *We can get<gain> a new experience.*, *My favorite place that I usually take <visit>…* Assigning the same topic was done intentionally in order to check whether the students would commit the same synonym errors over a period of time, which would further qualify as lexical fossilization. The mean number of words and errors are as follows:

Essay 1: words ($\bar{X}$ = 300.5), errors ($\bar{X}$ = 5.8)

Essay 2: words ($\bar{X}$ = 282.2), errors ($\bar{X}$ = 5.2)

Essay 3: words ($\bar{X}$ = 403.2), errors ($\bar{X}$ = 6.4)

Essay 4: words ($\bar{X}$ = 278.8), errors ($\bar{X}$ = 6.6)

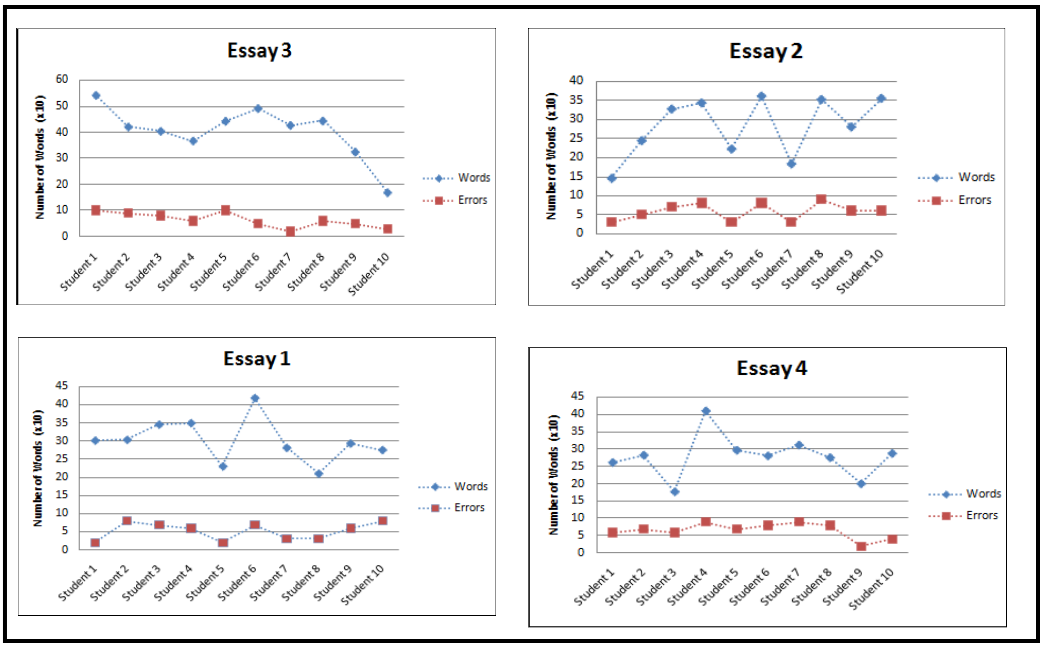

Figure 2 Summary of errors and number of words

Figure 3 shows the patterns of the three cases of near synonym errors in the writing composition of Thai learners. Both Case I and Case II errors have obvious positive and negative fluctuation rates while Case III has a greater rate of consistency. From this pattern, it is clear that the number of Case I errors systematically declined and therefore demonstrates improvement of learning. However, taking into consideration the fundamental assumption of fossilization, that is, the *presence of errors*, Case I is still considered fossilizible unless proven otherwise. Moreover, all errors that did not belong to the taxonomy of errors or at least did not collaborate with the four analysts were counted separately as undefined errors (see Figure 9). Figure 10, on the other hand, shows the presence of near synonym errors in the individual diaries of the students. The data from the diaries is an indication that even in an informal writing context, near synonym errors were present. The data from the diary writing provides further evidence that near synonym errors were permanently embedded in Thai learners' mental lexicon.

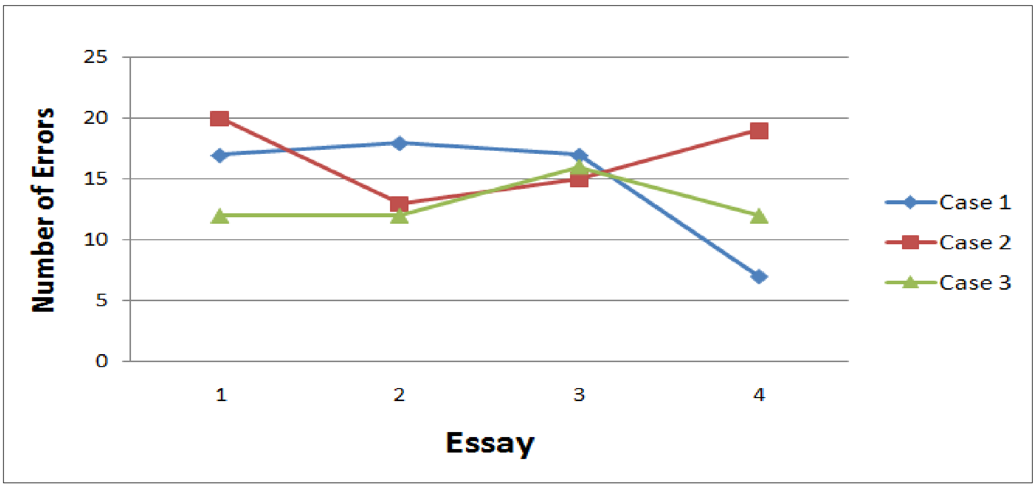

Figure 3 Number of error: cases

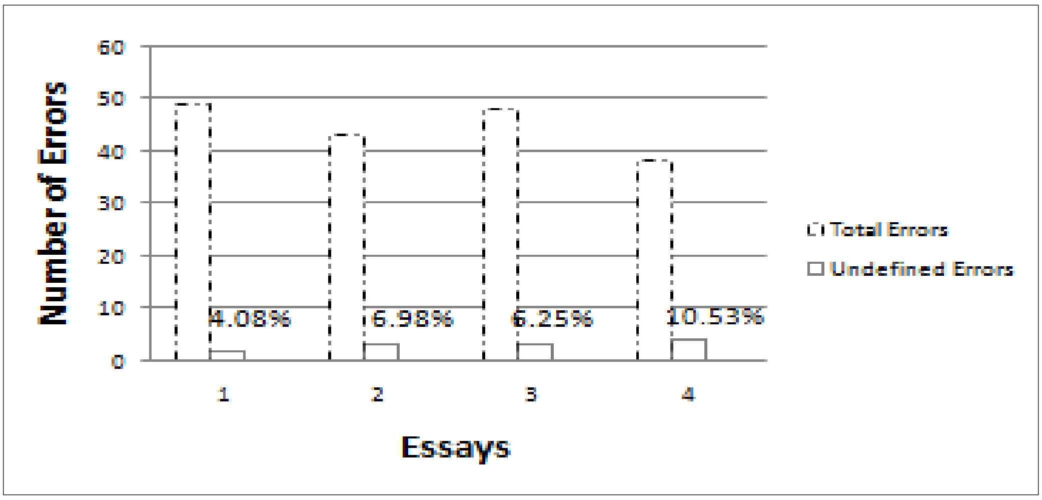

Figure 4 Total number of undefined

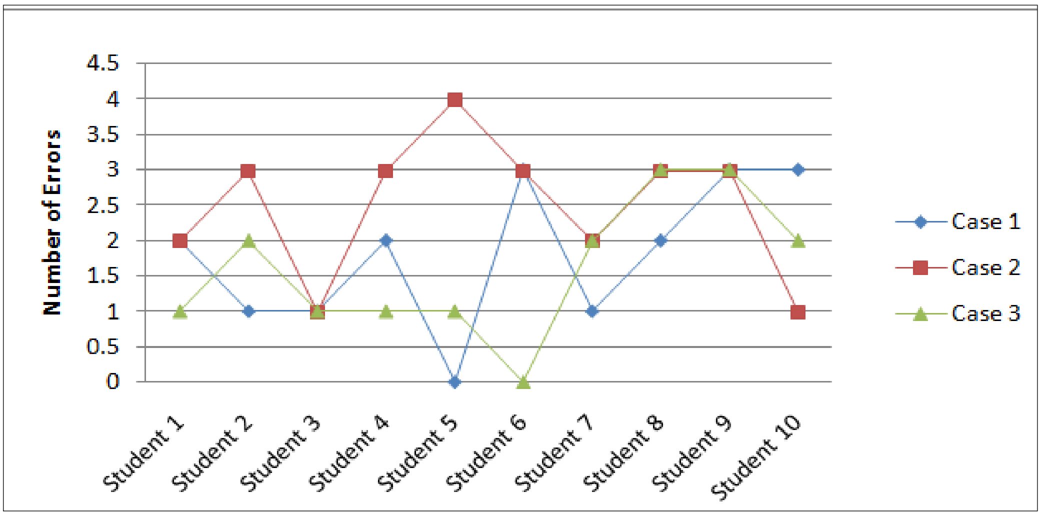

Figure 5 Number of errors: diary

To further qualify the data from the longitudinal study, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used to evaluate whether there were significant differences between the numbers of near synonyms errors in the four essays. It revealed that there were no significant differences among the near synonym errors present in the four writing compositions over the period of 20 months. The number of errors, although not absolutely the same in number, fluctuated in a whimsical pattern leaving no significant indication of feasible learning. With this premise, the longitudinal study revealed that all three cases are fossilizable lexical errors for Thai learners.

Table1

Kruskal-Wallis test comparing the number of near synonyms errors of four essays.

	N (Cases of Errors)	Mean Rank
Essay I	12	16.3
Essay II	12	14.3
Essay III	12	16
Essay IV	12	12.6
Total	48	
Chi-Square		5.99
Df		3
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.013

Note: There is no significant difference among the errors from four essays, H=2.27 (2,N=12), p>.05.

The third objective was to test the predictive power of selective fossilization hypothesis. In order to do this, an M1R2 rating scale was employed. Table 2 shows the results of the M1R2 rating scale and it was predicted that Case II and Case III near synonym errors were fossilizable while Case I was learnable. Furthermore, Table 2 shows the comparison of the M1R2 rating scale vis-à-vis the results of the longitudinal study. It revealed that the longitudinal study corroborated the results of the M1R2 rating scale in both Case II and Case III but not on Case I. One explanation why Case I (the use of informal words instead of formal ones) is predicted to be learnable is because the M1R2 rating scale is based on L1 Markedness and L2 Robustness which are both based on the frequency and variability of a particular error in a particular language community. This means that the M1R2 rating scale viewed and dealt with fossilization from a more specific angle than a traditional longitudinal study. The data from the M1R2 rating scale came from both L1 native speakers and L2 native and non-native speakers residing in the language community for a considerable amount of time. Another explanation for why Case 1 is predicted to be learnable (which a longitudinal study may not be able to identify) is that formal language one of the most common features and emphasis of Thai English language classroom. Formality is most often coupled with *politeness* in Thai context. Thai people in general are very cautious not to hurt others' feelings, particularly through the utterance of words. Furthermore, formal and informal words are included and emphasized in most English textbooks published by Thai universities (Permkasetwit, Kaetkaew & Chaisiri, 2008). Norms and exposure to L1 may intuitively influence the raters of the M1R2 rating scale. Hence, the output more closely reflects the real situation than the expected one.

Table 2

The categorization of fossilization and acquisition

NSE	*M*	*R*	*Fossilization or Acquisition Category*
Case I	QUM	NR/QR	Learnable
Case II	UM	NR	Fossilizable
Case III	UM	NR	Fossilizable

Note: QUM—Quite Unmarked, UM—Unmarked, NR—Non-robust, QR—Quite Robust

Table 3

Comparison of results between longitudinal study and M1R2 rating scale

NSE	*Longitudinal Study*	*M1R2 Rating Scale*
Case I	Fossilizable	Learnable
Case II	Fossilizable	Fossilizable
Case III	Fossilizable	Fossilizable

The final objective of this research was to identify the root cause of fossilization in the written composition of Thai learners. In order to address this, the researchers conducted an interview using the taxonomy of causal factors of fossilization proposed by Han (2004), and a survey on the satisfaction of the tutorial session. The results show that the causes of fossilization were both internal and external. Internal factors included (a) L1 interferance, (b) lack of understanding and (c) lack of interest. For external factors however, (a) lack of communicative relevance and (b) language complexity were the primary reasons. According to Han (2009), *L1 interference* along with *satisfaction of communicative needs* are the most common causes of fossilization. Near synonym errors are not an exemption to this. Thai students, when they do not know or are uncertain of the correct synonyms in English, generally use L1 as their departure point. This can be illustrated by the use of words *look*, *see* and *watch*. The sentence *I watch <see> a lot of pictures.*, is a literal translation from Thai ฉันดูรูปภาพมากมาย. Thai students might be uncertain whether to use *watch or see* in this particular instance, but due to L1 they may automatically use the word *watch*. The use of electronic dictionaries may also contribute to the erroneous lexical choice of Thai students. Most students admitted that when using an electronic dictionary, they often use the *first* English word in the list. In the case of *watch* and *see*, the former often appears first. The second internal factor affecting fossilization is *lack of understanding.* This finding supports the claim of Thep-Ackrapong (1990) that low proficiency is one of the root causes of fossilization. The recent national standardized examination (Advance National Examination Test –A-NET) in Thailand shows how scores in English suffered a steep drop in 2011 - 11% points or one-third in the last two years for upper-secondary and 15% points or half of the score in the last two years of lower secondary. This shows that Thai students at this level generally have low proficiency, which therefore may constitute lack of understanding. In terms of *lack of interest,* this is related to students' motivation to learn. Students in this generation are living in the most intensive time in the history of the earth. Students are being besieged by a huge explosion of technology and innovation, including smart phones, tablets, social networks, and hundreds of television channels. As a result, they are becoming distracted and the classroom is becoming a boring place for them. For external factors, *lack of communicative relevance* was the main reason revealed by the students. Most of the students find no communicative relevance studying near synonyms. Although they are satisfied with the tutorial sessions, they see no real tangible value in understanding the differences between *wake-up* and *get-up, scared* and *afraid, strangers* and *foreigners* etc.

Implications and Conclusion

The results of this study suggest three main implications for the very core of language acquisition, learning and education. The four broad areas are curriculum, assessment and pedagogy.

Curriculum

First and foremost, there must be a curriculum solely intended for vocabulary teaching. If this is attained, then there are two implications of lexical fossilization. The first implication relates to whether the curriculum is an *emergent* or *prepared* curriculum. More often than not, teachers mainly rely on following the *prescribed* or so called *prepared* curriculum mandated by the school or by the commission on higher education simply because it is obligatory and the students will be tested according to the items manifested in the curriculum. In language teaching however, the classroom environment is situational. Anything can happen inside the classroom. The insistence on teaching of linear guidelines of prepared-standard-tied curriculum automatically pushes away essential learning opportunities readily available for students. While prepared curriculum is essential for ministerial purposes and report, an emergent curriculum is also very important to address any unforeseen circumstances inside the classroom. However, the key toward the achievement of an emergent curriculum lies mainly in the teacher him/herself.

The second implication relates to whether the curriculum is *personalized* or *standardized.* Vocabulary acquisition happens in the minds and souls of individuals and not through multiple-choice tests. When designing a vocabulary curriculum, it is very important to promote a sense of collaboration, a sense of belongingness and a sense of appreciation among the three co-equal pillars of an educational institution—students, teachers and administrators. The actual learners must be engaged and not gauged. The equality among pillars—and none is nobler than the other—is one of the hardest things to accept when designing a curriculum. It is the most daring task and yet the only life-transforming one. *Progetazione*, a curriculum in the northern Italian town of Reggio Emilia, best exemplifies a personalized curriculum. Widely recognized as the Reggio Approach or project based approach, this curriculum sees students as intellectually curious, resourceful, full of potential and a vital element of curriculum design. Wurm (2005) explained that knowledge building is not a linear process and a planned curriculum is *unsuitable* considering the multiple strategies of teaching and multiple modes of learning. This premise gives way to discuss another means of how lexical fossilization should be deal with—the assessment.

Assessment

Assessing vocabulary needs assessment. We use the preceding sentence to put an outlay on the real objectives of vocabulary assessment. Huges (2003, p.179) admitted that vocabulary has its own special sampling problems. He further emphasized that as far as the placement test is concerned, a particular set of lexical items as a prerequisite for a particular language class is not normally required. Furthermore, a general indication of the adequacy of the students' vocabulary must be taken into consideration before any assessment takes place. He further recommends that a vocabulary proficiency test must be constructed by the teacher based on his or her own students. In this study, the researchers did not deal with the general aspects of vocabulary. Rather, the researchers delved deeper into a specific aspect of lexis, and so if the general aspect of vocabulary needs personalization, it is even more required to personalize near synonym assessments to ensure a consistent standard. The primary aim of the assessment is to raise standards and not to standardize.

Pedagogy

The pedagogy or the teaching itself is the heart of education. The real role of a teacher is to teach the students and not to teach the subject. The main point that the researchers would like to emphasize in terms of pedagogy is whether the teacher is in the plane of *realistic* or *idealistic* teaching, in other words whether the teacher teaches the attainable subject matter or whether he/she remains a catalyst to keep the system of education running. There is a clear distinction between the two but having idealistic teaching, with a connotation of being traditional, without thoroughly assessing its feasibility, is simply a sheepskin of intellectual nakedness. Realistic teaching on the other hand must not only conform to the *whats*, and *how*s but most importantly, the *whos*, for whom education is for—the students. As far as near synonyms are concerned, native-like fluency is an unrealistic aim. Although there are handful of individual who were able to traverse this unrealistic aim, mastery of *near synonyms* is very difficult, if not almost impossible for Thai second language learners.

Conclusion

The claim that near synonym errors are fossilizable linguistic elements for L2 Thai learners has compelling evidence from hypothesis to facts. Although debatable, the theory that there is a maximum or there is an end state for learning a second language has a certain degree of truth. In this research, near synonym errors are still midway between assumed and established. Clearly, a follow-up research on the same participants is necessary. Repeated testing of different linguistic features is essential to prove the approximation and assumption set forth herein. The formula presented in this research may require revision and adjustments resulting in a more complex equation. Finally, despite the limitation of ideas and facts presented herein, it is the authors' hope that this research will inspire fellow SLA researchers, teachers and students to investigate the unexplored mystery of fossilization beyond what the authors have attempted.

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Appendix: Sample Errors

Case I: The use of informal words instead of formal one

1. NakhonNayok have my family (my family lives in NakhonNayok)
2. make me want to touch (experience) real place
3. Different place made me many feeling and gives(offers) type of activities
4. get (gain) experience
5. get (gain) knowledge
6. It is very wonderful thing (attraction) in the world
7. Italy make (allows/gives me the opportunity) me try to taste original spaghetti
8. And I can find (gain) knowledge
9. three solution about the global warming that you can solve (find/implement)
10. They will give (produce) ozone
11. Human is the main part (cause) of global warming
12. recycle is a process that needs (requires) scientific knowledge
13. The government and many public company fight (promote/advocate) for people decreasing
14. The purpose of this essay is to give (offer/propose) solution
15. In polite way (manner)

Case II: The meaning of synonym used and the appropriate synonyms are not identical.

1. The place in Thailand that I would like to take (visit) is Tak province
2. when I stand (stay by/sail) on sea
3. I can see (meet) many people
4. There are many strangers (foreigners)
5. I need (want) to meet my favorite bands
6. three country that I would like to take (visit)
7. It has many arts (kinds) of food, culture and places
8. I must (want) to go
9. help you cut tree lower (less)
10. bring it use again (re-use)
11. when you disuse (stop using) any electric equipment
12. can make the invention (production) such as mobile and flower-pot
13. The old dress (clothes) modify
14. Cooperative Education made (helped) me get more experience
15. Tidy (smart) clothes

Case III: Two words which are close in meaning but different in usage.

1. But I have (there are) 3 places that I want to go.
2. How to (what is) different between Taiwan culture and China culture?”
3. In holiday I have (do) activities
4. I watch (see) a lot of picture
5. that I make a plan can fix (make) you feel better
6. spend(takes) a long time to go there.
7. Many car exhaust (emit) carbon mon’oxide
8. decrease (less) than the past
9. when you getout (leave) from your house or class
10. natural calamity (disaster)
11. walk (use) stairs instead of use elevator
12. I have to throw (put) old life behind
13. I fell better (good) and bad
14. I have to response about my functions (duties)
15. I knew how an alien (foreigner) can stay in Thailand kingdom

Commissioner as an Another Actor in the Translation English Nonfiction Text into Malay

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1.0 Introduction

Translation is an activity that has undergone a phenomenal growth in today's globalized world. The study of translation has also developed enormously (Hatim & Munday, 2004:xvii). Translation studies no longer involve text analysis as a sole method to study translation. It has moved to a broader sense in studying many aspects related to translation. Previously, more emphasis are given on the micro aspects of translation but times have changed and the macro aspects are also becoming the focal point for researchers. Aside from methods and strategies, non-linguistic factors that influence certain translation strategies as well as the role of players in translation can also be studied.

Translator is no longer the sole player in the whole process of translation. In reality, besides as a hobby and an academic area, translation is now a profession and is normally carried out as a task. Translators rarely start working with their own accord. They are called to do so by clients (Nord, 1997). Being carried out as a task, translation is a process of many stages that acquire interaction between people assigned to the task. The people or agents involved in the interaction have certain functions or roles in order to ensure that the target text (TT) produced is receivable. One of them is commissioner. It is undeniable that the role of translator is crucial but the commissioner may influence the very production of the TT.

With that being put into consideration, this paper will discuss the roles played by a commissioner in the translation of English nonfiction text, specifically by discussing the planning of title and planning of publication in the process of the translation of *The World is Flat: A Brief History of the Globalized World in the Twenty-First Century* into Malay *Dunia Sama Rata: Sejarah Ringkas Dunia Globalisasi Abad ke-21.*

2.0 Roles of a Commissioner

Translation is a purposeful activity that requires consistent decision making. The purpose in the translation practice and industry is to achieve success in general. To ensure the success of a translation project, meticulous planning is needed and should be effectively carried out. The effectiveness of the planning should be commissioned by the respective party to ensure that the project will run smoothly and effectively. For this matter, the commissioner is responsible to ensure the success of the project.

Quoting the definition of commissioner by Holz-Manttari (1984:109 as similar to Vermeer, 1986:274), [6]commissioner is the one who asks the translator to produce a TT for a particular

[6] In this paper, the word **Commissioner** refers to the institution (ITBM) that starts off the translation process and the one who asks the translator to produce the target text for a particular purpose and addressee. This also includes staffs working with the institution.

purpose and addressee (Nord, 1997:20). A commissioner's role does not only start off the translation task but also involve other aspects other than translating. A commissioner also decides the direction and feasibility of a planned translation project. It can be said that the main role of a commissioner is commissioning a translation project and commissioner's role will only stop when the whole process ends.

2.1 Commissioning a Translation Project

Before one considers starting a translation project, there are a number of matters which need to be clearly understood by all involved. This is because translation does not only involve transferring a text from one language into another. It is more than that. Considering that a translation is a form of a task, the translation process involves various aspects that should not be taken lightly. This is because, in a wider context, the whole process of the translation project consists of structuring the translation project, choosing the source text (ST),choosing and assessing translators, providing the ST to translators, obtaining the translated material from the translators, editing of the translation, publishing and the distributing of TT to target readers (TR). The process may continue if several other steps are included in the overall process. This includes critical reviews on the TT or possibly the TT itself becomes the translated text into a third language. The translation process only ends when the TT is no longer read, rewritten or republished. This may take weeks, months or even years (Zabalbeascoa, 1998).

The text *The World is Flat: A Brief History of Globalized World in the Twenty-First Century* is translated and published by *Institut Terjemahan & Buku Malaysia* (ITBM, The Malaysian Institute of Translation & Books, formerly known as the Malaysian National Institute of Translation). The translation project of *The World is Flat: A Brief History of Globalized World in the Twenty-First Century,* underwent a lot of steps involving various processes. The project which initiated in 2009 and finished in 2010 started with the planning of title followed by the planning of publication, typesetting, verification for printing and finally the printing itself.

The planning of title is the crucial initial stage in the translation project. Before any translation work begins, the project must be defined. The feasibility of the project should be clear. One of the greatest hindrances in producing a good idiomatic translation is the lack of adequate planning before the actual translation begins. Questions like: "*What text is to be translated? Why has the particular text been chosen? Will it be read? By whom? What effect will it have on the audience? How long will it take to do the project? Is there money available?*" should be asked and clearly defined early in the program (Larson, 1984). Therefore, during this stage, a commissioner has to plan the whole process carefully.

For instance, according to ITBM, a particular text is chosen for translation based on various arguments. Whether it is translated on the request of a respective party or institution, high demand for the ST or the importance of its information, every book title to be translated needs to be reviewed. Its suitability for translation purposes also needs to be referred to a reviewer. Nevertheless, if certain parties require a title to be translated and the importance of the title has been reviewed and the TR has been identified, it is not impossible if the respective title is given the go ahead to be translated. Earlier reviews enable the Commissioner to save time and identify the feasibility of the project.

Obtaining copyrights from the ST publisher is also an important task on the Commissioner's part. This task may seem common in book publications but the process carried out and the rights to translate and publish the translation obtained can provide the Commissioner with the facts about book specifications and work schedule. The Commissioner will decide on the specifications of book and schedule based on the contents of the agreement received along with the rights.

Specifications of book that involve the consist of price of the book, cost of publishing and number of copies to be published can only be decided after the crucial initial stage has been completely carried out. Carefully planned specifications of book can provide an early picture of the 'reward' that awaits the Commissioner.

The process of obtaining copyrights also initiates the planning of publication that involves various processes, namely designing of TT cover, translating and editing. Even though the processes of translating and editing largely take place here nevertheless, the Commissioner still has a role to play to ensure the planning and objectives of the translation go accordingly. Designing TT cover will not be discussed in this paper as it does not involve neither translating nor editing. The Commissioner will normally source-out the cover to external graphic designers and then choose the one deemed appropriate or suitable for the text in target culture.

2.2 Translating

Before the translation process takes place, the Commissioner has to ensure that the translation brief and work specification are prepared beforehand prior to the appointment of a translator. Appointing a translator is not merely identifying a translator based on his/her background or qualification or sending an appointment letter with the necessary details. As common procedure, a commissioner will gauge the translator's ability by asking the identified translator to translate few pages of the ST in a certain period of time. The Commissioner will not appoint a translator who does not fulfil the job specification and work schedule that he has given to. Although it seems trivial, this specific role of the Commissioner will ensure that the translation works goes according to the criteria decided. In this way, the Commissioner will be able to ensure that the project runs smoothly and the work schedule can be monitored all the while, and subsequently a good translation work can be produced.

When all instructions, translation information and work schedule are clearly understood by the translator, the translation process can thus proceed. This process involves the mental operation and/or the linguistic ability of the translator given the ST and task to translate. Here, the process begins when the translator starts to analyse the ST up to the point when he succeeds to transfer or translate the whole text into the target language (TL) (Zabalbescoa, 1998). However, the mere instruction to translate is insufficient for a translator to complete his task. He must also take the expectations of the clients into consideration (Nord, 1991: 28-30) an has to fully comprehend the aims of the Commissioner and the purpose of TT. He needs a translation brief. A translation brief does not tell the translator what to do in detail, but it provides global guidelines on how to approach the target text. As such, the Commissioner has to provide the translator information that can help him in his translating task.

According to Nord (1997:60), the translation brief should contain the following:

- i) the intended text function(s),
- ii) the target-text addressee(s),
- iii) the (prospective) time and place of text reception,
- iv) the medium over which the text will be transmitted, and
- v) the motive (reason) for the production or the reception of the text.

All these details will provide the translator with the necessary information of the TT to be produced. However, this is not easy to achieve if the translation of a text is done by a single translator, as not only text analysis needs to be looked into, even marketing and demographical matters should be considered too. On the other hand, it will be much easier for the translator, if the commissioner as a client can provide him with the information needed.

According to ITBM, the translation brief of *The World is Flat: A Brief History of the Globalized World in the Twenty-First Century* contains:

i)TT function : a method of explanation on hotly debated global issues

ii)	TT readers	: Those who are interested in knowing and understanding world current issues
iii)	Time and place	: Malaysia (launched during Kuala Lumpur International Book Fair 2010)
iv)	Medium	i) Promotion - online, catalogues, newspapers, exhibition etc. ii) Sale - bookstores, contractors and distributors assigned
v)	Motive	i) Sale factors ii) to help target readers understand the respective issues and to eliminate unnecessary fears among nations, companies, communities and individuals as they prepare for a globalized future

With reference to the translation project in reality, information (iii) – (v) are not clearly stated by the Commissioner to the translator. The information are inclined towards the responsibility of the in-house staff appointed by the Commissioner because they involve in the process of producing the going to be published TT itself.

All translational decisions as to *whether*, *what* and *how* will be guided by one dominant factor namely the purpose of the TT. It is more important that a certain translation purpose is achieved than that the translation is carried out in a certain way. The end (purpose) therefore justifies the means (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984:95-101). By this, translator can use any strategies that he reckons can meet the demand of the requirements. A number of strategies that is influenced by certain factors are used by the translator to ensure that he is able to produce a translation which is deemed suitable for the target readers. Occasionally, the translation produced may not be agreed upon by the commissioner because certain requirements in the translation brief are not fulfilled. To ensure that the target text complies with the translation brief and fulfil the requirements, editing is carried out in order to *correct* or *improve* the text.

2.3 Editing

Based on the procedures in publishing a translated book, there are several processes and procedures that need to be followed which include revising and editing. Revising and editing are needed in a translation because of several factors. At times, while writing, the translator easily forgets about his future readers thus possibly write things that are not suitable to the readers. Besides, there are occasions when a text produced during translation does not confer with the grammatical rules, translation principles or the writing style of the TL. Revising and editing can help to produce a good translation that has the same effect as the ST as well as fulfilling the translation brief given.

Based on analysis done, it is found that the translated text of *The World is Flat: A Brief History of the Globalized World in the Twenty-First Century* was re-edited to ensure that the translation produced fulfils the predetermined criteria. Although the TT produced by the translator is first edited by an appointed external editor, the Commissioner still does some editing of his own before typesetting is done. The Commissioner may decide, that if the strategies used and the first editing retained, the translation brief may not be fully fulfilled. As a commissioner, the publisher has the rights to improve translated text before it reaches the target readers. The Commissioner may do some corrections or improvement on the translation during the editing process to ensure that the translation can be accepted and understood. As such, it can be said that the Commissioner still has a say in editing process.

Copyediting is common in the publication of any book including translated ones. Copyediting may be defined as checking and correcting a document to bring it into conformance with preset rules. It is a tedious yet fastidious work. It cannot be properly done if the editor has his mind on other things. Copyediting involves editing based on correct spelling, sentences, idioms, punctuations, the use of proper grammar and house style of writing. Copyediting is a micro-level work that bears on small details of the text. It is therefore done after the translator and editor have completed 'macro-level' changes to the content and structure of the text. There is no point of copyediting a paragraph which the author will later delete (Mossop, 2001:22-32). Following are examples of copyediting done by the Commissioner.

Example 1

ST[7] : The **tee** markers were from Epson, the printer company, and one of our caddies was wearing a hat from 3M.

TT1: Penanda **ti** tersebut adalah daripada Epson, syarikat alat pencetak, dan salah seorang daripada kedi kami yang memakai topi 3M.

ETT : Penanda **ti** adalah daripada Epson, syarikat alat pencetak, dan salah seorang daripada kedi kami memakai topi 3M.

TT2: Penanda **tee** adalah daripada Epson, iaitu syarikat alat pencetak, dan salah seorang kedi kami memakai topi 3M.

Besides slowing down the reading and understanding as well as giving on unfavourable impression on the translator, there are times when spelling errors will also cause misunderstanding and confusion on the readers' part (Mossop, 200: 23). The initial editor may have overlooked a few errors in the TT. This commonly happens if it involves words that may be frequently used. Spelling errors produce a very bad impression. They suggest that the author and editor are sloppy thinkers, and that the publisher tolerates carelessness (Mossop, 2001). In light of that, to ensure that the TT is error free in spelling, the Commissioner re-edits the text to rectify it.

In Example 1, the word **tee** is translated as **ti** in TT and retained as it is in ETT. This word is then edited by the Commissioner's editor as **tee** inTT2. This word is not italicised as it has been adopted as one of Malay words and is included as an entry in the dictionary.

Example 2

ST : *The Bible tells us that God created the world in six days and on the seventh day he rested.*

TT1 : Kitab **Injil menceritakan** kepada kita bahawa Tuhan menjadikan dunia dalam masa enam hari dan pada hari ketujuh Dia berehat.

ETT : Kitab **Injil menceritakan** kepada kita bahawa Tuhan menjadikan dunia dalam masa enam hari dan pada hari ketujuh**,** Dia berehat.

TT2 : *Kitab **Bible menyatakan** bahawa Tuhan menjadikan dunia dalam masa enam hari dan pada hari ketujuh, Dia berehat.*

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[7] ST : Source Text

TT1 : Translated Text by Translator

ETT : Edited Translated Text

TT2 : Published Translated Text

In this sentence, the word **Bible** is translated as **Injil** by the translator. **Injil** is not a suitable translation for the word **Bible** because these two words carry different meanings with different concepts and teachings. It is undeniable that sometimes translators mistranslate the word **Bible** into **Injil.** To avoid any misunderstanding and confusion, the Commissioner has edited it into **Bible.** This means that the word **Bible** is transferred into TL. This example is another example of house style copyediting by the Commissioner. Excerpts that can be found in certain chapters are italicised in ST. To differentiate the excerpts and paragraphs, the Commissioner has decided that every excerpt should be italicised as in ST.

Example 3

ST : The *fall* 2003 class had 297 Chinese graduate and undergraduate students and 23 Russians.

TT1 : Kelas pada musim *panas* tahun 2003 mempunyai 297 siswazah yang berasal **daripada** China dan 23 siswazah daripada Rusia.

ETT : Kelas pada musim *panas* tahun 2003 mempunyai 297 <u>orang</u> siswazah yang berasal **daripada** China dan 23 <u>orang</u> siswazah daripada Rusia.

TT2 : Kelas pada musim *luruh* tahun 2003 mempunyai 297 orang siswazah yang berasal **dari** China dan 23 orang siswazah dari Rusia.

Copyeditors are widely expected to make texts conform to something variously called 'correct usage' or 'good grammar'. In Example 3, the word **daripada** is edited and changed to **dari** because in Malay, the preposition **daripada** is used to describe a source that is derived from humans, animals, abstracts, the origin of a certain object and difference or comparison. **Dari** is used to describe direction, place or time. In this sentence, the students who attend class during **fall** come from Russia, a country which in turn refers to a place.

Before any editing is done, the editor is usually provided with manual or guideline on the house style of writing so as to ensure that the editing conforms to the required style (Mossop, 2001: 22) because each publication house has its own style of writing that the readers can relate to. However, external editor may overlook this matter since she is not working at the institution and is still not familiar with the house style. It can be shown in the Example 4 – Example 6.

Example 4

ST : Flattener #1

TT1: Perata #1

ETT : Perata # 1

TT2: **PERATA 1**

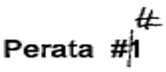

Figure 1 : Copyediting 1

Example 5

ST : While I Was Sleeping

TT1: Ketika saya sedang tidur

ETT : Ketika Saya Lena

TT2: **KETIKA SAYA LENA**

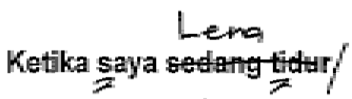

Figure 2: Copyediting 2

Example 6

ST : Outside, some of the traffic signs were also sponsored by Texas Instruments, and the Pizza Hut billboard on the way over showed a steaming pizza, under the headline "**Gigabites of Taste**!"

TT1: Di sebelah luar, beberapa papan tanda juga ditaja oleh Texas Instruments, dan papan tanda Pizza Hut di tepi jalan menunjukkan gambar piza yang panas di bawah slogan "**Gigabites of Taste**!"

ETT : Di luar sana beberapa papan tanda juga ditaja oleh Texas Instruments, dan papan tanda Pizza Hut di tepi jalan menunjukkan gambar piza yang berasap di bawah slogan "**Gigabites of Taste**!"

TT2: Di luar sana, beberapa papan iklan juga ditaja oleh Texas Instruments, dan papan iklan Pizza Hut di tepi jalan menunjukkan gambar piza yang berasap di bawah slogan "***Gigabites of Taste***!"

Example 4 - Example 6 are examples of copyediting on a house style. Based on the writing style of ITBM as decided for the text, every topic is written in bold capital letters as can be seen in Example 4 and Example 5. Evidently, both editing done by the initial editor was not favourable to ITBM's editor even though the editor made use of the # symbol to indicate spacing in ETT as seen in Figure 1. This symbol was also used by the external editor to indicate number. The translation brief indicates that the translation is targeted for general Malaysians who use Malay language. In Malay writing style, # is not used to indicate numbers. The writer may use the word **Nombor** followed by the numerical figure or just the numerical figure by itself. As for the translation, **Flattener #1** is translated as **PERATA 1** without the # symbol.

In Example 6, the phrase **Gigabites of Taste** in ST is transferred into TT. As the TT is written in Malay, phrases or words that are borrowed or transferred from another language should be italicised. This is common in Malay writings especially for words or phrases that are borrowed from other languages and have not been adopted as Malay words.

Example 7

ST : Armatya Sen, the **Noble Prize**-winning **Indian economist** now teaching at Harvard, once **remarked** to me that "the **Berlin Wall** was not only ….

TT1 : Armatya Sen, **seorang warga India** yang memenangi **a**nugerah Nobel dan kini mengajar di Universiti Harvard, pernah **mengungkapkan** kepada saya bahawa "**t**embok Berlin bukan sahaja …

ETT : Armatya Sen, **ahli ekonomi warga India** yang memenangi **a**nugerah Nobel dan kini mengajar di Universiti Harvard, pernah **berkata** kepada saya bahawa "**t**embok Berlin bukan sahaja …

*BTT : Armatya Sen, the **Noble Prize**-winning **Indian** and now teaching at Harvard, once **remarked** to me that "the **Berlin Wall** was not only ….

TT2 : Armatya Sen, **ahli ekonomi India** yang memenangi **A**nugerah Nobel dan kini mengajar di Universiti Harvard, pernah *berkata* kepada saya bahawa "**T**embok Berlin bukan sahaja …

Besides house style and words that has to do with the grammatical aspects, copyediting will also ensure that the use of capital letters for proper nouns. In Example 7, **Berlin Wall** and **Noble Prize** are phrases that refer to proper nouns. Even though the words **Wall** and **Prize** can be used as common nouns, both words in this sentence are now form a part of aforementioned proper nouns. Therefore their equivalence should be proper nouns, hence the phrases **Tembok Berlin** and **Anugerah Noble** which are being used with capital letters. It can be considered that these two words are typing errors and the translator and first editor overlooked it. This can be proved with sentence in Example 10. The proper noun **Berlin Wall** is correctly translated and spelled as **Tembok Berlin** in this sentence.

The phrase **Indian economist** that has been translated as **seorang warga India** was re-edited and changed into **ahli ekonomi warga India** by the Commissioner's editor. The term **warga** in TT1 was dropped in ETT because the phrase **ahli ekonomi India** was sufficient to translate **Indian economist** and it is clearly understood. Besides that, the word **mengungkapkan** which is used to translate **remarked** was edited by the Commissioner into **berkata.** Considering that the text is read by the general public in Malaysia, it is assumed on the Commissioner's part that the word **berkata** is most suitable and is thought to be more easily understood than **mengungkapkan.**

Stylistic editing is also done by the Commissioner's editor. Stylistic editing involves the editing of the use of vocabularies and sentence structure so as to enable it to be easily understood by readers. Stylistic editing is more challenging as it involves the target audience. In this sense, the editor should consider using words that are familiar to the target readers by identifying the target audience; their background and proficiency level because each of the group has different understanding needs (Mossop, 2001:47).

Example 8

ST : "<u>Honey</u>," **I** confided, "I think the world is flat."

TT1 : "Sayang," **<u>saya</u>** berbisik, "saya rasa bumi ini rata".

ETT : "Sayang, **<u>abang</u>** rasa bumi ini rata," saya berbisik.

TT2 : "Sayang, **<u>saya</u>** rasa bumi ini rata," saya memberitahunya dengan nada berbisik.

In Example 8, the word **I** in ST is translated as **saya** by the translator as a pronoun in reference to the writer when he spoke to his wife. This word was then edited by the external editor as **Abang** in ETT. The word **Abang** is commonly used by the Malays in reference to a husband. Nevertheless, this word is deemed improper to be used among Malaysians in general due to its multiethnic composition. This word is then edited by the Commissioner as **saya**. This example can also show that the Commissioner sometimes do agree with what has been translated by the translator.

Example 9

ST : The fall of Berlin Wall on ***<u>11/9/89</u>*** unleashed forces that ultimately liberated all the captive peoples of the Soviet Empire.

TT1 : <u>Keruntuhan</u> Tembok Berlin pada ***11/9/89*** telah melepaskan <u>satu daya</u> yang akhirnya membebaskan semua mereka yang terperangkap dalam Empayar Soviet.

ETT : <u>Runtuhnya</u> Tembok Berlin pada ***<u>11/9/89</u>*** telah melepaskan <u>suatu kuasa</u> yang akhirnya membebaskan semua mereka yang terperangkap dalam Empayar Soviet.

TT2 : <u>Runtuhnya</u> Tembok Berlin pada ***<u>9 November 1989</u>*** telah melepaskan <u>suatu kuasa</u> yang akhirnya membebaskan semua mereka yang terperangkap dalam Empayar Soviet.

Example 9 depicts the different style of quoting dates between the original writer and the culture of the TL. The original writer uses number and '/' to show dates. In ST, the number 11 that represents the month of November is followed by day (9) and year (89). This style of writing is common among Westerners. There is, however a difference in Malay language. In Malay, the date is mentioned first, followed by month and year. This in turn, is a common way of writing dates in Malay language. Originally, the date **11/9/89** was translated through borrowing and was not edited by the first editor. If it is retained, most target readers will read it as **11 September 1989**. Therefore, it was then edited by the ITBM editor into **9 November 1989** and this was retained in the final publication. The changes were made in accordance to a writing style that is familiar to the target audience in Malaysia so as to avoid any confusion.

Structural editing was also done on the translation of *The World is Flat: A Brief History of the Globalized World in the Twenty-First Century*. Texts have two types of structure, conceptual structure and physical structure. Examples of conceptual structure include an argument structure such as presentation of problem, tentative solutions, arguments for, arguments against, conclusion. Based on analysis, physical structure editing is carried out more than conceptual structure editing. Physical structure editing includes title, summary, section head, sequence of paragraphs, and so on. The editor's job is to help the reader follow the conceptual structure by making adjustments in the physical structure (Mossop, 2001:57).

Example 10
ST : FLATTENER # 1
11/9/89
TT1 : Perata #1
11/9/89
ETT : Perata # 1
11/9/89
TT2 : **PERATA 1**
9 NOVEMBER 1989

Example 11
ST : FLATTENER # 2
8/9/95
TT1 : PERATA # 2
8/9/95
ETT : PERATA # 2
8/9/95
TT2 : **PERATA 2**
9 OGOS 1995

Example 10 and Example 11 are examples that show the translator is not consistent in writing the topics in the TT1. There are a lot of headings, sub-headings in ST. A translator has to be consistent in translating and writing them so that the readers will understand the part represented by each topic.
In Example 10, **Flattener #1** is translated as **Perata #1** with only the first letter capitalized whereas in Example 11, **Flattener #2** is translated as **PERATA #2** all in capital letters. The inconsistency is edited by the Commissioner based on house style.

Analysis done also shows that content editing is also carried out on the translated text. One reason why a text needs to be content-edited is that others may not recognize factual errors. It will not always be obvious that there is an error. What more if there is no spelling error in the sentence. For instance:

Example 12

ST: … on what he presumed to be an open **<u>sea</u>** route to the **East Indies** – rather than going south and east around Africa…

TT1: … yang beliau sangkakan sebagai laluan **luat** terbuka timur **India** – berbanding dengan melalui arah selatan dan timur …

ETT: … yang <u>disangka</u> laluan **luat** terbuka <u>ke</u> timur **Hindia** – <u>tidak menuju ke</u> arah selatan dan timur …

*BTT[8] : … on what he presumed to be an open **despise** route **East India** – rather than going south and east around Africa…

TT2: … yang disangka laluan **laut** terbuka ke **<u>Hindia Timur</u>**. Beliau tidak menuju ke arah selatan dan timur …

In Example 12, there are two spellings that were edited by ITBM. It is not meant to say that the spellings are incorrect, but if they are retained, they are bound to produce different meanings from the original text. The word **luat** is used in the translation manuscript and edited by the initial editor. It can be assumed that the word **luat** is a typing error on the translator's part. Hence, the word **luat** is edited into **laut** to suit its equivalence of **sea** in ST.

The other example of word that is edited in this sentence is the word **Indies**. This word is translated as **India** by the translator. It is then edited as **Hindia** in ETT by the external editor. However, the phrase **timur Hindia** in ETT is edited by ITBM and changed into **Hindia Timur** in TT2. **Hindia Timur** and **timur Hindia** are two different phrases with two different meanings. **Timur Hindia** is a phrase that refers to the eastern part of India, while **Hindia Timur** is a proper name that refers to a trading company set up in England in 1600 and later it was to become the ruling power of India as it obtained military and legislative powers. It is obvious that if the phrase is not edited, it will produce a different meaning from the ST.

When people are translating into their native language, they often write ungrammatical and especially unidiomatic sentences, under the influence of the ST (Mossop, 2001:26). Therefore, the editing of sentences is also crucial in a translation to ensure that the sentence is in accordance to the sentence structure of the TL. This can be seen in Example 13. This sentence is translated through modulation where one ST sentence is translated as two sentences in TT2. Occasionally, translator does not have to follow the ST structure if it may lead to confusion or difficult to comprehend.

Example 13

ST : The **<u>fall</u>** 2003 class had 297 Chinese graduate and undergraduate students and 23 Russians.

TT1 : Kelas pada **<u>musim panas</u>** tahun 2003 mempunyai 297 siswazah yang berasal **daripada** China dan 23 siswazah daripada Rusia.

[8] Back translation of TT1

ETT : Kelas pada **<u>musim panas</u>** tahun 2003 mempunyai 297 <u>orang</u> siswazah yang berasal **daripada** China dan 23 <u>orang</u> siswazah daripada Rusia.

*BTT : The **<u>summer</u>** class in 2003 had 297 graduates from China and 23 graduates from Russia.

TT2 : Kelas pada **<u>musim luruh</u>** tahun 2003 mempunyai 297 orang siswazah yang berasal *dari* China dan 23 orang siswazah dari Rusia.

In this sentence, the word **fall** is wrongly translated as **musim panas** by the translator and is retained in ETT. The Commissioner's editor then edits it and replaces it with **musim luruh**. For this matter, although Malaysia does not experience the four seasons, words used to describe each of the season should be carefully chosen to avoid any misunderstanding on the readers' part. The word **panas** is changed into **luruh** because the correct translation for **musim panas** is **summer** as can be seen in BTT. Example 12 and Example 13 show that, sometimes, unchecked minor errors which may lead to inaccurate facts can be rectified when the Commissioner re-edits the text.

Conclusion

As a conclusion, it can be said that the Commissioner plays an important role in every process of translating and publishing of the translation of English nonfiction text. Directly or indirectly, the Commissioner still has its own influence in the whole process. Starting from choosing and deciding on the title of text to be translated right up to the publishing process, the final say comes from the Commissioner. The translator and editor assigned act only as moderators during the process of translating and editing whereas the Commissioner plays its own role in assuring the translation produced complies with what they aim for.

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A Study of the Effectiveness of Storytelling-Based Instruction to Enhance English Listening and Speaking Skills of Sixth Grade Students

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Abstract

This research was an experimental study examining the effectiveness of storytelling-based instruction to enhance sixth grade students' listening and speaking ability. It investigated learners' attitudes towards their English lessons after learning English through storytelling-based instruction. The participants were two classes of sixth grade students, totaling sixty students, selected by convenience sampling from seven intact classes at Bancha-uat School in Nakorn Srithammarat province. The two classes selected were randomly assigned as experimental and control groups. The data were collected through the English Listening and Speaking Skill Achievement Test. The test was administered to both groups as the pre-test and post-test. Following the pre-test, students in the experimental group were taught using the lesson plans of storytelling-based instruction for six weeks for a total of 18 sessions. Meanwhile, the control group was taught using traditional lesson plans that did not employ storytelling. At the end of each lesson the students in the experimental group were asked to write a learning log. After the experiment, their attitudes were explored through the Questionnaire on Students' Attitudes. The data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

The results indicated that the English listening and speaking ability of the students was significantly higher than the control group at the .05 level. In addition, students' attitudes towards English lessons after the experiment were highly positive. This study demonstrated the effectiveness of teaching English listening and speaking skills based on storytelling-based instruction.

Keywords: Storytelling-based instruction, listening and speaking ability, learners' attitude

Background of the Study

In Thailand, English is taught to Thai learners at all levels (Ministry of Education, 2008). The Ministry of Education has been revising the English curricula and emphasizing that English should be taught for communication (Ministry of Education, 2006; Soranastaporn, Chantarasorn, & Chumpavan, 2002). The communicative approach has been introduced to Thai teachers, but students' English skills have not improved (Ministry of Education, 2002). Due to the grammar translation approach, the oral proficiency of learners is not emphasized (Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003). This problem can be found at all education levels from primary through university (Weerawong, 2004; Wiriyachitra, 2002). Punthumasen (2007) explains that most Thai teachers of English focus on reading and writing skills more than listening and speaking skills. Meanwhile, the community and home environment in Thailand does not promote development of students' communicative English skills.

Further factors that contribute to this problem include students' lack of opportunities to use English in their daily lives, English lessons are unchallenging, students are passive learners, and they are too shy to speak English with their classmates, teachers, or with native speakers (Biyaem, 1997; Chiu, Liou, & Yeh, 2007; Wiriyachitra, 2002). According to the Ministry of Education (2002), Thai speakers of English still have serious difficulties in oral communication. Moreover, rural Thai students have even fewer opportunities to experience English (Chiu, Liou, & Yeh, 2007; Pinyosunun, 2005; Rasri, 2002).

With these problems in mind, teaching English for communication to young learners is an important topic to evaluate. Many studies reveal that English is taught best at an early stage. Birdsong (1999) states that young learners are better equipped to develop English language acquisition if they start learning English at an early age. Many experts confirm that children learn foreign languages more quickly than adults (Krashen, Long & Scarcella, 1979; Long 1990). English teachers should be aware of how to teach young learners effectively. Young learners should be supported by contextualizing language with visuals, mime and gestures (Brewster et al., 2004; Gordon, 2007; Shin, 2006). Experts suggest that English teachers should make young learners feel competent and confident by providing them with a safe, entertaining, and educational environment (Schindler, 2006; Scott & Ytreberg, 2001). Shin (2006) also suggests that the more fun students have, the better they remember the language. This is, especially true when they have fun with movement and physical participation. In addition, Nunan (2003) states that when teaching speaking skills, beginning and intermediate students must be given opportunities to develop both fluency and accuracy. Furthermore, Krashen (1981) states that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, good self-image, and low anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Thus, to teach English for communication to young learners, teachers can use various methods such as video clips, storytelling, songs, task-based learning and game activities (Lefever, 2010; Shin, 2006).

The storytelling method, according to Ellis and Brewster (2002) encourages students to learn English while having fun and building confidence. Lee (2007) also supports the use of stories to enhance students' four skills in a variety of activities. A story is an effective tool for early language teaching and helps develop positive attitudes towards a foreign language (Ellis & Brewster, 2002; Malkina, 1993; Murdoch, 2002; Phillip, 1993). In Thailand, the storytelling method has been tested to determine its effectiveness in learning skills. Chiewchorhor (2008) finds that storytelling increases students' listening ability. Similarly, Phuwarat (2003) reveals that the use of songs and tales enhances the listening ability of fifth grade students. Numerous international studies verify that storytelling increases students' motivation to participate in stories and improves their English skills (Prabripu, 2000; Seedhouse &Li, 2010; Seidel, 2002).
The storytelling method clearly helps students develop their English skills. As the curriculum is aimed at enabling learners to acquire knowledge, skills, and positive attitudes towards English (Ministry of Education, 2008), storytelling is a perfect tool that is challenging and provides more opportunities for students to use English. Storytelling can motivate students to communicate. In consideration of studies described above, the present research is concerned with analyzing how storytelling can enhance the ability of students.

Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of this study are as follows:
1. To examine the effectiveness of storytelling-based instruction to develop sixth grade students' English speaking and listening ability.
2. To examine students' attitudes towards their English lessons after learning English through storytelling-based instruction.

Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study are defined as follows:

1. On the post-test administration of the *English Listening Test*, the mean score of students in the storytelling-based instruction group will be higher than the control group.
2. On the post-test administration of the *English Speaking Test*, the mean score of students in the storytelling-based instruction group will be higher than the control group.

Variables

The independent variable was teaching speaking and listening skills based on storytelling-based instruction. The dependent variables included the scores on student's English speaking ability and listening ability in both groups and the attitudes of students in the experimental group after learning through storytelling.

Population and Sample

The population involved in this study consisted of 220 sixth grade students at Bancha-uat School in Nakorn Srithammarat. The sample included 60 sixth grade students selected by drawing from seven classrooms. The students were divided into two groups of thirty students who were randomly selected for participation in the experimental and control groups. They are native Thai speakers and demonstrate a wide range of English ability.

Research Instruments

The research instruments used for collecting data in this study consisted of English listening and speaking skills achievement tests, questionnaires concerning students' attitudes towards learning English through storytelling and learning logs. Storytelling lesson plans were also constructed by the researcher and they were employed with the experimental group.

The English Listening and Speaking Skills Achievement Tests

These tests were constructed by the researcher. The pre-test and post-test were identical. The tests were administered to measure students' ability to communicate before and after the experiment. To construct and design the test, the researcher used the sixth grade Primary English curriculum, story books and classroom testing techniques adapted from Heaton (1990). The first section of the test focused on speaking. It comprised describing pictures, sequencing pictures and telling a story as described by Johnson (2001). The second section focused on listening comprehension and consisted of twenty multiple choice questions.

Analytic Scoring Sheet

The assessment and evaluation of speaking skill was based on an analytic rubric adapted from Heaton (1990) and Sae-Ong (2010). The assessment used the pre-test and post-test speaking tasks for both groups. The researcher plus two assistants (English teachers at Bancha-uat school) evaluated the learners' performance. The analytic scoring consisted of four categories: 1) content, 2) fluency, 3) grammar and 4) vocabulary. Rating descriptions were based on a scale of 1-5 marks.

Questionnaires concerning Students' Attitudes towards learning English through Storytelling-Based Instruction

The questionnaires were used to explore students' attitudes towards learning English through storytelling. The questionnaire was created in Thai and consisted of two main parts. The first part contained ten questions to measure students' attitudes towards storytelling-based instruction. The questions were based on Likert's rating scale **(**5 = Highest**,** 4 = High**,** 3 = Moderate**,** 2 = Low**,** 1 = Lowest). The mean scores were categorized into five levels: 4.51- 5.00 =highly positive, 3.51 - 4.50 =positive, 2.51- 3.50=neutral, 1.51-2.50 = rather negative and 1.00-1.50 =negative. The students rated each statement according to their opinions and preference. The second part of the questionnaire comprised three open-ended questions. This encouraged students to make comments about the activities in the storytelling-based instruction.

Learning Log

A learning log was employed to explore participants' reflections about what they learned in each lesson. It consisted of three main questions. The first question asked about vocabulary learning, which focused on new words, phrases and idioms. The second question concerned the satisfaction with the learning activity, which focused on activities students liked. The last question allowed for additional comments. The experimental group was asked to complete the learning log at the end of each lesson.

Storytelling-Based Instruction Lesson Plans

Five storytelling-based instruction lesson plans were constructed. Each lesson plan was used for three sessions of 50 minutes. According to Ellis and Brewster (2002), each lesson plan consists of three storytelling activity stages. The pre-storytelling activity stage provides a context for the activity to familiarize students with the topic as well as activate their prior knowledge, motivate them and elicite key vocabulary. In this stage, a teacher explains the purpose of an activity and demonstrates it. The while-storytelling activity stage is when students listen to a story and carry out an activity that uses the target language from the first stage. During this process, the researcher circulated the classroom and monitored their efforts, helping as necessary. The post-storytelling activity stage is when students consolidate language from the second stage by doing tasks and individually producing language. The researcher ran a reflective review during this stage to evaluate the activities and performance.

Findings

English Listening and Speaking Ability

The following section presents the findings for the first objective: To examine the effectiveness of storytelling-based instruction to develop sixth grade students' English speaking and listening ability. The mean scores of all students were compared to determine whether there was any significant difference between the pre-test means and post-test means using an independent t-test. The results revealed a significant difference at the .05 level. The experimental group performed substantially better. Table 1 shows the results of the calculation of the overall means of the students.

Table 1

Difference in the Mean Scores of the English Listening and Speaking Pre-test and Post-test of Students in the Experimental Group and Control Group

Students	N	Pre-test Scores		Post-test Scores			
		M	*S.D.*	*M*	*S.D.*	t	Sig.
Experimental group	30	18.53	4.52	24.37	6.89	6.432	.000*
Control group	30	14.67	4.61	14.77	4.40		

* Significant at the 0.05 level (Sig<0.05)

The overall mean scores on the pre-test of the experimental group (*M*=18.53) were higher than the control group (*M*=14.67). The mean scores of the post-test of the experimental group (*M*=24.37) were higher than the control group (*M*=14.77). The post-test mean scores of the experimental group and control group indicated a significant difference value of 0.00, which was lower than the 0.05 level. The results demonstrated a significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups at the 0.05 level. Figure 1 shows a bar graph of comparison of the overall mean scores of two groups.

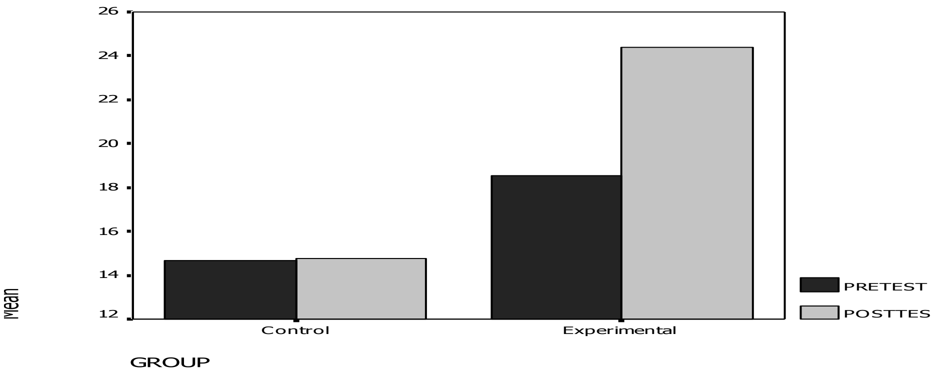

Figure 1. Comparison of the Overall Mean Scores of the Experimental and the Control Groups

To support the first objective, the mean scores of the sixth grade students' English listening ability on pre-test and post-test were compared between the experimental and control groups. Table 2 shows the results of the students' English listening mean scores.

Table 2

Difference in the Mean Scores of the English Listening Pretest and Posttest of Students in the Experimental Group and Control Group

Group	N	Pre-test Scores		Post-test scores			
		M	*S.D.*	*M*	*S.D.*	t	Sig.
Experimental	30	12.77	2.51	13.40	2.92	5.572	.000*
Control	30	9.57	2.99	9.23	2.87		

* Significant at the 0.05 level (Sig<0.05)

The English listening mean score of the post-test for the experimental group (13.40) was higher than on the pre-test (*M*=12.77). Conversely, the mean score of the post-test of the control group (*M*=9.23) was lower in the pre-test (*M*=9.57). The mean score on the post-test of the experimental group (*M*=13.40) was higher than the control group (*M*=9.23). In addition, the post-test mean scores of the two groups indicated a significant difference value of 0.00, which was lower than the 0.05 level. The results demonstrated a significant difference between the posttest scores of the experimental group and control group at the 0.05 level. This means the listening ability of the students taught through the storytelling-based instruction group was significantly higher than the control group. Figure 2 shows a bar graph of comparison in the listening means scores.

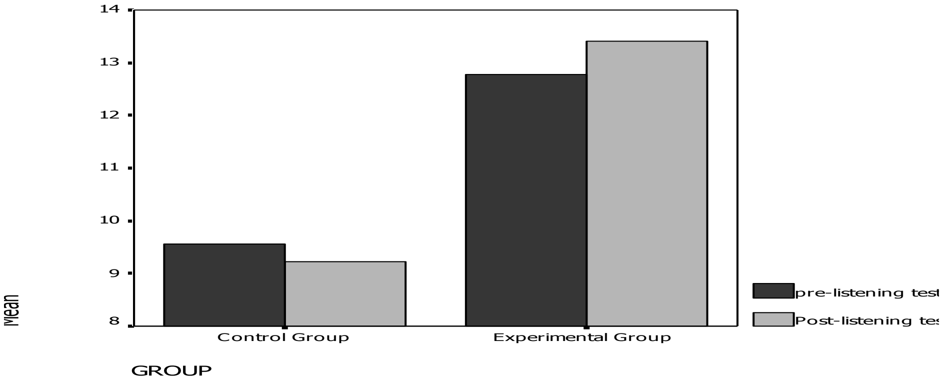

Figure 2. Comparison of Listening Means Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups

The English speaking pre-test and post-test mean scores of the two groups are shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Difference in the Mean Scores of the English Speaking Pre-test and Post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups

Students	N	Pre-test Scores		Post-test Scores			
		M	*S.D.*	*M*	*S.D.*	t	Sig.
Experimental group	30	5.73	2.638	11.30	4.793	5.877	.000*
Control group	30	5.10	2.551	5.53	2.432		

* Significant at the 0.05 level (sig<0.05)

The English speaking mean score of the post-test of the experimental group (*M*=11.30) was higher than on the pretest (*M*=5.73). Similarly, the mean score of the post-test of the control group (M=5.53) was higher than the pre-test (*M*=5.10). The results revealed that the mean scores of the post-test of the experimental group (*M*=11.30) were higher than the control group (*M*=5.53). The post-test scores of the experimental group and control group showed a significant difference value of 0.00, which was lower than the 0.05 level. The results indicated a significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental group and control group at the 0.05 level. This indicates that the speaking ability of the students taught through the storytelling-based instruction group was significantly higher than the control group. Figure 3 shows a bar graph of comparison in the speaking means scores of the two groups.

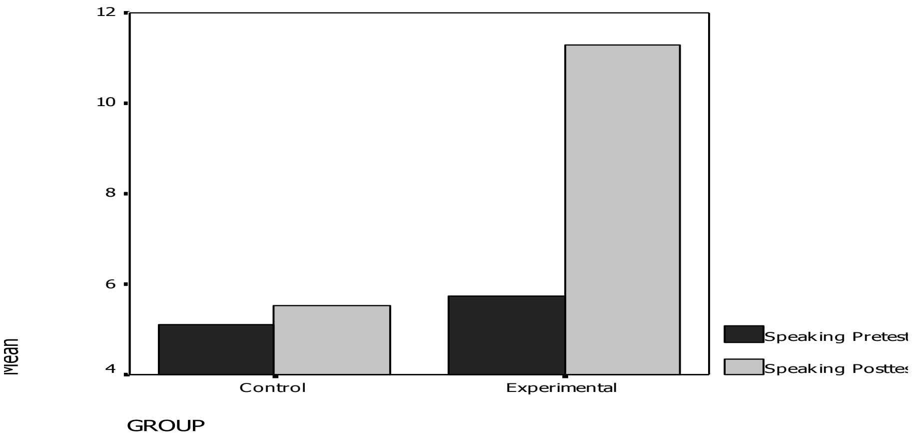

Figure 3. Comparison of the Speaking Means Scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Learning Log

A learning log was used by the experimental group to address the first objective. It was employed to explore participants' reflections about what they learned in each lesson. The results indicated that the activities encouraged students to practice English listening and speaking skills, which enhanced their ability.
The following section presents the findings for the second objective: To study learners' attitudes towards their English lessons after learning English through storytelling.

The Students' Attitude towards Storytelling-Based Instruction

Students self-rating scores from the attitude questionnaires were analyzed and calculated for the mean and the standard deviations and interpreted into five levels from negative to highly positive. The result showed that students had a positive attitudes towards storytelling-based instruction at a highly positive level (M=4.56). The learners were most positive towards item 4 (M=4.77). They responded that they learned a lot of English vocabulary after listening to English stories. The second most positive mean score was item 8 (M=4.70). They answered that they liked to learn English through storytelling because they were not bored. However, learners expressed a low level of positive mean score towards item 2 (M=4.50) and item 5 (M=4.23). The students liked to speak English and they had more confidence after they learned through storytelling. In addition, they had good attitudes towards storytelling. Stories helped them imagine, develop their ability and learn new vocabulary. They agreed that storytelling should be used in class.

Discussion

The Students' Achievement in English Learning through Storytelling-Based instruction

A variety of factors contribute to the effectiveness of storytelling-based instruction. According to Ellis and Brewster (2002), storytelling promotes language learning. The researcher narrated stories that contained natural repetition of key vocabulary and structures to help students remember details and anticipate what was about to happen next in the story. The stories also allowed the researcher to introduce new vocabulary by showing pictures and illustrations. The learning logs from lesson two showed that 30 percent of students remembered the vocabulary because it was very interesting and had a lot of repetition. Lee (2007) explains that stories enhance students' four skills. The data showed that the mean scores on the post-test of the experimental group (M=24.70) was higher than the control group (M=14.77). The ability of the students taught through storytelling was significantly higher than the control group. The findings were consistent with Chiewchorhor's study (2008). Chiewchorhor indicates that storytelling increases students' listening ability. The mean scores of the post-test of the experimental group (M=13.40) was higher than the control group (M=9.23). This was because students had listen to a picture storybook being read aloud, which helped them remember information, language and content. In addition, the mean scores of the English speaking post-test of the experimental group (M=11.30) were higher than the control group (M=5.53) because all students practiced the target language by using group or pair work activities. According to Nunan (2003), pair work and group work activities increase the amount of time that learners get to speak in the target language.

In a broader sense, storytelling promotes imagination and fantasy (Ellis& Brewster, 2002). Similarly, Tutas (2000) points out that storytelling encourage critical thinking, creative thinking and imagination. According to students' learning logs, they enjoyed imagining the stories. In the while-storytelling stage, the researcher provided the students to guess and predict what was coming next. In the post-storytelling stage, the students were required to re- create the story, draw a picture and describe story pictures. This activity encouraged students' imagination, critical thinking and creative thinking.

Storytelling is also motivating and students become absorbed in stories (Stockdale, 1995). Ellis and Brewster (2002) explain that listening to a story is a shared social experience and promotes motivation and confidence. In learning logs from lesson three, 10 percent of students said that the stories motivated and the activities promoted their self-confidence and imagination, consistent with findings by Seidel (2002). The results revealed that students were highly motivated to participate in storytelling.

Students' Attitudes towards Storytelling-Based Instruction

The second objective addressed in this study was to study learners' attitudes towards their English lessons through storytelling. Satisfaction was highly positive (M=4.56). According to Gardner (1985), positive attitudes lead to improved language proficiency and play a very important role in language learning. It was found that storytelling satisfied the students in all aspects. They liked learning English through storytelling because they had an opportunity to communicate with the teacher, learned a lot of English vocabulary, had fun, could imagine the story and pictures and they were not bored. They also learned foreign culture from the lesson such as life style and food. In addition, the students liked to speak English words or sentences and they had more confidence to speak English after they learned English through storytelling.

Many researchers agree that storytelling is an effective tool to develop positive attitudes towards foreign language learning (Ellis & Brewster, 2002; Malkina, 1993; Murdoch, 2002; and Phillip, 1993). The data from open-ended questions showed that the main thing students learned was new vocabulary (56.67%), how to tell a story (26.67%) and listened to English stories (16.67%). The data also showed that when questioned about their satisfaction to have English storytelling-based instruction in the class, students responded that 53.33 percent of students wanted to have English storytelling-based instruction in the class because they liked to listen and tell English story very much. The 46.67 percent of students responded that English storytelling-based instruction was fun and it was not boring. In addition, 20.00 percent of students wanted to learn more vocabulary and learn English storytelling with the teacher again. Relative to above mentioned, Ellis (2000) explains that positive attitudes enhance learning while negative attitudes impede it. Chamber (1999) adds that learning occurs more easily when a learner has a positive attitude towards the language.

In summary, positive attitudes towards storytelling affects the development of students' English listening and speaking ability. Students' satisfaction with learning English through storytelling was highly positive (M=4.56). The results revealed that storytelling successfully enhanced students' English speaking and listening ability at the 0.05 level. Students also improved their self confidence, motivation and classroom participation.

Implications of the Study

The results indicated that storytelling could successfully enhance students' English speaking and listening ability. However, there are some implications for the English teacher consider.
Before giving tasks to students, a teacher should explain clear procedures and check students' understanding before allowing them to do the activities. If students get their work before receiving clear instructions, they will focus on the work instead of listening to the teacher.

In addition, a teacher should not have high expectations of students' speaking ability because they exhibit different proficiency levels in one class. Teachers should be patient and try to encourage them to speak. At first, let them work in pairs. When they are familiar with speaking or feel more confident, ask them to speak individually in front of the class.

Moreover, a teacher should walk around the class to monitor students while they are doing activities. Some of them might need help from the teacher; especially low proficiency students. Monitoring helps students focus on their activity more completely.
Finally, storytelling-based instruction should be applied as a teaching tool in Thai English language learning and teaching from the primary level. This effective tool provides students an opportunity to develop their listening and speaking skills in English and helps develop positive attitudes.

Limitations of the Study

There were three limitations in this study. First, this study was limited by time. The research was conducted within 6 weeks because the researcher was not a resident teacher at the school. Giving more time, the results might have been different. Second, during the experiment, an annual sport school event was held. The experiment had to extend beyond the planned schedule. The researcher had to make-up classes on Saturdays. This different class schedule may have skewed the results. Finally, the students' questionnaire in this study was only aimed to ask what activity students like in the storytelling-based instruction. If the questions had been added to obtain what activity they did not like, the results would have reflected the effectiveness of using storytelling-based instruction precisely.

Recommendations for Further Studies

Recommendations for further studies are as follows:
1. To determine whether storytelling-based instruction would be beneficial to other groups of students, the research should be expanded to study results at other levels, such as lower secondary and upper secondary level.
2. This research should also be conducted to examine the effectiveness of storytelling to enhance students' reading and writing ability.

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The Use of Listening Strategies among First-Year University Students

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Abstract

In learning a new language, listening skills develop faster than speaking skills. This lack of listening skills development often negatively affects the development of reading and writing abilities (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Oxford, 1993, Vandergrift, 1997). Therefore, it is essential to study strategies of listening and other factors which affect these strategies. The purpose of this study is to investigate English listening strategies employed by non-English major university students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology. The study also examines the comparison of listening strategies according to gender and field of study. There were 457 university students who participated in this study during the academic year of 2011. A self-compiled listening strategy questionnaire was used to identify the strategies the students employed. The findings showed that the students employed compensation strategies and metacognitive strategies at a high level. However, the rest of the strategies were used at a moderate level. The results also showed the analysis of a t-test, which indicated that there were no statistically significant differences of listening strategies between male and female students. Finally, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that students in different fields of study showed statistically significant differences between some types of strategies. The research results obtained from this study will provide references for EFL teachers to evaluate their teaching techniques in the classroom. Besides, the findings will likely contribute useful knowledge as a baseline for interested teachers and researchers for further investigation in the field of listening skills development.

Keywords: listening strategies, university students, undergraduate students, non-English major undergraduates

Introduction

Over the last several decades, several research has highlighted that listening skills play an important role in language acquisition in a second and foreign language (Dunkel, 1991; Feyten, 1991; Brown, 1995; Morley, 1999; Rost, 1990; Vandergrift, 1996, 1997, 2003, 2004). In acquiring a new target language, listening develops faster than speaking which often negatively affects the development of ability in reading and writing (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Oxford, 1993; Vandergrift, 1997). During an active process of listening, listeners receive input through listening before interpreting and responding in speaking and writing. They make meaning from the oral input by using their prior background knowledge of the world and of the second language, and then maintain information in their long term memory and produce their own interpretation of the written and spoken utterances (Byrnes, 1984; Murphy, 1985; Nagle & Sanders, 1986; Medelsohn, 1994; Young, 1997). Moreover, many researchers, such as Vandergrift, (2002, 2003) stated that language listeners use both prior background knowledge, top-down processes, linguistic knowledge, and bottom-up processes to understand aural messages. The listening comprehension process is very complicated for second and foreign language learners who have a limitation of memory capacity of the target language (Richards, 1983). Thus, second language learners have developed various listening strategies in order to overcome their difficulties in developing listening skills. These strategies based on Oxford's (1990) language learning strategies were categorised into two main groups: direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are directly involved with the target language and can be further subdivided into three subcategories: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies. Memory Strategies are listening strategies which help students to store new information for later retrieval. Cognitive Strategies are essential in learning a new language and contain a variety of strategies such as repeating, analysing, and summarising the target language. Compensation Strategies enable learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge (Oxford, 1990: 47). Indirect strategies support and manage language learning without being directly involved with the target language. They can be further subdivided into three subcategories: metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. Metacognitive Strategies provide a way for language learners to employ their own learning process. Affective Strategies involve emotions, attitudes, motivations, and values. They help language learners control their emotions and anxiety. Social Strategies involve interaction with other people.

There were numerous publications and research which reported a valuable and fruitful exploration in the field of listening strategies. In addition, many researchers have examined various factors which have affected the choice of listening strategies used by second or foreign language learners. One of the factors which received a lot of attention from scholars, researchers and practitioners was learners' listening proficiency levels, and several findings indicated that this variable was strongly related with the choice of listening strategies (Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011; Chamot, O'Malley, Küpper, & Impink-Hermandez, 1987; Goh, 2002; Liu, 2008; Murphy, 1985; O'Malley, Chamot, & Küpper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003). However, other variables such as gender and field of study have not received much research attention to determine more fruitful information. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate and answer the following research questions:

1) Which listening strategies do first-year university students employ while listening to a spoken text?

2) Are there any differences in listening strategy use between female and male first-year university students?

3) Are there any differences in listening strategy use among first-year university students in different fields of study?

Literature Review

The Listening Comprehension Process

In previous studies of the listening comprehension process, several researchers have identified several steps which are involved during the listening comprehension process. In Anderson's underpinning theory, the listening comprehension process or internalised listening process contains three stages: perceptual, parsing, and utilisation (Anderson, 2005). During the perceptual process, listeners focus on the oral text and preserve the sound in echoic memory. Then listeners immediately transfer the information in the echoic memory to the short-term memory to process the sounds of meaning. During the next stage, the parsing process, listeners use words, messages, and linguistic knowledge to segment the aural input and reorganise the messages stored in short-term memory. During the final stage, the utilisation process, listeners utilise long-term memory in order to link the incoming message to their previous knowledge. If the new message can link with previous knowledge, listening comprehension happens (Anderson, 2005).

Vandergrift (2002) explained another process of listening comprehension involving two distinct processes: top-down processes and bottom-up processes. Listeners use top-down processes when they utilise previous background knowledge to interpret the meaning of a message. This previous background knowledge refers to information about the topic, the context of listening, the text-type, and the cultural information stored in long-term memory, or schemata. On the contrary, listeners use bottom-up processes when they acquire the meaning of the message based on the incoming linguistic knowledge. They compile meaning from sounds to words to grammatical relationships to meanings of words and expressions in order to finally understand the message. Vandergrift (2002, 2003) and many researchers, such as Brown (1977); Lin (2000); Numan (2002) also indicated that listeners use both previous background knowledge and linguistic knowledge in order to understand oral messages.

Factors Influencing Selection of Listening Strategies

Researchers have differently defined factors influencing listening comprehension. Boyle (1984) identified four factors: listener factors, speaker factors, stimulus factors, and context factors. Rubin (1994) reviewed over 130 studies and identified five major factors which influence listening comprehension. The following five factors were investigated; 1) characteristics of spoken texts such as speech rate, hesitation and pausing, perception of stress and rhythmic patterning, syntactic modifications, complexity of morphology, word order, discourse markers, and visual support materials; 2) characteristics of the interlocutor such as language proficiency and gender; 3) characteristics of listening tasks; 4) listeners' characteristics, including language proficiency level, memory, attention, age, gender, and background knowledge; 5) characteristics of the listening process; e.g., top-down processes and bottom-up processes.

Oxford and Nyikos's (1989) study discovered that various variables affected the choice of language learning strategies. The results indicated that motivation, years of study, gender, and field of study showed significant differences in language strategy choice. Furthermore, Politzer and McGroarty (1985) also aimed to examine the relationships among students' field of study towards their language learning behaviour and strategy use. The findings showed that fields of study significantly influenced the students' language strategy use.

In the area of listening strategies, several researchers found many factors which affected the choice of listening strategy use, such as listening ability, listening proficiency levels, and gender (Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011; Chamot, O'Malley, Küpper, & Impink-Hermandez, 1987; Goh, 2002; Liu, 2008; Murphy, 1985; O'Malley, Chamot, & Küpper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003). However, this field of study has not received sufficient research attention in the field of listening skills, although some research has indicated its relationship with language learning strategies (Ghadessy, 1998; Oxford, 1989; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Politzer and McGroarty, 1985; Satta-udom, 2007).

Research of Listening Strategies

Over the last three decades, a number of scholars and researchers such as Murphy (1985); O'Malley, Chamot, & Küpper (1989); Teng (1998); Vandergrift (1997, 2003); Liu (2008); Bidabadi & Yamat (2011) and others studied the frequency of use of listening strategies among second or foreign language learners with different levels of listening abilities. Some research is highlighted below:

Vandergrift (1997) used a think aloud technique to collect data from high school French students.

The findings indicated that students mostly employed metacognitive strategies, followed by cognitive strategies, while the least used strategy was socioaffective strategies. In addition, the study revealed that successful learners used double the number of metacognitive strategies than less successful learners. The metacognitive strategies included comprehension monitoring, problem identification, and selective attention. The results also showed small differences of strategy use between males and females. Female students reported used slightly more metacognitive strategies than their male peers.

Teng (1998) investigated listening strategies used by 51 freshmen university students in Taiwan. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) was applied to elicit the strategies which the students employed. This included six categories of listening strategies, namely memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social and affective strategies. The findings indicated that compensation strategies were the most frequently used strategies, followed by cognitive strategies, memory strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies, and affective strategies, which were the least frequently used strategies. Furthermore, the individual strategies with the highest frequency of use were paying attention and translating. In addition, the results revealed that effective listeners used significantly more strategies than less effective listeners did in five of the six strategy categories, which included compensation, cognitive, memory, metacognitive, and social strategies.

Some researchers such as Vandergrift (2003); Liu (2008); Bidabadi & Yamat (2011); and others found statistically significant differences between listeners' proficiency levels and listening strategy use. A summary of some of this research is shown below:

Vandergrift (2003) used think-aloud and quantitative date to examine listening strategy use among 36 junior high school students of French in Canada and found that skilled students employed meta-cognitive strategies more frequently that less skilled students. There were statistically significant differences in the use of the metacognitive category strategies: comprehension monitoring, and questioning for elaboration between skilled students and less skilled peers.

Bidabadi & Yamat (2011) examined 92 Iranian EFL freshman university students. They were grouped into three levels of listening proficiency: advanced, intermediate, and lower-intermediate listeners. A listening strategy questionnaire was used to identify the strategies employed by the students in listening to text. The findings revealed that the students at all levels employed meta-cognitive strategies more actively and frequently than cognitive and socio-affective listening strategies. The study also found a significant positive correlation between the listening strategies and students' listening proficiency levels.

From the aforementioned information, there were various research which investigated listening strategies used among different groups of listening abilities, and some evidence showed the relationship between listening strategies and their proficiency levels. However, other factors such as gender and field of study have not received adequate research attention to allow more fruitful information. There has been little research regarding listening strategies; however, some of this research is summarised below.

Vandergrift (1996) examined the relationship between listening strategy use and language proficiency among high school learners of French. Students with different course levels were interviewed by using structured questionnaires to collect data after different types of listening tasks. The findings revealed that students at all four course levels reported three types of strategy use, namely metacognitive, cognitive, and socialaffective strategies. The cognitive strategies were the most frequently used. The total number of strategies and the number of distinct metacognitive strategies were increased by course level. Moreover, the study found that female students tended to employ a higher number of metacognitive strategies than male counterparts.

Using questionnaires, Goh (2002) investigated the use of listening strategies among 118 Chinese ESL learners consisting of 94 males and 24 females at Singapore University. The findings showed that subjects frequently used inferencing, directed attending, elaborating, contextualisation, and self-encouragement to facilitate listening comprehension. In addition, Goh found that there were no significant differences between male and female students in the selection of listening strategies.

Politzer and McGroarty (1985) investigated 37 students who enrolled in an intensive course in English as a second language (ESL) in the USA. A questionnaire was used to classify language behaviour strategies reported by the subjects. The findings revealed the language learning behaviour strategies employed by the subjects. In addition, the results indicated the statistically significant differences between the students' language strategy use and field of study.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to ask learners to report the frequency of language strategy use. There were 1,200 foreign language learners enrolled in a major university in the mid-western USA who participated in this study. This study aimed to examine various variables affecting the choice of language learning strategies. The results indicated that motivation, years of study, gender, and field of study showed significant differences in language strategy choice. However, Ghadessy's study (1998) investigated the relationship between language learning strategy use and field of study. The findings showed that field of study did not indicate strong significant differences in the choice of language learning strategies. Satta-udom (2007) also examined the relationship between language learning strategy use and field of study. This study found that the overall use of language learning strategies reported by science and non-science students was not significantly different. However, the findings showed that the non-science students used social strategies significantly more than science students.

Methodology

Population and Subjects

The population of this study totalled 796 first-year university students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology in the 2011 academic year. They were taking English for Communication 2 as their compulsory subjects. They studied grammar, reading, and vocabulary with Thai teachers twice a week and took a one-hour listening and speaking session with foreign teachers.

The total number of subjects of this study was 457 first-year university students, all non-English majors. However, the study was reduced to 438 students due to incompleteness of the returned questionnaires. There were 251 males and 187 females aged between 17 – 22 years. Their study programmes were divided into two main fields: technical study and business study. The subjects contained 299 technical students; 90 students majored in Automotive Engineering (AE), 33 students majored in Production Engineering (PE), 54 students majored in Computer Engineering (CE), 36 students majored in Information Technology (IT), 60 students majored in Multimedia Technology (MT), and 26 students majored in Business Information (BI). The business students consisted of 139 students; 53 students majored in Industrial Management (IM), and 86 students majored in Business Administration (Japanese) (BJ). Stratified random sampling techniques were used to selected the participants

Instrument

A self-compiled questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part contained personal information including gender, age, study programme and the second part consisted of questions related to listening strategies. The questionnaire was adapted from Oxford's SILL version 7.0 (Oxford, 1989) and consisted of 46 items. Each question was measured in a five point Likert-scale where students were asked to indicate their responses according to the strategy descriptions which appeared in the questionnaire. The criteria used for evaluating the degree of frequency of strategy use are: lowest frequency use (1.0 – 1.49), low frequency use (1.5 – 2.49), moderate frequency use (2.5 – 3.49), high frequency use (3.5 – 4.49), and highest frequency use (4.5 – 5.0). The items were modified in order to suit the Thai students' context. The questionnaire was piloted prior to the actual data collection. The reliability according to Cronbach's Alpha was 0.718.

Data Analysis

The statistical analysis was conducted utilising the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 13.0 for Windows. The descriptive statistics were utilised to rank the listening strategies from the most preferred to the least preferred categories. Then, a t-test was utilised to determine the differences of the mean between two variables by using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) or F-test and Scheffe's method were applied to test the significant differences among more than three variables.

Findings

Research question 1: Which listening strategies do first-year university students employ while listening to a spoken text?

The first purpose of the present study is to investigate English listening strategies employed by first-year university students. According to the findings, the students employed all six categories of listening strategies: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies, and affective strategies. The highest frequency of types of strategy use is compensation strategies, while the lowest frequency of types of strategy use is social strategies.

Table 1 Frequency of Listening Strategy Use Reported by First-Year University Students

Listening Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank Order	Frequency of Strategy Use
Compensation Strategies	3.73	0.71	1	high
Metacognitive Strategies	3.53	0.67	2	high
Memory Strategies	3.31	0.63	3	moderate
Cognitive Strategies	3.29	0.63	4	moderate
Affective Strategies	3.21	0.74	5	moderate
Social Strategies	2.99	0.89	6	moderate
Overall	3.34	0.55		moderate

Table 1 indicates the descriptive statistics listening strategies and average frequency of listening strategy use reported by 438 first-year university students. The results showed that the overall use of listening strategies was moderate (Mean = 3.34). In other words, all six strategy categories were rated at a moderate level of use. The category of strategy used most often was compensation strategies (Mean = 3.73), followed by metacognitive strategies (Mean = 3.53), memory strategies (Mean = 3.31), cognitive strategies (Mean = 3.29), affective strategies (Mean = 3.21), and social strategies (Mean = 2.99).

Compensation strategies are categorised as direct strategies consisting of one strategy set: guessing intelligently. As shown in Table 1 in the Appendix, the first-year students reported their use of compensation strategies at a high level (Mean = 3.80 – 3.55). The first most frequently used strategy was devoted to "guessing unfamiliar English words" (Mean = 3.80), while the least frequently used strategy was reported to "using speakers' gestures to guess".

Metacognitive strategies are grouped as indirect strategies containing three main strategy sets: centering learning, arranging and planning learning, and evaluating learning. As can be seen in Table 2 in the Appendix, the first-year students reported their use of metacognitive strategies at a high level of use to a moderate level of use (Mean 3.95 - 2.89). Thinking about progress was the strategy employed most often at a high level of use (Mean = 3.95). The second most commonly employed strategy at a high level of use (Mean = 3.84) was "listening carefully when someone speaks in English". The least often employed strategy at a moderate level of use (Mean = 2.89) was "planning to practice listening in English".

Memory strategies are classified as direct strategies consisting of four strategy sets including creating mental linkage, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing action. As shown in Table 3 in the Appendix, the students indicated their use of memory strategies at a high level of use to a moderate level of use (Mean 3.66 – 2.71). The most often employed strategy at a high level of use was "memorising the sounds of new English words by making a mental picture" (Mean = 3.66). "Connecting the sound of a new English word and image of the word to remember" and "Remembering new words or phrases by remembering their usage in films or songs" were the second and third most often employed strategies at a high level of use (Mean = 3.55 & 3.53). The findings show that "using flash cards to remember new words" was the least often employed strategy.

Cognitive strategies were in the group of direct strategies containing four strategy sets including practising, receiving and sending messages, analysing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output. As can be seen in Table 4 in the Appendix, the findings disclosed that the students most frequently used the strategy of "listening to English music" (Mean = 3.83) and "watching English language films" was the second most frequently used strategy. The results indicate that "making summary of information" was the least frequently used strategy employed by the first-year students (Mean = 2.73).

Affective strategies were classified as indirect strategies consisting of three strategy sets; lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, and taking your emotional temperature. As indicated in Table 5 in the Appendix, the first-year students reported their use of affective strategies at a high level of use to a moderate level of use (Mean 3.80 - 2.69). According to the findings, most of the students preferred the strategy use of "encouraging themselves when taking listening tests". Furthermore, relaxing whenever they felt afraid of using English was the second most often employed strategy at a high level of use. The findings disclose that "writing down their feelings about learning English listening in a diary" was the least frequently used strategy reported by the first-year university students (Mean 2.69).

Social strategies were defined as indirect strategies including three strategy sets: asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathising with others. As shown in Table 6 in the Appendix, the first-year students reported their use of social strategies at a moderate level of use (Mean 3.25 - 2.83). Referring to the results, the most frequently used strategy reported by the students was "learning about English culture to improve listening skills" (Mean = 3.25), while the least frequently used strategy was "practising English listening with other students" (Mean =2.83).

Research question 2: Are there any differences in listening strategy use between female and male first-year university students?

The second purpose of this research is to examine the differences in listening strategy use between female and male first-year university students. In order to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in listening strategy use between females and males, an independent sample t-test was analysed. The criterion set for the value of significance is $p < .05$.

Table 2 Comparing Six Groups of Listening Strategies Between Male and Female First-Year University Students (N=438)

Listening Strategies	**Males (N=251)**			**Females (N=187)**			**MD**	**t**	**p**
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Rank order**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	**Rank order**			
Memory Strategies	3.32	0.68	3	3.31	0.56	3	0.894	0.138	0.894
Cognitive Strategies	3.32	0.67	4	3.27	0.59	4	0.518	0.660	0.518
Compensation Strategies	3.74	0.72	1	3.73	0.70	1	0.836	0.208	0.836
Metacognitive Strategies	3.51	0.68	2	3.57	0.66	2	0.342	0.956	0.342
Affective Strategies	3.19	0.77	5	3.25	0.71	5	0.474	0.880	0.474
Social Strategies	3.03	0.92	6	2.95	0.87	6	0.383	0.280	0.383
Overall	**3.34**	**0.58**		**3.35**	**0.50**		**0.157**	**0.280**	**0.780**

* Statistical Significance at .05 level

Table 2 shows that the mean of overall listening strategy use from female students was higher than that of male students, but not at a significant level of $p < .05$. In other words, the use of overall listening strategies reported by female students and male students was not significantly different; at a confidence level of .05. Moreover, the findings show that there was not a significant difference between the use of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies between female students and male students; at a confidence level of .05.

Research question 3: Are there any differences in listening strategy use among first-year university students in different fields of study?

To answer this question, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in listening strategy use and field of study reflected in students' majors. The criterion set for the value of significance is $p < .05$. Scheffe's method

(Ferguson, 1981: 308) was further analysed to find statistically significant differences in the use of listening strategies for each pair of students' majors.

Table 3 Comparison of Results for Significant Differences of Listening Strategies and Students' Majors

ANOVA

Components		SS	df	MS	F	p	Scheffe
1. Memory Strategies	Between Groups	5.269	7	0.753	1.891	0.069	
	Within Groups	167.59	421	0.398			
	Total	172.859	428				
2. Cognitive Strategies	Between Groups	7.347	7	1.05	2.665	0.010*	MT-CE
	Within Groups	160.658	408	0.394			
	Total	168.004	415				
3. Compensation Strategies	Between Groups	6.696	7	0.957	1.921	0.065	
	Within Groups	207.094	416	0.498			
	Total	213.79	423				
4. Metacognitive Strategies	Between Groups	3.173	7	0.453	1.002	0.429	
	Within Groups	188.715	417	0.453			
	Total	191.888	424				
5. Affective Strategies	Between Groups	10.955	7	1.565	2.896	0.006*	MT-CE, IM-CE
	Within Groups	228.031	422	0.54			
	Total	238.986	429				
6. Social Strategies	Between Groups	14.451	7	2.064	2.623	0.012*	MT-CE, MT-BJ
	Within Groups	335.344	426	0.787			
	Total	349.795	433				
7. Total	Between Groups	4.372	7	0.625	2.071	0.046*	
	Within Groups	112.775	374	0.302			
	Total	117.146	381				

* Statistical Significance at .05 level

In Table 3, using an analysis of variance (ANOVA), the overall result indicates that there was a statistically significant difference between listening strategy use and field of study referring to students' majors; at a confidence level of .05 (p = 0.046). Three out of six listening strategies were found with statistically significant differences; at a confident level of .05. These include cognitive strategies (p=0.010), affective strategies (p=0.006) , and social strategies (p=0.012).

Further analysis was conducted by applying Scheffe's method to find statistically significant differences at a confidence level of .05 in the use of listening strategies for each pair of students' majors. The results show that students majoring in Multimedia Technology (MT) employed cognitive, affective, and social strategies significantly more than students majoring in Computer Engineering (CE). The findings also indicated that students majoring in Industrial Management (IM) reported the use of affective strategies significantly more than students majoring in Computer Engineering (CE). Finally, the study of the present results shows that students majoring in Multimedia Technology (MT) used social strategies significantly more than students majoring in Business Administration – Japanese (BJ).

Discussions

Discussion of finding 1

According to the findings, the first-year university students occasionally used all six types of listening strategies. The most often used strategies were compensation strategies, followed by metacognitive strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and affective strategies. Social strategies were the least often used strategies. The findings concur with Teng (1998) who found that, in a study of 51 freshmen Taiwanese students, compensation strategies were used the most compared to other types of strategies. This present study implies that students try to guess unfamiliar English words, they predict what the speakers will say next, and they use prior knowledge and speakers' gestures to guess.

The second most commonly employed group of strategies was metacognitive strategies. This present study concurs with Vandergrift's (1997) study which found that 21 high school French students reported a high use of metacognitive strategies, such as comprehension monitoring, problem identification, and planning. However, this current study contradicts Teng (1998) who found that 51 freshmen university students in Taiwan used metacognitive strategies at a medium level.

As for memory strategies, the findings found that students employed memory strategies at a moderate level. In terms of the frequency of use, they occasionally used these strategies. The present study supports the findings of Teng (1998), which showed that students applied the strategy functions of creating mental linkages and applying images and sounds.

Next, the use of cognitive strategies was used at a moderate level by first-year students. This present study contradicts Vandergrift's (1997) study, which found that 21 high school French students reported a high use of cognitive strategies, such as summarisation and elaboration, inferencing, translation, transfer, and repetition. The current results found that the most frequently used strategies amongst the students were practising naturally by listening to English music and watching English films or English TV programmes.

The results showed that university students did not employ affective strategies often; however, they employed this set of strategies to encourage themselves when taking English listening tests and to relax whenever they felt afraid of using English. The findings contradicted Teng (1998), who found that 51 freshmen university students in Taiwan reported using these affective strategies the least.

The present study found that social strategies were the least often used strategies. The students studied the culture of English speakers to improve listening skills, asked foreign friends and teachers for clarification, and practised listening with friends (Oxford, 1990). The results match the findings of Vandergrift (1997); Bidahadi & Yamate (2011) who found that the students employed social affective strategies to cooperate with other students to solve their listening problems, to verify understanding, and lower anxiety.

Discussion of finding 2

To investigate the discrepancy of the listening strategy use between male female students, an Independent Sample t-test was applied. This present study discovered that the use of overall listening strategies reported by male students and female counterparts was not significantly different; at a confidence level of .05. Moreover, the findings show that there was not a significant difference in the use of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies between male and female students; at a confidence level of .05. The present findings support Goh's (2002) study which discovered that there were no significant differences between male and female students in the selection of listening strategies among 118 Chinese ESL learners in Singapore university. Even though the present study found no statistically significant differences in the use of listening strategies between male and female students, there were slight differences in the use of metacognitive strategies between male students (Mean = 3.51) and female students (Mean = 3.57). This study supports the study of Vendergrift (1996; 1997), which found that female students tended to employ a slightly higher number of metacognitive strategies than male counterparts.

Discussion of finding 3

To examine the differences of the listening strategy use among students with different fields of study, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Scheffe's method were utilised. The results from this study found that students from different fields of study, here referred to as students' majors, reported different listening strategy use. Students who majored in Multimedia Technology (MT) and Computer Engineering (CE), categorised as a technical field, used affective strategies and social strategies significantly different than students from the fields of business, Industrial Management (IM) and Business Administration – Japanese (BJ). The results support Oxford & Nyikos (1989) and Politzer & McGroarty's (1985) study which indicated that students in science and non science related fields showed significant differences in language strategy choice. However, this study also found that students, who were in the same technical field, majoring in Multimedia Technology (MT) and Computer Engineering (CE), reported significant differences of use of cognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. Their background knowledge in high school may have caused differences (Rubin, 1994). According to the Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology's admission qualification requirements for high school applicants (Announcement dated 28th July 2011), only high school graduates from a science field can apply for the Computer Engineering major (CE), while high school graduates from a science field or a non-science field can apply for the Multimedia Technology major (MT). Scientific background knowledge for students majoring in Computer Engineering (CE) may have caused differences in listening strategy use.

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Appendix

Table 1 Frequency of Compensation Strategies Used by First-year University Students

Compensation Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank order	Frequency of Strategy Use
1. I make guesses to understand unfamiliar English words.	3.80	0.93	1	high
4. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	3.80	0.95	2	high
3. I use my prior knowledge to guess.	3.77	0.98	3	high
2. I use the speakers' gestures to guess.	3.55	1.12	4	high

Table 2 Frequency of Metacognitive Strategies Used by First-Year University Students

Metacognitive Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank order	Frequency of Strategy Use
9. I think about my progress in learning listening in English.	3.95	0.90	1	high
3. I listen carefully when someone is speaking English.	3.84	0.87	2	high
1. I try to find as many ways as I can to improve my English listening skill.	3.68	0.96	3	high
4. I try to find out how to be a better listener of English	3.65	0.91	4	high
8. I have clear goals for improving my English listening skills.	3.59	1.00	5	high
2. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	3.51	0.92	6	high
7. I look for opportunities to listen as much as possible in English.	3.41	1.02	7	moderate

Metacognitive Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank order	Frequency of Strategy Use
9. I think about my progress in learning listening in English.	3.95	0.90	1	high
3. I listen carefully when someone is speaking English.	3.84	0.87	2	high
6. I look for people I can practise listening and speaking in English.	3.25	1.06	8	moderate
5. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to practise listening in English.	2.89	1.06	9	moderate

Table 3 Frequency of Memory Strategies Used by First-Year University Students

Memory Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank order	Frequency of Strategy Use
4. I memorise the sound of new English words by making a mental picture of situation in which the words might be used.	3.66	0.85	1	high
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	3.55	0.89	2	high
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their usage in films or songs.	3.53	1.07	3	high
2. I use new English words I hear in a sentence so I can remember them.	3.47	0.87	4	moderate
1. I think of relationships between words or phrases I hear and new words or phrases I learn in English.	3.46	0.78	5	moderate
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	3.23	0.94	6	moderate
8. I review English listening lessons often.	3.17	1.05	7	moderate
7. I physically act out to remember new English words.	3.05	1.25	8	moderate
6. I use flashcard to remember new English words.	2.71	1.15	9	moderate

Table 4 Frequency of Cognitive Strategies Used by First-Year University Students

Cognitive Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank order	Frequency of Strategy Use
7. I listen to music in English.	3.83	1.03	1	high
6. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to see films spoken in English.	3.65	1.02	2	high
2. I try to talk like native English speakers.	3.63	0.94	3	high
4. I use the English words I hear in different ways.	3.47	0.95	4	moderate
13. I try not to translate word-for-word.	3.39	1.01	5	moderate
3. I often practise the sounds of English.	3.37	0.97	6	moderate

Cognitive Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank order	Frequency of Strategy Use
1. I listen to new English words several times.	3.35	1.03	7	moderate
10. I think about words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.29	1.06	8	moderate
11. I listen and try to find patterns in English	3.29	0.92	9	moderate
12. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3.25	0.99	10	moderate
9. I first listen to the new passages quickly then go back and listen carefully.	3.22	0.99	11	moderate
8. I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English.	2.94	1.11	12	moderate
5. I start conversation in English.	2.78	1.08	13	moderate
14. I make summaries of information that I hear in English.	2.73	1.07	14	moderate

Table 5 Frequency of Affective Strategies Used by First-Year University Students

Affective Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank order	Frequency of Strategy Use
2. I encourage myself when I take English listening tests.	3.80	1.00	1	high
1. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	3.66	0.93	2	high
4. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	3.34	1.21	3	moderate
6. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	3.08	1.21	4	moderate
3. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English listening test.	2.78	1.23	5	moderate
5. I write down my feelings about learning English listening in a diary.	2.69	1.23	6	moderate

Table 6 Frequency of Social Strategies Used by First-Year University Students

Social Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Rank order	Frequency of Strategy Use
4. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers to improve listening skill.	3.25	1.10	1	moderate
2. I ask for help from teachers or foreign friends to improve listening skill.	2.97	1.13	2	moderate
3. I ask for clarification in listening with teachers.	2.91	1.16	3	moderate
1. I practise English listening with other students.	2.83	1.14	4	moderate

From Jane Austen to Sophie Kinsella Chick Lit Communication Today

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Introduction

Women's fiction is not new. Jane Austen could be pinpointed as one of the first harbingers of women or 'chick' lit which has grown enormously in recent years to epoch making novels like "Bridget Jones Diary" which was filmed and the famed television serial "Sex and the City". Though initially dismissed as 'trashy' by male readers and post-feminist literature by others; chick lit has become a major mode of communication especially amongst women readers in recent years. Some have even labeled it a major cultural phenomenon.

Brenda Bethman (2011) says "Chick Lit refers to 'modern literature for women – that is written about late twenty and thirty something singles (aka singletons) as they search for the perfect partner" This type of chick lit is often written as a first person narrative and a "confessional" tone, and is seen "to appeal primarily to the women readers who can recognize themselves within its pages" (Wheleham, 2004).

The term chick-lit, however, predates Bridget Jones's Diary and was originally used as a title for an anthology of experimental women's fiction published in 1995. One of the co-editors, Cris Mazza, defines her use of the term chick-lit as "fiction that transgressed the mainstream or challenged the status quo" (Mazza, 2000).

Banking on female audience identification with single women, normally urban women who struggle with same life challenges this literature examines the role of females in a predominantly male setting and their interaction with male characters. This has been often termed as a 'post feminist' occurrence. With the Moniker "Chick" the parent genre has spawned a number of sub genres like "Mom Lit", "Sistah Lit', "Wedding and Bridesmaid Lit", "Black Lit", "Bigger Girl lit" and many more. They most frequently feature young, urban, professional female protagonists who, while not taking themselves too seriously, work through romantic, career, and body image trials and tribulations. As Red Dress Ink, the Harlequin imprint founded to respond to the enormous popularity of these books vis-à-vis traditional romances, declares, "Red Ink women's fiction with attitude! From young and crazy to contemplative and witty, these stories are all about navigating life's little curves" (Harlequin, 2005).

Literature Review

One of the leading writers of chic lit is Sophie Kinsella, a British author who has introduced Becky Bloom wood typified as an "Irresistible one-woman shopping phenomenon" (Shopaholic & Sister cover leaf) to readers in the United States with "Confessions of a Shopaholic", a 2001 novel that had been released in Britain the previous year as "The Secret Dream world of a Shopaholic." This was followed by "Shopaholic Takes Manhattan" in 2002 (Published as "Shopaholic Abroad" in Britain in 2001), "Shopaholic Ties the Knot" in 2003, and "Shopaholic & Sister" in 2004. Becky is a shopaholic, addicted extensively to shopping in every shop from London to New York. Becky's addiction to shopping and her hilariously inventive if ultimately unsuccessful attempts to curb her spending practices, provide the narrative framework for each book in the series.

Kinsella's books have earned millions even created separate imprints dedicated to the genre. "Not surprisingly, some highbrow critics have dismissed chick lit as trashy fiction, but fans have argued that it is as empowering as it is entertaining." (Mlynowski, 2006)

The Shopaholic books, like chick lit in general, have a curious relationship to the romance genre as a whole. When Harlequin founded Red Dress Ink specifically as a chick lit imprint, it did so recognizing, as had other publishers, that this new phenomenon posed the first serious challenge to traditional romance fiction in decades. The traditional romance formula, in which romance provides women not only with fulfillment but also with a secure sense of identity, quickly felt the pinch of the more liberated explorations of romance, sexuality, work and life in general posed by chick lit protagonists. Carolyn Heilbrun (1988) is among the many scholars who have written provocatively on women's relationships to the romance genre. In her reading, the traditional romance fiction narrative is one in which the female remains central only for a short time before she gives up that space to her love interest. Even that brief centrality, Heilbrun argues, has as its purpose 'to encourage the acceptance of a lifetime of marginality" that will follow the end of courtship and mark the long future of married life, which is comprised simply of "aging and regret" (p. 21). Chick lit disrupts this pattern to a degree, as women in these tales move from lover to lover and laugh at as well as obsess over their own human weaknesses and foibles. Nevertheless, as Martha O'Connor writes, the most tedious, and arguably plentiful, chick lit plotlines feature "a twenty-or thirty-something heroine who lives in a large metropolitan area (preferably New York); despises her horrid boss and is desperately in love with Mr. Wrong. But fortunately Chicks' best friend, who was there all along, transforms into Mr. Right." It is an updated rather than an overturned romance scenario.

The roots of Chick Lit have been (shortsightedly) traced to Helen Fielding's Bridget Jones Diary, itself an adaptation of Austen's Pride and Prejudice. Austen's 1813 text "is now perhaps the best known of all Jane's works-not only in the United Kingdom but all over the world," notes Deirdre Le Faye (2002), "as it has been translated into thirty-five languages-and its title and opening sentence have become catchphrases in everyday life" (p. 179). As Austen's novel emphasizes female self-discovery, introspection, and personal growth, Fielding's fiction updates those emphases. According to Suzanne Feriss (2006), "Fielding's Bridget Jones novels emulate Austen's in presenting the interior states of their female characters. Both writers present intelligent but misguided women who learn the error of their perceptions of men and discover true love in the process (p. 75)."

While Woolstone (2007) says that "Moreover, the continued popular appeal of Austen's Pride and Prejudice revolves, at least in part, around the way in which the text portrays the socio-economic pressures, the personal desires, and the romantic proclivities of its central female characters. In a very real way, what is old is still new, as modern women continue to face varied forms of opposition and oppression from the dominant, and perhaps continually pervasive, patriarchy-a condition Chick Lit explores."

The Man-woman relationship in Chic Literature

Although it may be difficult to pinpoint the hallmarks of a new, fluid genre such as Chick Lit, the basic visual packaging (of novel or film) provides an interesting starting point. Chick Lit texts, as a whole, are often marketed based on their outward appearances. The cover illustrations of these books promise readers varying interpretations of a paradigmatic romantic relationship.

Often times, the central female character in a Chick Lit novel must choose between her career path and assorted romantic candidates. There is usually an additional dichotomy between a rakish character and an honorable male, with the central heroine forced to navigate her own feelings, desires, and personal concerns. In short, through book-jacket design, the genre of Chick Lit itself markets a wide assortment of similarly constructed stories in a visually compelling manner.

Diane Negra (2004) says: "The pathologization of single women amidst intense neoconservative pressures to define women's lives in terms of marriage and domesticity. "Sex and the City" originates with the recognition that single women retain if not quite on the same terms the status of "social problem" they have long held."

Often relationships between men and women in chick lit are not resolved: A case in point is "Sex and the City" where the narrative is willing to linger on the contingent and the unresolvable, frequently closing an episode in a bittersweet mode that would be off limits to the mainstream chick flick whose ideological conservatism demands positive resolution. While the chick movie's reflection of social pressure for marriage and childbearing and emphasis on the difficulties of female professionalism often produce heroines who unlearn the insights of feminism. "Sex and the City's" quality interpretation of similar dilemmas enables it to explore ambivalence, regret and hope more acutely. While it's female protagonists certainly face difficult choices and wrestle with embarrassment, humiliation and occasionally despair, the series tends not to curtail their options or finalize their choices.

In "I've Got Your Number" by Sophie Kinsella the story is engaging and modern. It not only explores the woman's quest for the right male it tells us how modern living and even human relationships are dependent on technology. Poppy Wyatt, a physiotherapist who works at a downtown clinic is extremely thrilled about her impending wedding to a boyfriend Magnus Tavish who is an academic with Greek god looks. However, one afternoon while she is treating her friends in a hotel, she loses her engagement ring which had a giant emerald which belonged to Magnus' grandmother. In a fit of panic, Poppy alerts the cleaners and other hotel staff, and makes frantic calls from her mobile phone. However soon afterwards she loses her 'phone too. Poppy is ridden with guilt. Suddenly Poppy chances upon an abandoned cell phone in the hotel dustbin which she picks up and keeps as her own. From thence begins the tale of Poppy Wyatt's journey to her wedding day, the back and forth preparations for it, and a weird, telephonic relationship with the owner of the phone, businessman Sam Roxton.

Though thematically it appears strange that two individuals, who are strangers, share their inboxes, the novel is hopelessly romantic and hilarious. A marathon exchange of SMS messages begin between Poppy and Sam. This even results in Poppy sending SMS messages on behalf of Sam which get him into trouble. However, courtesy Poppy's generous replies that Sam suddenly becomes popular among his mates, given his reputation for ignoring emails that sat in the inbox for months. Poppy forgets all about her wedding and gets down to helping Sam in his business, while her spineless boyfriend enters and leaves the scene like a background cast. And everything we ever get to know of Magnus is, he is a celebrated academic and loves sex, but what he thinks about the whole marriage thing is only known through her soliloquies and vague text exchanges with Sam.

"I've Got Your Number" is an interesting take on modern day relationships. It is a comment on how technology can bring people closer and how SMS text messages can even result in as abiding a relationship as marriage. At times the SMS chats run into several long pages underlining the fact that today's communication between people strongly rests on technology and it is with the help of technology that people can really get close to one another. Poppy's long SMS text with Sam and his replies make them realize that they appreciate each other's nature and can form a solid relationship in the future. In fact, Magnus is revealed as a cheat and weak personality while Sam emerges as a strong and courageous person. Though Poppy is predictable she is extremely lovable. Her befuddled and clumsy nature and her comical moves all make her adorable and enchanting.

Post Feminism and Chick Literature

Fien Adriaens (2009) says "Post feminism has no fixed meaning: it is a contradictory, pluralistic discourse that is mainly located in the academic context of television and cultural studies, in the media context of popular culture and within consumer culture." Further, " Since "post feminism is not against feminism, it's about feminism today (Brooks, 1997), it needs to be seen as a situation in the contemporary context of contemporary neo-liberal, late-capitalist society characterized by consumer culture, individualism, postmodernism and a decreased interest in institutional politics and activism." In this context, the gender struggle remains an actual issue in public and private lives (e.g. the demand for equal pay or glass ceiling). Post feminism is a new form of empowerment and independence, individual choice, (sexual) pleasure, consumer culture, fashion, hybridism, humor, and the renewed focus on the female body can be considered fundamental for this contemporary feminism. It is a new, critical way of understanding the changed relations between feminism, popular culture and femininity. Media discourses play a crucial role in the representation, evolution and development of this new feminism. Thus, in recent years 'post-feminist texts are often studied and referred to as in the present context.

Gill (2007:163-164) positions the powerful resonance or 'synergy' between post feminism and neo-liberalism at three levels. First, both appear to be structured by the current increase of individualism that has invaded major parts of the social or the political, and that has pushed any idea of the individual as subject to pressures, constraints or influence outside themselves, to the margins. Second, the entrepreneurial, independent, calculating, self-governing subjects of neo-liberalism bear a strong resemblance to the dynamic, freely choosing, self-reinventing subjects of post feminism. Third, the synergy is even more significant in popular cultural discourses where women are called upon to exercise self-management and self-discipline, to a much greater extent than men (Gill, 2007:163-4). This call for self-management is articulated in post-feminist popular cultural texts such as reality make-over television shows e.g. "What Not to Wear", "Ten Years Younger", and television series like "Sex and the City" or "Desperate Housewives" and also in chick literature like "The Devil wears Prada", "Bridget Jones Diary" and "I've Got Your Number" or the Shopaholic series.

Lisa Yazek (2005) says:"When journalists for *The New York Times* or *People* magazine write about post feminism, they typically use the term in a very literal way: To describe the contemporary moment as one in which the goals of feminism have been achieved." In such accounts, this paves the way for a new era where women can follow in the footsteps of their feminist mothers and challenge their male counterparts in the public sphere – or, these same accounts suggest, contemporary women can be "truly" cutting edge and re-embrace older, seemingly simpler and more natural roles as homemakers (Probyn, p. 152). Although this kind of new traditionalist rhetoric emerged in 1980's in tandem with a more general backlash against feminism, feminist scholars such as Tania Modleski have been quick to point out that the two are not equivalent. If anything, New Traditionalist post feminism is far more insidious than the backlash against feminism precisely because it "has been carried out not against feminism, but in its very name."

These discussions mark the beginning of a new cycle of feminist activity. Such activity tends to fall into one of three broad categories: Scholarly examinations of gender politics as they are represented by mass media (What could be called empirical studies of post feminism); critical elaborations of feminism in relation to other prominent literary and cultural theories (What we might call theoretical post feminism); and finally, the search on the part of women creative writers for new narratives that make sense of women's lives beyond those already identified by feminist scholars (what I will call literary post feminism).

In the late 1990's feminist media scholars began to explore a somewhat more progressive trend in popular representations of post feminism, noting that new shows offered viewers more thoughtful assessments of feminism's legacy. As Rachel Moseley and Jacinda Read argue, such shows "(do) not center on a conflict between career and personal life, but instead on the struggle to hold them together" (p. 232). Additionally, Amanda D. Lotz suggests, progressive postfeminist shows "explore the diverse relations to power women inhabit" by investigating the impact of race and class on gender and through sympathetic treatments of the search for a suitable sexual partner and the challenges of single motherhood (p. 115). Of course, as even the most ardent advocate of these newer postfeminist shows acknowledges, they are certainly not in the majority, nor are their political allegiances always consistent or clear. Nonetheless, they provide important insight into the diverse ways that feminist ideas are represented in the mass media.

So what is postfeminist literature? Some of the most provocative answers come from Cris Mazza, editor of the popular postfeminist Chick-Lit anthologies: Mazza notes that Chick Lit anthologies were specially designed to introduce readers to new women authors who were using experimental narrative forms to depict their hopes and fears "Without having to live up to standards imposed by either a persistent patriarchal world or the old feminist insistence that female characters achieve self-empowerment" (p. 104-5). Much like her counterparts in theater and poetry, then, Mazza's post feminism is grounded in a specific critique of second-wave feminism as limiting the narrative options available to women writers.
At the same time, Mazza goes beyond her counterparts by specifically describing not just what postfeminist writing reacts against – too many stories about superwomen and too many stories about women as victims – but what it actually looks like:

> "It's writing that says women are independent and confident but not lacking in their share of human weakness and not necessarily self-empowered; that they are dealing with who they've made themselves into rather than blaming the rest of the world; that women can use and abuse another human being as well as anyone; that women can be conflicted about what they want and therefore get nothing; that women can love until they hurt someone, turn their own hurt into love, refuse to love, or even ignore the notion of love completely as they confront the other 90 percent of life. Post-feminist writing says female characters don't have to be superhuman in order to be interesting. Just human (p. 105)."

As such, Mazza ultimately positions postfeminist literature as an enactment of the utopian longings inherent in the liberal humanist feminism that has permeated much of American history, including second-wave feminism itself: the profound desire to see women as fully developed people. Lisa Yazek criticizes Mazza's writing and desire for a new kind of literature that depicts women as more than one-dimensional victims or super heroes; she is surprised by the extent to which the victim-and-recovery theme informs her discussion of Chick-Lit. In essence, Mazza casts the struggle to create the Chick-Lit anthologies as one in which she and a few other brave souls must struggle out from under the oppressive dictates of an overly-idealistic feminism that has become so narrow and prescriptive in its thinking that it has, ultimately, been co-opted into patriarchy itself. Although Mazza insists that she and her cohorts are not anti-feminists. At best literary post feminism seems to be apolitical and a feminist. At worst, it places creative writers in an adversarial relation to the entire history of feminism.

This new cycle of women’s theory has also been labeled “third-world feminism” by some critics. Whether it is labeled post-feminist or third-wave feminism, the creative writers’ call for new modes of narrative that enable us to see women as fully developed people rather than abstract superheroes or victims is a powerful one.

Adriaens (2009) says: “Another facet is that post feminism focuses on “difference”, anti-essentialism and hybridism, where fixed binary categories are pierced and multiple identities are promoted.” This multiplex of identities operates through the generation of contradictions in someone’s concept of self-feeling (Featherstone, 1996). Post feminism pleads that every woman must recognize her own personal mix of identities. This claim contradicts the universal identity that was often promoted by feminists and that fits within a neo-liberal individualistic society with its emphasis on flexibility.

Thus, Sophie Kinsella’s heroine Poppy Wyatt in “I’ve Got Your Number” is a bundle of insecurities and radical thought all at the same time. Though she is a professional in her own right and has good looks and physique is constantly afraid of the family of her husband-to-be Magnus Tavish. She regards them as highly intellectual “those who are always writing in journals and publications”, while she does not have any such intellectual accomplishments to her name. In fact, Sam Roxton who late befriends her chides her on her lack of self-confidence and feelings of inferiority compared to her ‘future family’ and admonishes her that it is not a comfortable feeling that she should harbor since she would become a part of that family soon and would have to live with her uncertainties in her married life.

Poppy’s insecurities lead her to make many faux pax even to the extent that when she loses her engagement ring which has an expensive emerald in it she pretends to have burnt her hand and bandages it to hide her loss from the Tavish family. Her general disordered approach to life is highlighted when she answers several emails on Sam Roxton’s behalf and puts him in an embarrassing position. However, her acumen and self-poise come to the fore when she helps Sam to solve a major crisis in his company where his mentor and head of the company Sir Nicholas is accused of sending out a text on his email which proves that he is corrupt. At this juncture, Poppy’s singular memory and persistence help nail the culprit. She now becomes a vibrant, intellectual and assured individual, confident and well-balanced with the old insecurities having been put to rest.

This two pronged confusing juxtapositions of identities and the final emerging new adult personality make Chick lit topical, live and credible. Thus Chick lit has evolved as a viable means of communication amongst women who have had similar experiences and have to sought to ascertain themselves in this hard, ‘male dominated’ world. Poppy’s quest for an identity, her zealous endeavors at trying to help Sam by sending out SMS text messages on his behalf which she believes can make him more popular and ‘available’ to friends and cronies makes her stand out as an endearing character who chooses to enhance another individual’s relationships. There is no doubt that her self-induced actions land Sam in some compromising positions, but her heart is pure and her efforts well intentioned. In fact her assertive nature reveals a humane side of her which eventually fuel passions between Sam and her.

Conclusion

Chick Lit, to say the least, is provocative. It prods the reader to think of women in a new light. Not all young women on the threshold of life know what they want and how to realize it. They are on a roller coaster ride, seeking an identity in love and in their careers. Though Bridget Jones, the epoch making heroine of Chick lit novels is marked by unadulterated hedonism and multiple lovers and jobs and characterized by immaturity, especially in her several relationship with men-she epitomizes women who are in this phase of life, who experience the same opportunities, selfishness and identity explorations. Therefore Chick Lit is made expressly for those women. It is a literature of their own, exploratory, raw and appealing.

Chick Lit is also challenging: It makes the reader think about the confrontations which women face in this world where she seeks to establish her own credentials on her own terms. She is undoubtedly successful in the professional arena, empowering herself with a fruitful career; but the world of men is both unknown and shattering at times. In "I've Got your Number" Poppy Wyatt thinks she loves Magnus Tavish and would love to spend the rest of her life with him. However, her interaction with Sam Roxton brings to the fore Magnus' uncertain and changeable nature, his preoccupation with his own career and looks and his often divergent flings with other women. He tries to show that his indulgence or fling was only an accident and "wasn't he human after all" but Poppy realizes how fickle, unreliable and unstable he could be.

Poppy even walks up the isle with him ready to marry him, however, luck favors her when she realizes that this is the wrong thing that she is doing: She is not marrying the right man. At this point Poppy emerges as the strong willed decision maker who can make up her own mind even though it means leaving the pulpit on the threshold of marriage, a cataclysmic decision which upturns her live and chagrins the large crowd which has gathered for her marriage. Such is her inner poise. She finds her true self when she rejects Magnus and makes Sam her life partner. This upside down, often comical cumulative end of the novel signifies provocative literature which advocates a heterosexual relationship but not at the cost of individual subjugation by a male.

Chick lit is therefore communication at its best. It is a means of communication which explains what seem to be women's idiosyncrasies, their eccentricities and foibles which seem unacceptable and unfathomable. They are a treatise on women who want to live life on their own terms without being the 'ideal' subjugated wife or girlfriend. They seek to realize their dreams without compromise and are willing to make mistakes and take on the world on their own terms. This kind of literature will survive not only because it entertains women but it will also survive because it gives thrust to the truth that women are intelligent human beings with a mind of their own, humane, funny and lovable.

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Linguistic and Discourse Variation in the Genre of Popular Science

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Abstract

ESP genre analysis is based on the principle that several texts can be categorised into a single genre, a category of discourse defined by its communicative purposes. However, this traditional approach to genre identification where genres are seen as bounded categories is problematic, since extensive linguistic variation can be found within a single intuitively identified genre. Given the centrality of linguistic variation to the study of language use and its status as possibly challenging traditional genre theory, this study investigates the amount of variation in linguistic and discourse features across texts in one genre. The investigation focuses on the genre of popular science. To ensure that the data collected is representative, criteria in data collection were set in order to design a corpus providing a cross-section of popular science discourse. To investigate variation in the popular science genre, 600 texts classified as popular science were analysed in terms of 18 linguistic or discourse features to produce a quantitative value for each feature for each text. These were used to calculate the amount of variation between texts. Features showing substantial variation include number of sentences per paragraph, frequency of passive sentences and topic generalisation moves, while for others, such as length of words, type - token ration and lexical density, there is a high level of consistency. Generally, there is more variation for features related to style, discourse and syntax than for features related to vocabulary, a finding casting doubt on the centrality of communicative purposes in identifying genres.

Keywords: genre, popular science, and linguistic variation

Problems with setting level of specificity in identifying genre

Within the area of ESP, genre has been used as a classification device to identify types of text which have a common purpose or goal within a certain field of activity. Genre, however, is a complex concept which depends heavily on readers' interpretations.

ESP genre analysis appears to involve two broad approaches: first, a genre-based approach involving the identification of a genre by investigating the operation of texts within a context in terms of communicative purposes, and second, identification of linguistic features which commonly occur within texts sharing communicative purposes (Bruce, 2008). Among ESP researchers and theorists, communicative purpose is the primary criterion for the identification of genres. This view of genre analysis is based on the principle that several texts can be categorised into a single genre by their shared communicative purpose.

ESP-related analyses of texts have focused on a range of genres from academic and professional domains, sometimes confining their analysis to one or more sections of texts belonging to these genres. Influential examples of such specific genres that have been analysed for ESP purposes are introductions to research articles (Swales, 1990, 2004); popularized medical texts (Nwogu, 1991); job application letters, sales promotion letters and legal case studies (Bhatia, 1993); and research grant proposals (Connor and Mauranen, 1999). Several times, the analysis has been limited to a particular field or subject area. Abstracts in different subjects (Salager-Myer, 1992; Brett, 1994) or lectures in different disciplines can be viewed as falling into different genres.

Analysis of the language features of genres is also central to ESP genre research, since it is the writer's communicative purposes that govern lexical and grammatical choice of language within the conventions of the genre (Dudley-Evans, 1994). Viewing genre as a determinant of linguistic choice, the focus can be on the examination of the linguistic features proposed as characteristics of the language of certain fields of activity. Under this assumption, there is an expected match between communicative purposes and linguistic features. Examples of such analyses are the study of tense usage in scientific articles (Malcolm, 1987) and the classification of reporting verbs used in academic text (Thompson and Ye Yiyun, 1991).

This perspective of genre is similar to a register perspective. In general terms, a register is a variety associated with a particular situation of use (including particular communicative purposes). A register perspective combines an analysis of linguistic characteristics that are common in a text variety with analysis of the situation of use of the variety. The underlying assumption of this perspective is that particular features are commonly used in association with the communicative purposes and situational contexts of texts. Registers can be identified at different levels of specificity, but usually registers are viewed as being at a more general level than genres. For instance, written academic discourse can be viewed as a register, whereas much more specific sub-categories, such as research article abstracts or research funding proposals, are typically viewed as being genres.

While registers are typically viewed as being at a more general level than genres, there is a lot of variation in researchers' interpretations of the level of specificity of both genres and registers and of the types of analyses to be applied. For example, both academic research articles (Kanoksilapatham, 2007) and various constituents of articles, such as abstracts and introductions, have been identified as genres (Bhatia, 2003; Kanoksilapatham, 2003; Martin, 2003; Samraj, 2005) . Similarly, genre analyses have focused on both discourse levels of analysis, such as genre moves, and specific linguistic features, such as adjectives, lexical frequency, types of modal verbs and collocation (Gledhill, 2000; Mudraya, 2006; Salager-Meger, 1992; Soler, 2002). This paper attempts to explore these issues of level of specificity by comparing analyses of an intuitively identified genre and its sub-genres for both discourse-level and more specific linguistic features.

The present study

Based on the centrality of the study of linguistic variation in linguistics, this study aims to analyse the amount of variation in linguistic and discourse features across texts in one genre at different levels of specificity. Three different levels in identifying the genre are used: one general genre of popular science; six sub-genres defined by communicative purposes and manifested through six different sources of texts; and five differently categorised sub-genres representing five subject areas, namely, biology, earth, medicine, space, and technology.

This study focuses on the genre of popular science, since it clearly illustrates the issues of level of specificity in identifying genres. Within popular science genre, there are many sub-genres. According to Myers (2003), popular science can refer to articles, books and journals for general readers discussing science and technology; articles in Scientific American, or best-sellers on cosmology. Hyland (2009) argues that popular science is the reporting of scientific facts representing phenomena in different ways to achieve different purposes and is concerned with establishing the novelty of the topics to attract a lay audience. Thus, popular science can also refer to a science encyclopedia, in-depth current science information, biographies of important people in the history of science, tips for taking advantage of the new technologies available today, and science news.

To achieve the aim of making statements about a particular language variety, criteria for data collection must be set. The corpus in this study is a principled collection of texts which has been put together for studying linguistic variation in one genre and its sub-genres. This not only means that the selection of sources illustrative of popular science should be mixed in terms of audience, intentions, and register (Myers, 2003), but also suggests that the selected sources must come from different folk-categorized sub-genres (usually referred as sources in this study) in order to ensure representation of a wide range of sub-genres.

The actual texts selected for the present study must generally be varied but comparable, and be competence examples of the genre. First, the concept of popular science was defined following Hyland (2009) to limit the population of possible texts for analysis. After that, sampling criteria for the study were defined. Only written texts were focused on for practical purposes and to further limit the population. Texts must be not only written by English native-speaking authors but should also entirely be accessible through the internet. It is also worth noting that popular science involves a range of genres that can be characterized as a spectrum reaching from 'upstream' texts close to the site of production of the science, to 'downstream' texts addressed to wider audiences (Hilgartner, 1990), especially the non-scientist or non-specialist. This suggests that the decision on the selection of sources should be firstly based on the assumption that some sources tend to be more popularised than others. Therefore, to ensure that data selected meets objectives of the study, texts must come from different folk-categorized genres; they should be taken from upstream texts (close to the site of production of the science) to downstream ones (intentionally addressed to wider audiences). To strengthen the comparability, texts must be of a similar length, within the same period of publication, and cover similar subject areas.

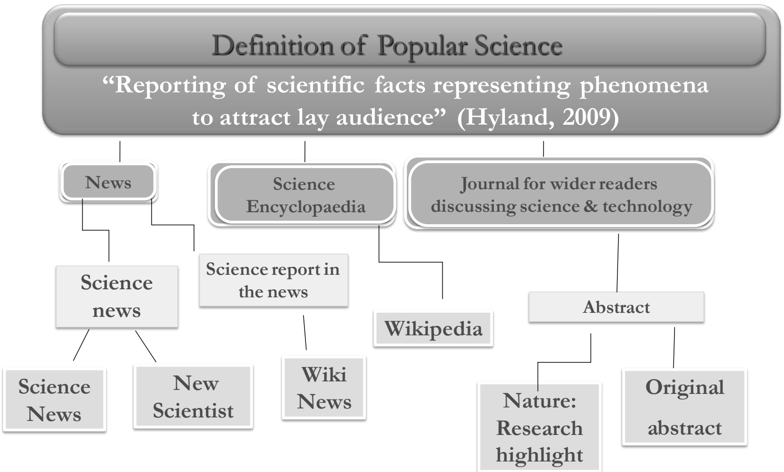

Figure 1 Selection of the sources

100 texts from each of the six sources (shown in Figure 1: science news, *New Scientist* news articles, Wikinews science articles, Wikipedia entries, research highlights in *Nature*, and original abstracts) were selected with an equal coverage of the five subject areas (biology, earth, medicine, space, and technology) giving a total of 600 articles to analyse.

Linguistic features investigated

Myers' (2003) findings comparing original scientific texts with popular science versions show that scientific texts can differ from the popular science versions in terms of textual form, sentence subjects, grammatical voice, verb choices, modality, hedging, rhetorical structure and metaphors.

Based on this and with a further review of the literature (Biber, Connor and Upton, 2007; Biber,Conrad, and Reppen, 1998), a range of 18 linguistic or discourse features to investigate were identified. These features are those most likely to show language variation across the genre, those most useful for further analysis, and those which it is practical to analyse. The features are as follows.

Feature 1 = Average number of characters per word
Feature 2 = Average number of words per sentence
Feature 3 = Average number of sentences per paragraph
Feature 4 = Passive sentences as a proportion of all sentences
Feature 5 = Flesch reading ease
Feature 6 = Type/ token ratio
Feature 7 = Yule's k
Feature 8 = Lexical density
Feature 9 = Technical words as a proportion of all words
Feature 10 = Phrasal verbs as a proportion of all verbs
Feature 11 = All verbs as a proportion of total words
Feature 12 = All nouns as a proportion of total words
Feature 13 = All general nouns as a proportion of total words
Feature 14 = All adjectives as a proportion of total words
Feature 15 = Open compound nouns as proportion of total words
Feature 16 = Number of rhetorical move shifts in the text
Feature 17 = Number of tokens of evaluation moves as a proportion of total moves
Feature 18 = No of tokens of topic genrealisation moves as a proportion of tokens of total moves

Features 3, 4, 16, 17 and 18 are more associated with the discourse level, while the others are more specific. Some ex[planations of the features follow.

Average number of characters per word was chosen under the assumption that longer words convey more specific and specialized meanings than shorter ones (Biber, 1988). Words become shorter as they are more frequently used and more general in meaning. The figures for the average number of characters per word, average number of words per sentence, average number of sentences per paragraph, passive sentences and Flesch reading ease were computed automatically using *Microsoft Word*.

From statistical linguistics, Flesch Reading Ease measures the readability of a text by combining average sentence length and average word length. The Flesch Reading Ease readability score formula rates text on a 100-point scale based on the average number of syllables per word and words per sentence. The higher values the score indicates texts which are easier to read. For most standard documents, a Flesch Reading ease score of approximately 60 to 70 are usually aimed. Yule's Characteristic (K) is a word frequency measurement for large blocks of text. It measures the likelihood of two nouns, chosen at random from the text, being the same. Thus, it is a measure of the complexity of the text, as well as its repetitiveness. Yule's Characteristic measurements are given in the form of a positive integer which represents the ratio of misses to hits in the text. That is, a K value of 300 means that for any pair of nouns chosen at random from the given text, there is a 1 in 300 chance that they will be the same. This measure of lexical repetition constitutes one of the variables used to determine the lexical richness of literary texts, and is also employed in authorship attribution studies. Although most of the constants for lexical richness depend on text length, Yule's characteristic is considered to be text length independent. Type/token ratio (a measure of the amount of lexical repetition within a text) is the number of different words in the text as a percentage of all words. The more different words used, the higher the type/token ratio. This means a text with a low type/token ratio contains a great deal of lexical repetition, whereas one with a high type/token ratio has a much wider range of vocabulary. Generally, spoken corpora have lower type/token ratios than written corpora. This feature is computed by counting the number of different items in each text. It can show some variation in level of formality. It is worth noting that the definition of *token* can be slightly different to the definition of *word* depending on the way that the corpus has been formatted and/or the analysis software used. This study used *Simple Concordance Program* (*SCP*) to get the number of types (number of each different word, not their repetition), the number of tokens (total number of words in a text), and the type/token ratio. Yule's K features was also analysed using *SCP* which is a free concordancer and word listing program displaying statistics of letter and word frequency usage.

Lexical density indicates how densely the writer used vocabulary. One difference between written and spoken language is the density with which the information is presented. Lexical density constitutes the estimated measure of content per functional (grammatical) and lexical units in total spoken texts tend to have a lower lexical density than written ones. Writing language displays a much higher ratio of lexical items to total running words, meaning that written language is more dense and more complex than spoken language (Halliday, 1989). Calculating lexical density involves comparing the proportion of content words to function words. Function words are auxiliary verbs, conjunctions, determiners, prepositions, pronouns, articles, and quantifiers (e.g. many, most). Content words are nouns, verbs (including phrasal verbs functioning as single lexical items), adjectives, and adverbs. The function words (or grammatical words) are words that have little lexical meaning or have ambiguous meanings, but which serve to express grammatical relationships with other words within a sentence, or to specify the attitude or mood of the speaker. They signal the structural relationships that words have to one another and are the glue that holds sentences together. Thus, they serve as important elements to the structures of sentences. Function words are a closed class of words in grammar in that it is very uncommon to have new function words created in the course of speech, whereas in the open class of words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs) new words may be added readily (such as slang words, technical terms, and adoptions and adaptations of foreign words). The content words are most important for explaining information. If a text has a high number of content words, it was probably written as a specialized academic text which will only be understood by well-educated people in that specific field. If there is a low number of content words, the text is more likely to be for a wider audience. To calculate lexical density, the corpus of texts was first tagged using the automatic computerized program, *UCREL CLAWS*, to identify the part of speech of each word. Then, from the tagged data, the frequencies of content words and function words were counted.

Technical words were identified using the *RANGE* program which distinguishes the more common vocabulary items from the less common ones by comparing the words in a text to three base lists available in the program. Normally, technical words are terms that have specific meanings within a given subject area. To identify technical words, words in the texts were compared with the three base lists provided in the *RANGE* program. The first (BASEWRD1.txt) includes the most frequent 1000 words of English. The second (BASEWRD2.txt) includes the

2nd 1000 most frequent words, and the third (BASEWRD3.txt) includes words not in the first 2000 words of English but which are frequent in upper secondary school and university texts from a wide range of subjects. All of these base lists include the base forms of words and derived forms. The first 1000 words thus consist of around 4000 forms or types. The sources of these lists are *A General Service List of English Words* (West, 1953) for the first 2000 words, and The Academic Word List by Coxhead (1998, 2000) containing 570 word families. The first thousand words of *A General Service List of English Words* are usually those with a frequency higher than 332 occurrences per 5 million words, plus months, days of the week, numbers, titles (Mr, Mrs, Miss, Ms, Mister), and frequent greetings (Hello, Hi etc). The lists include both American and British spellings.

Tokens of verbs, nouns, and adjective were computed as proportion to total words. They were tagged using the *UCREL CLAWS* part-of-speech tagger for English which has 96-97% accuracy. From the tagged data, open compound nouns and phrasal verbs were also defined by the use of concordance program to help indicate the pattern of the collocation between noun + noun and verb + preposition. However, instances indicated by the concordance program had to be further investigated by hand in order to check the meaning from various dictionaries. Any potential phrasal verbs whose meanings are not in the dictionaries were not counted as phrasal verbs in this study. General nouns investigated are common nouns for a broad category of nouns. Rhetorical moves were analysed using *AntMover 1.0* to identify moves and move shifts. *AntMover* is a freeware text structural analyzer program for Windows.

For these features, we should expect higher values in upstream texts for Features 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12 and 15, and lower values in upstream texts for Features 5 and 10. For the other features, it is unclear whether higher values will be associated with upstream or downstream texts.

Linguistic and discourse variation

Values for all 18 features in all 600 texts were calculated. The means and standard deviations of these were calculated for all 600 texts, for each of the 6 sub-genres based on source, and for each of the 5 sub-genres based on subject area. The amount of variation within one corpus or sub-corpus was calculated by dividing the standard deviation by the mean, with higher values showing more variation. The results of variation in all features are shown in Table 1 below.

	Linguistic and discourse features																	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
All 600 texts	0.08	0.18	0.67	0.92	0.43	0.09	0.28	0.08	0.39	0.49	0.24	0.11	0.14	0.39	0.47	0.53	0.47	0.73
Source 1	0.05	0.14	0.23	0.94	0.23	0.07	0.24	0.06	0.32	0.36	0.19	0.12	0.12	0.27	0.50	0.53	0.41	0.74
Source 2	0.05	0.18	0.35	1.21	0.25	0.07	0.24	0.07	0.26	0.33	0.19	0.09	0.11	0.30	0.37	0.52	0.49	0.77
Source 3	0.05	0.17	0.46	0.76	0.27	0.08	0.24	0.07	0.36	0.42	0.21	0.13	0.14	0.49	0.43	0.50	0.33	0.75
Source 4	0.07	0.18	0.22	0.64	0.35	0.07	0.28	0.07	0.29	0.41	0.22	0.12	0.17	0.25	0.50	0.56	0.38	0.54
Source 5	0.08	0.20	0.20	0.98	0.79	0.08	0.27	0.07	0.31	0.40	0.25	0.12	0.13	0.24	0.36	0.46	0.57	0.86
Source 6	0.07	0.16	0.25	1.02	0.32	0.07	0.28	0.08	0.30	0.48	0.22	0.10	0.11	0.34	0.51	0.52	0.61	0.64

Subject 1	0.08	0.16	0.66	0.81	0.43	0.10	0.28	0.08	0.35	0.45	0.24	0.11	0.13	0.33	0.47	0.52	0.47	0.79
Subject 2	0.07	0.17	0.68	1.16	0.40	0.09	0.27	0.08	0.38	0.46	0.23	0.11	0.14	0.38	0.43	0.58	0.51	0.71
Subject 3	0.08	0.19	0.68	0.92	0.45	0.08	0.26	0.08	0.46	0.53	0.24	0.10	0.12	0.45	0.44	0.51	0.38	0.68
Subject 4	0.07	0.20	0.71	0.86	0.33	0.09	0.28	0.08	0.33	0.42	0.25	0.13	0.14	0.38	0.53	0.56	0.51	0.73
Subject 5	0.10	0.17	0.64	0.85	0.52	0.10	0.30	0.09	0.40	0.52	0.22	0.12	0.14	0.40	0.45	0.49	0.47	0.72

Table 1 Values for SD/mean for discourse and linguistic features

From Table 1, the features which show the greatest amount of variation between texts are passive sentences, frequency of topic generalisation moves, sentences per paragraph, number of move shifts, frequency of phrasal verbs, frequency of evaluation moves, and Flesch reading ease. Features showing little variation between texts are word length, lexical density, type/token ratio, and frequency of nouns and general nouns. It is also noticeable that, for sentences per paragraph, there is much more variation within subjects than within sources.

Discussion

From the findings, it is noticeable that those features which show the greatest variation are generally those associated more with the discourse level of analysis, while the features showing little variation are generally lexical. This suggests that, on the whole, there is far more discourse variation within the popular science genre than there is variation in lexical features. If we wish to characterise sub-genres of popular science, conducting an analysis based on lexical features is unlikely to be very productive since the various sub-genres are likely to exhibit the same characteristics. Rather, an analysis at the discourse level is more likely to be productive.

This implication is confirmed by the findings for Feature 3 (number of sentences per paragraph). For this feature, there is far more variation between the sub-genres based on subject area than for the sub-genres based on source. In other words, within each of the sub-genres based on source, the texts are very similar. However, there is more variation between the sub-genres based on source. Thus, the number of sentences per paragraph, a discourse-level feature, can be considered a key identifying characteristic of the various sub-genres based on source.

As a general rule, register studies are more likely to be concerned with lexical features than genre studies, which tend to focus more on discourse features. As we saw above, register analysis also tends to classify texts at a more general level than genre analysis, and discourse features are more likely to distinguish sub-genres than lexical features. The general pattern therefore appears to be that the more specific the categorisation of texts, the more general the analysis should be, and vice versa. In other words, an approach that uses a general classification of texts, such as most register analyses, should focus on more specific levels of analysis, such as the analysis of lexical features. An approach that uses a specific classification of texts, such as many genre analyses should focus on more general levels of analysis, such as analyses of discourse.

This pattern has further implications for genre analysis. As discussed above, genres are usually identified based on communicative purposes, and communicative purposes are more likely to be manifested through discourse features (especially rhetorical moves) than through lexical features. Given that the more specific the identified genre the greater the role played by discourse features in characterising the genre, we should expect analyses focusing on communicative purposes to be most productive at more specific levels of genre. For instance, a genre analysis of article introductions is likely to be more productive than an analysis of research articles in general. Based on this, relating features of texts to communicative purposes is most likely to be productive when examining the discourse features of very specifically defined genres.

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Nowhere or In-between? The Parsi Predicament in Rohinton Mistry's *A Fine Balance*

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Abstract

Having set their empire on the Indian sub-continent, the British found a friend in the Parsis of India. Being a minority community with progressive and often radically western views of the world, the Parsis of India more than willingly tilted towards the British. But with the rise of the Indian struggle for freedom and its subsequent gain of sovereignty, the Parsis found themselves in an utter predicament of divided loyalties between the past masters and the contemporary sense of nation. In such a changing scenario, the postcolonial identity of the Parsi individual who was often educated in English medium schools and universities abroad, and the identity of the Parsi community as a whole, became a fluid one and thus needed a reconstruction and realignment. However, this process also changed the fabric of the Parsi identity in the postcolonial Indian context resulting in a transition from the mainstream to the margin.

This paper seeks to address the issues raised above, especially that of the reconstruction of the Parsi identity and their entry into the world of the subaltern with reference to the Indo-Canadian Novelist Rohinton Mistry's much-acclaimed book *A Fine Balance*. This paper looks at this process of identity reconstruction and its implications for the postmodern, postcolonial Indian Parsi. This paper shall employ the theories of post colonialism and postmodernism for the analysis of the aforementioned text.

Written in the realist mode, *A Fine Balance* weaves into it gigantic narrative events, incidents and people from the most tumultuous period witnessed by post-independence India, the emergency of 1975. The novel starts with a prologue evoking the crucial year of 1975 when the then Prime Minister of India, Indira Gandhi had declared internal emergency in the country for reasons best known to her. The Prologue introduces the four central characters of the text who are drawn to the circumstances beyond their own making by financial and social hardships. Woven together in the cobweb of the world where the power centers brutalise them to the extent of the grotesque and without much leeway out of the circumstances, these fours characters, Ishvar, Om, Dina Dalal and Maneck Kohlah are put together in the course of the novel in their struggle for survival with dignity. As a truly representative text addressing the issues concerning the subaltern, *A Fine Balance* takes as its subjects the downtrodden and the oppressed as its characters.

While dealing with the various shades of marginality present in the land, Mistry takes up the middle class Parsis of India in the 1970's and underlines a different kind of powerlessness and marginality the community had to go through during the period. Mistry takes up two Parsi characters for this purpose, one female and the other male.

Dina Dalal is a middle-aged Parsi widow whom Mistry takes up to point to the marginality suffered by middle-class women in their homes and outside in post-independence India. The novel dwells upon Dina's life from her childhood to her fifties. Dina's journey of life, like that of Ishvar and Om, is often dictated by circumstances beyond her control. Dina Shroff had a normal and happy childhood till her father's untimely death. As Nusswan, her exploitative and capitalist brother starts taking charge of the house, Dina has to struggle on a daily basis for the dignity that is due to her. After their mother's death and Nusswan's marriage, Dina's life becomes increasingly difficult in the Shroff household. Even before that, Dina is denied education and is emotionally and physically violated by her elder brother. As Nusswan dictates terms to Dina on all aspects of her life ranging from her education, her dressing-sense and her relationships, she is suffocated even at her home. This is true of a lot of Indian women even in the contemporary scenario when their ways of life and living are dictated by the powerful male presence in their families.

Mistry, as a postcolonial writer conscious of the exploitative gender equation prevalent in the twentieth century India, thus, highlights the marginalization of the female self even inside her family. In her attempt to escape from the tormenting existence in her own home, Dina finds solace in the arms of Rustom K. Dalal whom she eventually marries. However, her happiness is short-lived as she loses her husband in an accident on their third marriage anniversary. After that, it becomes a tough struggle for Dina to keep her rented house intact from the heartless landlord. Seeking a life of dignity and independence, the widowed Dina stretches herself as wide as possible. She learns tailoring from Rustom's kind hearted aunt and survives on it for a while. However, with her dwindling eyesight in her mid-forties, Dina takes up the assignment of working as an outsourced middle-man for the Au Revoir export company run by the capitalist Mrs.Gupta. She also takes in a young Parsi student as a paying guest in order to make her ends meet. This is where Ishvar and Om come to the picture as they land up in her home as the tailors she was so desperately in need of. Hereafter, their lives become more and more intertwined in their common search for some dignity of their own.

Dina's character makes an interesting read as it is multifaceted and multi-hued in the presentation made by Mistry. While Dina herself has been continuously exploited, brutalized, oppressed, and marginalized by her own brother, she also exhibits certain traits of such character as the Parsi community is by and large accused of. Though she is a victim of marginalization and undue subordination herself, Dina is both manipulative and exploitative in her initial dealings with the poor tailors. In fact, it could be assumed that Dina almost certainly takes some pride in showing her class-conscious, bourgeois side to the tailors without whose labour she would be unable to meet her own fragile struggle for sustenance and survival. It is almost as if Dina mirrors her brother Nusswan in her capitalist, manipulative dealings with the two tailors.

In her avatar as a power wielder, Dina also exhibits the postcolonial reality of the functions of mimicry. As soon as the exploited gets into a position of yielding some power on another sub-set of marginals, they soon fall back on their own experiences of victimization and in the process, victimize those who are in an even powerless situation. Thus, the previously marginal continues to construct a new set of marginals in a new context. As the epistemological process of othering continues, it leads to the furtherance of the vicious cycle of colonization and victimization. Dina's disregard for the two tailors' hopes and dreams, happiness and sorrows, her padlocking of the front door with the two tailors inside, while she goes to deliver the products sewn by the tailors, all these point towards the postcolonial reality of a continuing cycle of exploitation and manipulation. Dina's misreading of the contemporary political situation also puts her in trouble. When Ishvar asks her what the emergency is all about, Dina is naive to dismiss it lightly. She opines of the emergency thus "Government problems--games played by people in power. It doesn't affect ordinary people like us (Mistry, 1995, p. 75)."

In the course of the novel, the reader comes to know how deeply the emergency affected the lives of ordinary people. Dina is not a grey character in spite of her initial show of class-consciousness in her dealings with the tailors. As their fates become increasingly entangled, Dina moves from becoming an exploitative employer to that of a caring feminine figure of grace who concerns herself with the overall well-being of the two tailors. Taking a huge personal risk, Dina accommodates the uncle-nephew duo in her rented house. Along with Maneck, they bond together and make a family of sorts for a brief period of time till fate intervenes, and things turn up to become worse from bad. As Dina revels in the pleasures of her newly formed family and is prepared to bid adieu to her loneliness of more than two decades, Ishvar and Om's village trip ravages their dreams and bodies. Simultaneously Dina is slapped by the landlord with an eviction notice for violating the terms and conditions of rent for having sheltered the two tailors and Maneck. While Maneck had already left Dina's house, Ishvar's amputation and Om's castration leave them useless on the sewing machine. Unknown of what has happened to the tailors, an embittered and fragmented Dina makes the final compromise of her life by returning to her brother's residence and ends up as the domestic servant there. Her brother's sugar-coated talk to her being back in family and being cared for by the family is only an eye-wash that Dina is well-aware of. Dina's final act of humanity is emphasized in the last few pages of the novel when one finds her stealthily feeding Ishvar and Om, now beggars in the backyard of her brother's home, and this heart rendering scene erases any ill-feeling that the reader might have developed about Dina in the course of the text. Mistry's realist portrayal of a post-independence middle-class Indian woman is well-documented in the depiction of the character of Dina Dalal. In all her shades, Dina exudes the postcolonial realities of an increasingly unpredictable globalized world that forces people to do and behave as per the demand of the situation at large.

Unlike the middle-aged and widowed Dina, Maneck Kohlah's marginality originates in the mountains of the north to which he belongs. However, Dina's and Maneck's marginalities emerge from their family atmosphere. Maneck Kohlah is a Parsi young man of eighteen who comes to the city by the sea to study refrigeration and air-conditioning. His sense of marginality has, however, started long ago when as a child he was sent to the boarding school by his parents. Being very attached to his parents and the valley town, Maneck develops a sense of uprootedness as soon as he leaves home for his schooling. Bullied by the schoolmates and deprived of the pleasures of home, Maneck grows up to become a loner of sorts. When he is done with his schooling, he intends to run the family store in their native place and get back in touch with his family. But his father decides that the boy should have some sort of education to fall back on as the business in the store is gradually dwindling in the 1970's. For Maneck, however, this turn of events is too much to bear and he perceives it as his father's conspiracy to keep him away from the family and his roots. Having become a marginal in his own family, Maneck moves in to the city college hostel with little interest or enthusiasm. Hereupon, a chance meeting with the college Student Union president Avinash gives Maneck something to look forward to, and their friendship grows quickly. However, the hostel surroundings do not suit him much and he ends up as a paying guest in Dina Dalal's rented house.

Having been brought up in the mountain town, Maneck does not have the pretensions of class that Dina so explicitly exhibits in her initial dealings with the tailors. In fact, the text begins at a point when the two tailors and Maneck meet for the first time on their way to Dina's house. Whereas Dina intends to treat them on different parameters, Maneck insists on equal treatment. His love for fellow human beings as well as stray animals shows Maneck as a kind-hearted man with a zest for life. As a young man of eighteen, Maneck soon befriends the young Om and they share some of the lighter moments in the text. In fact, Dina's change of heart for the homeless Ishvar and Om could partially be attributed to Maneck's manifested displeasure over her earlier callous treatment of them. Except for a brief period of conflict, Maneck and Om become thick friends and enjoy their time together as they discover the pleasures of youth in the city by the sea. Always on the lookout for the pleasures of family, Maneck bonds well with Dina and the two tailors to form a family of his own. Having left the grotesque experiences of hostel life behind, Maneck thus starts enjoying his stint in the city. He is also the only character in *A Fine Balance* who remains apparently immune to the going-on during emergency, i.e. until the reader has come to the climax of the novel. As misfortune falls like an avalanche on the two tailors and subsequently Dina, Maneck has by that time finished his diploma and left for a job in the Gulf. It is only in 1984 when he returns to India that Maneck suffers from an inversion of the balance he has so painstakingly created for himself. He comes back at a time when the Prime Minister is shot dead by her Sikh bodyguards and as an apparent consequence of which the city is witnessing large scale massacre of Sikhs in religious riots across the country. Having lost his father a few days back, Maneck goes home for the cremation and related rituals. He fulfils his filial duty and promises his mother to come back to India and take charge of the family store.

But things turn otherwise when Maneck discovers that his friend Avinash was murdered during emergency by congress party workers, andAvinash's old parents had been helpless to do anything about it. On the top of it, their daughters too committed suicide, because the dowry money for their marriage could not be arranged. Throughout the novel, Maneck exhibits a tinge of pessimism in his tone when he repeatedly tells Dina and others that things always end up badly. Going back to Maneck's college days and his friendship with Avinash, one develops a sense of hope for things to turn up alright. But by killing off Avinash, a definitive voice of resistance in the text, Mistry negates the possibility of resistance in the postcolonial world. As has been rightly observed by Vinita Bhatnagar:

> Mistry describes the brief spell of optimism … But his emphasis is on the experience of Maneck who refuses to get involved … [This] mysterious disappearance of Avinash meets the narrative logic of Mistry's novel that everything ends badly. Avinash seems to have been introduced only to reaffirm this philosophy (1998, p. 107).

The newspaper clippings at home reaffirms this belief of his as Maneck finds that these are filled with "Train derailment, monsoon floods, bridge collapse" and contrastively "ministers being garlanded, ministers making speeches, ministers visiting areas of natural and man-made disasters" (Mistry, 1995, p. 593). The balance that he so much wanted to achieve between hope and despair now seems to tilt towards despair. Maneck's sense of despair is further aggravated when he witnesses the plight of his erstwhile family members Dina and the two tailors. While Dina, having lost her fierceness and independence, has grown old beyond her years, the mutiliated conditions of Ishvar and Om, now beggars seeking alms, leaves Maneck speechless and mute. Mistry thus brings up another aspect of the postcolonial reality of the marginal person who is often silenced by circumstances and experiences over which he has no control.

Maneck had left his home for Dubai half-heartedly, the reason being to satisfy his parents' wishes. But his comeback is not easy in any way. All his hopes are dashed and his belief in the unfairness of the universe is reaffirmed. Deprived of all desire for life, Maneck is pushed to the extreme of despair and, bereft of relationship worth living worth remembering, he ends his life under the railway tracks of the city.

While the reader could end up heart-broken by the tragic turn of events for the Parsi characters of the text, it only reemphasizes the postcolonial realist mode of storytelling adopted by Mistry. As the author warns the reader in the very beginning of the text that "All is true," there is no leeway offered to the reader to believe otherwise. Mistry thus creates a canvas of marginals showing the whole way of life of such people; but the author keeps the narrative grounded to reality by showing the bizarre possibilities for the marginal person in the postcolonial post-independence Indian nation.

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Understanding Plagiarism Issues in a Cultural Context -A Case Study of English

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Abstract

ASEAN is a multilingual and multicultural society. English is not the primary language of communication. English is taught as second (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL). Plagiarism is becoming an important issue of assessment in higher education. English language learners in ASEAN are still working on developing proficiency in English. They represent a large and rapidly growing population of students in various universities across the region. Hence they constitute a major group to consider when assessments in English language and criteria for plagiarism are applied to them in the same way they are applied to students whose native language is English. This small case study is to be used by instructors and administrators as they work to ensure that assessments of students whose first language is not English are fair and valid. It also provides a basic knowledge of concepts related to plagiarism in higher education. A few guidelines based on this case study will encourage those involved with teaching and assessment to keep students in mind throughout the teaching learning process of a foreign language such as English. Fully understating the issues of plagiarism in a cultural context will ultimately lead to better assessment practices for all students.

Keywords ASEAN, Culture, English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Plagiarism, TurnitIn

Introduction

In ASEAN, severe difficulties in speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language can lead to denying the individual one of the following:

1. The ability to successfully perform and achieve in classrooms where the language of instruction is English
2. The ability to meet the proficiency level of jobs available in multinational companies where English is commonly used
3. The opportunity to participate fully in an integrated ASEAN and AEC

Increase in plagiarism can be attributed to exponential growth of Internet. These days anyone with a connection to the Internet can access vast reservoirs of knowledge. With increasing ubiquitous 3G and 4G and other broadband capabilities and the ease of access to the Internet has led to a dramatic increase in the number of users in Asia. There is also increase in broadband penetration world-wide. Figure-1 given below depicts the dramatic rise in the population of Internet users in Asia in 2011. It now amounts to about 44.8% of the global share. According to the data provided by http://www.internetworldstats.com as of June 2012 the number of Internet users in Asia has reached 1,076,681,059 persons. With increasing Internet penetration rate of 27.5% more than half of the population in Asia is now connected to the Internet, either creating or using resources. And the more that we are connected, the more we tend to abuse and exploit information in ways that were not possible just a few years ago. In this highly connected, always switched-on world reasons for increased plagiarism makes sense.

Internet has also changed the meaning and context of learning as well as plagiarism. Face-to-Face (F2F) interactions are now augmented by on-line chats and forums. Increasing use of social networks such as Facebook, Twitter, Google+, You-Tube and LinkedIn has changed the way people learn and share information without worrying about copyright issues. Instant access to information offers anyone who needs to learn a new skill, prepare for a new job, or pursue a new career the opportunity to complete training, get a certificate, or earn a degree without moving or leaving their current employment. This ease of access also comes with a price, especially in ASEAN where plagiarism is slowly becoming an important issue, especially in higher education. In spite of incoherent educational policies English language students in ASEAN continue to work on developing their proficiency in English. They represent a large and rapidly growing population in various universities across the region. Accordingly, they are a key group to consider when proficiency in English language and criteria for plagiarism are applied to them in the same way they are applied to students in parts of Europe, US and Australia where their native language is English.

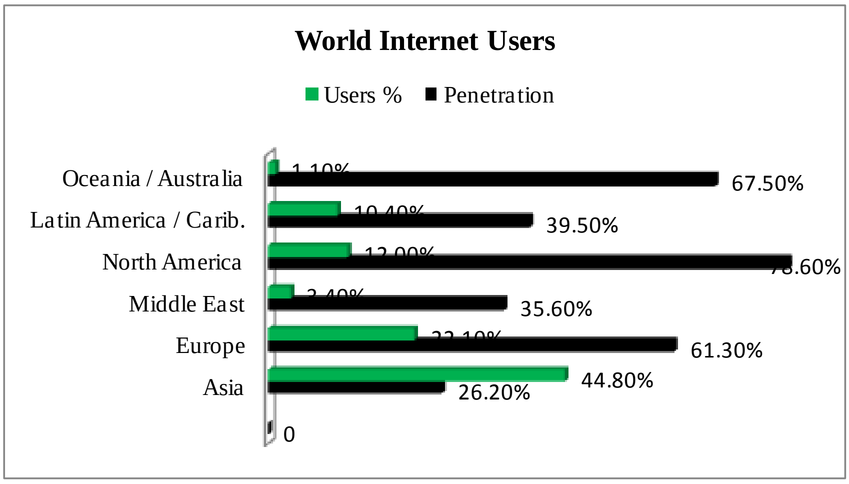


Figure-1 Internet Users & Penetration (Source: http://www.internetworldstats.com)

Research in F2F teaching and learning indicates that although performance-based assessment has become the method of choice in judging writing ability in English language, variability in the scores the instructors assign to English compositions (Term Papers, Projects, Reports, Thesis or Dissertations) remains a concern for validation studies. According to this researcher most of the time instructors rely not on absolute assessment standards, but on their own personal experiences, expectations, and purposes to evaluate writing ability of their students. The source of such cultural experiences, expectations, and purposes play a key role in understanding plagiarism. Consequently, it becomes important to understand how in ASEAN instructor’s own knowledge of English and expectations are rooted in their own cultural background and professional experience, and how they translate plagiarism into specific criteria during the assessment process.

Although limited in its scope, this study can be used by instructors and administrators as they work to ensure that assessments of students whose first language is not English are fair and valid. It also assumes a basic knowledge of concepts related to plagiarism. This author hopes that the guidelines provided will encourage those involved with teaching and assessment to keep students cultural and linguistic background in mind throughout the teaching and learning process. Fully understating the issues of plagiarism in a cultural context will ultimately lead to better assessment practices.

Related Research in Plagiarism

In 2012, Turnitin (www.Turnit.com) an on-line plagiarism checking service based in California, USA conducted a survey of 879 educators in order to understand what kinds of plagiarism are common in American academia. For the record, I want to mention that 10 types of plagiarism listed below are written as it is without any editing or alterations. It is because the writer of the Turnitin report has described them in the best possible ways. In its finding Turnitin services reported plagiarism methods widely used by students. Ten different types of plagiarism are listed below in descending order in terms of severity of their usage.

1. Cloning: Verbatim copying without additions/subtractions
2. CTL+C: Largely verbatim copying from a single source with minor changes
3. Find-Replace: Verbatim copying with key words/phrases changed, often automatically
4. Remix: Paraphrasing content so that it flows seamlessly with other work
5. Recycle: Plagiarizing from older works of your own, (self plagiarism)
6. Hybrid: Combining correctly cited material with non-cited material in the same passage
7. Mashup: A mix of copied and original content from various sources without attribution
8. 404 Error: Including citations that do not exist or are inaccurate
9. Aggregator: Properly cited material that contains little original content.
10. Re-Tweet: Includes proper citation but uses too much of the original wording, content that should have been quoted but was paraphrased

It should be emphasized that the data collected and analyzed by Turnitin[9] is solely based on the survey done in USA. It should also be remembered that English is the native language of Americans and it is taught at all levels ranging from elementary to higher education. In a nutshell, all the charts and figures derived from Turnitin data depict the plagiarism scene in USA. Finding of Turnitin are summarized and represented below including the graphs derived from their report. The author needs to remind that for sake clarity some information included in this paper is derived from Turnitin report and due credit has been given through proper citations provided at the end. As shown in Figure-1 cloning is the most popular method of plagiarism. Cloning is a plagiarism techniques involving verbatim copying and pasting without additions or subtractions. Cloning is followed by Mashup and other techniques described earlier.

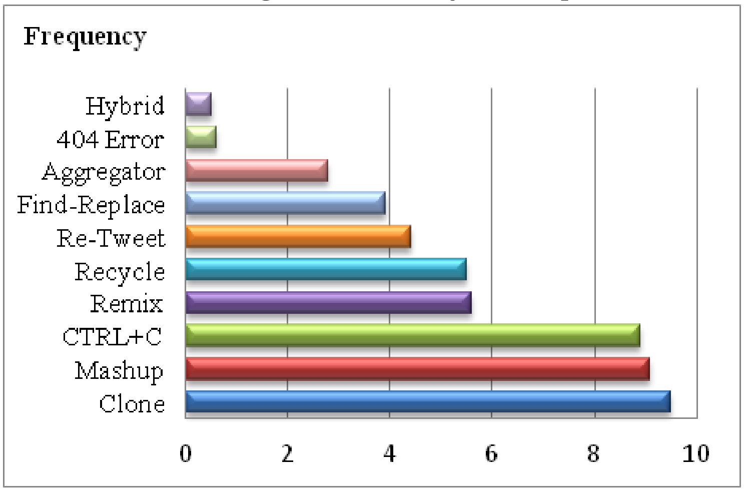


Figure-1 Frequency of each type of plagiarism
(Source www.Turnitin.com)

[9]Turnitin is a commercial on-line plagiarism checking service based in Oakland, California, U.S.A.

According to the finding of Turnitin (www.TurnitIn.com), the *Cloning* and *CTRL+C* techniques (Figure 2) are the most problematic.

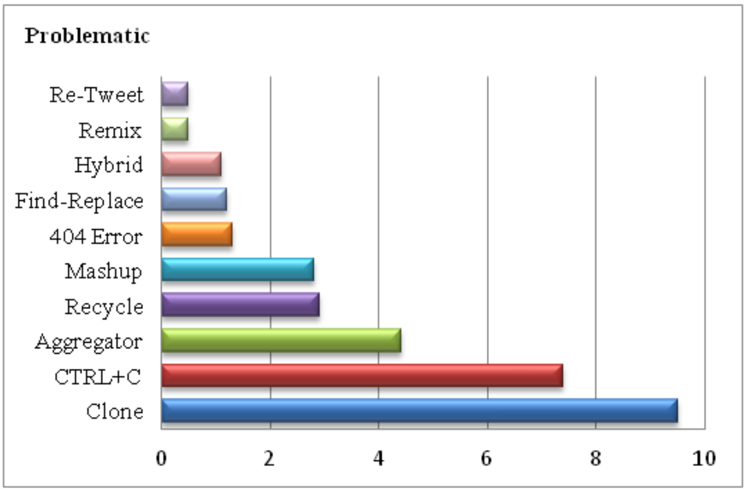


Figure-2 Problematic type of plagiarism
(Source www.Turnitin.com)

Methodology

This study involves a very limited number of term papers submitted as assignments in a Master's degree program conducted at a local international university. The students were asked to select a topic of their interest, write a term paper and submit it at the end of the semester. It should be emphasized that the term papers constituted a very small part of the overall assessment. The main objective of this exploratory work was to gauge the level of plagiarism.This study is not designed to resolve all the issues surrounding plagiarism in ASEAN universities. Also, the results obtained from this study do not reflect upon the extent of plagiarism in higher education in ASEAN or Thai universities. Most Thai universities do not use English as a medium of instruction. Hence the extent of plagiarism in such institutions could not be examined. It should also be noted that this study is only confined to study of English language.

For the purposes of this study a random sample of 12 term papers written and submitted by students was chosen. These 12 papers were uploaded into Turnitin for plagiarism checking. Although the sample was relatively small, it did provide an opportunity to examine the trends in a culture where English language is not the native language.

Research Questions

This case study is based on the assumption that English is not the mother tongue or the native language of the students. It is not even taught in Thai government schools. Largely the students who are residing in big cities, such as Bangkok, Chiang Mai and Phuket and enrolled in private international schools are somewhat exposed to English language. For those living outside the big cities plagiarism is a lesser known phenomenon. To further explore this issue in a cultural context following two research questions were formulated:

1. How to analyze noteworthy plagiarism indicators using Turnitin and deal with assessment?
2. Should the Western standard or indicators of plagiarism be applied to Thai students whose native tongue or language is not English?

The term papers included for plagiarism checking were collected and evaluated during 2011. Data for this case study was collected at the end of two semesters. To protect the privacy of students the details of classes and personal information has been removed. Data analysis was done using simple statistical tools available within the Turnitin portal. Turnitin provides a set of tools to analyze the documents uploaded into their system. It uses its own crawlers and algorithms to analyze the metadata and other properties of documents. For creating charts and graphs Microsoft office package was used.

Results

As mentioned above, Turnitin (www.Turnitin.com) uses its own built-in algorithms to analyze properties of documents loaded into the system. As shown in Figure-3 instructors can view a complete breakdown of which Internet repository a paper was found to have matches via the Similarity Index (SI). All users whether instructors or students, can view detailed SI in the Originality Report (OR) generated by TurnitIn. To the right of the SI total percentage is listed in a box next with the name of each repository identified on the Internet. It represents the total percentage of a paper found to match sources within a particular repository.

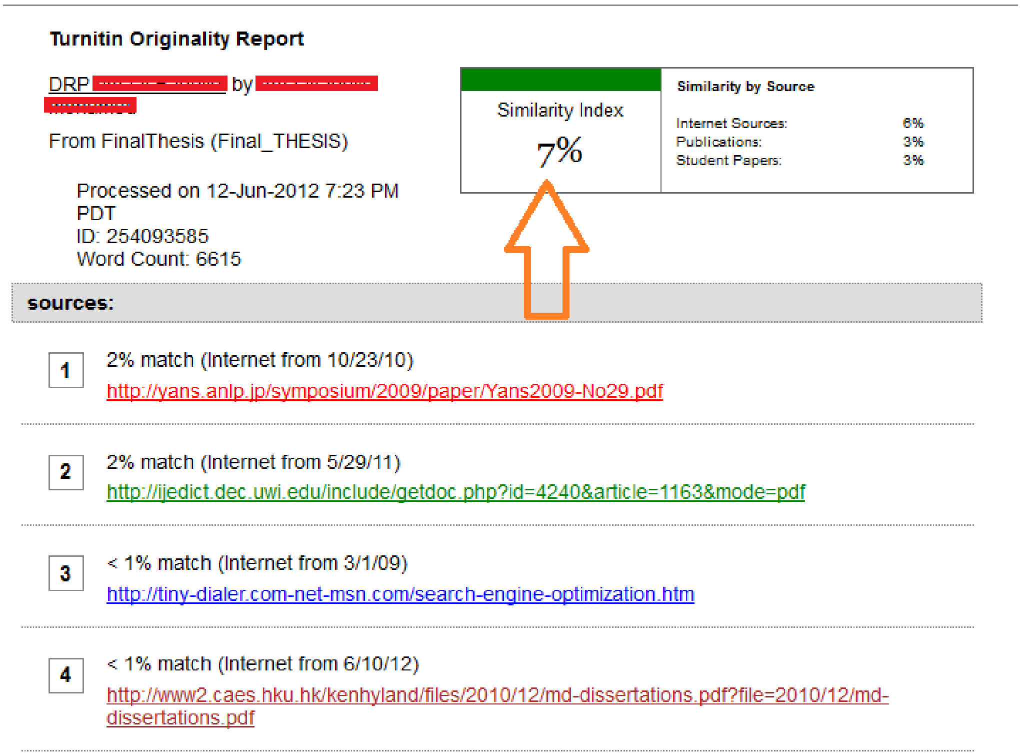


Figure-3 Similarity Index (SI) shown by Turnitin
(Source www.Turnitin.com)

It should be noted that there may be overlaps in the matches among repositories causing the sum of each repository percentage to be greater than the overall SI (which is the total percentage of the paper found to have matches to any repository minus exclusions) or even to be greater than 100%. The "originality" section of the paper information pop-up contains the overall percentage and the percentage of matching content from each of the three repositories: Internet Sources, Publications, and Student Papers (refers to papers stored in the standard paper repository and the institution's own paper repository).

It is worth noting that sometimes the overall SI may be a smaller percentage than the repository percentages combined. This would be due to overlapping text within the repositories. The overall SI combines all the best matches from the overlapping sources. It is evident from Figure- 4 that the SI for 11 out of 12 papers ranged from a minimum of 25% to a maximum of 100%, which also means that majority of the papers showed similarity to other resources found on the Internet. In other words, they were copied from the Internet. Only Paper-7 showed very low SI of 4%. Two out of 12 papers showed a maximum SI of 95% and 98% respectively which literally means that these 2 papers were identical to other resources available on the Internet. How much of *cloning* or *CTRL+C* was involved can be examined further by looking at other three indicators.

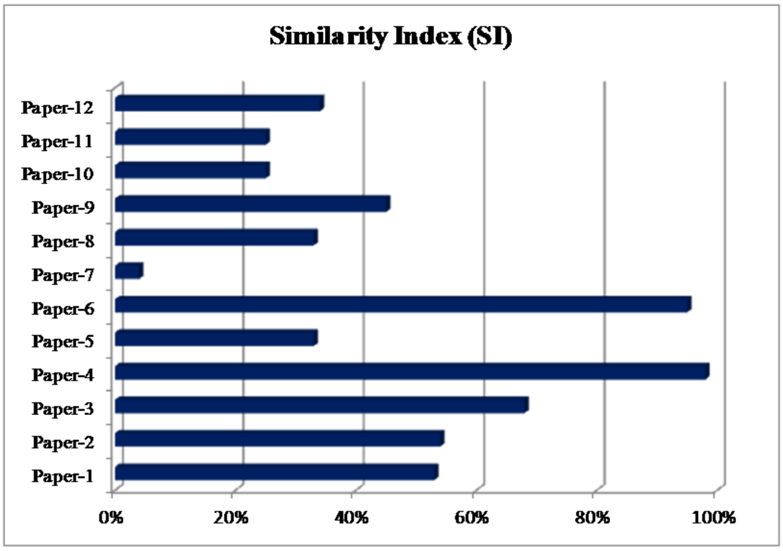


Figure-4 Similarity Index (SI) for 12 Term Papers

The originality report shown in Figure-5 to Figure-7 is derived from the following three resources.

i. **Internet Resources**: Matching items available on the Internet
ii. **Publications**: Matching items derived from other publication
iii. **Student Papers**: Matching items derived from students papers

For a better understanding they are discussed individually in the following sections. Let us examine the output received from Turnitin for each of these 3 resources.

i. Use of Internet Resources

Let us look at the other output received from Turnitin for usage of Internet sources. Figure-5 indicated that 11 out of 12 papers used Internet sources ranging from 23% to a maximum of 95%. Which also means that majority of the papers were compiled using Internet sources.

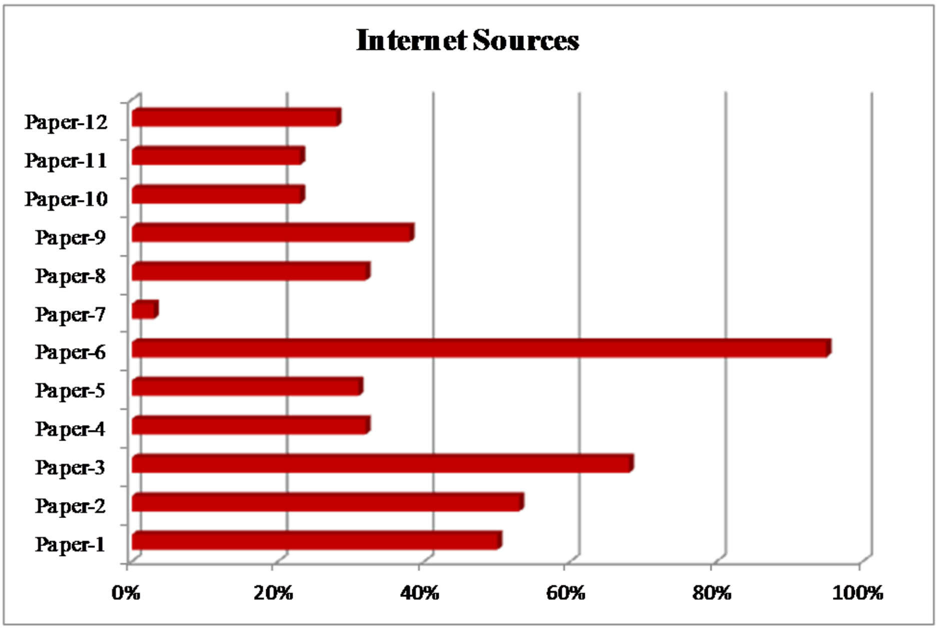


Figure-5 Internet sources for 12 papers detected by Turnitin

Only Paper-7 showed 3% of usage of Internet sources. Only one paper out of 12 showed 95% usage of Internet sources. How much of *cloning* and *CTRL+C* was done for Paper-6 is clear from Figure-4 and Figure-5. A case for plagiarism could be easily built by carefully examining the other two indicators.

ii. Use of Internet Publications

Figure-6 given below shows the use of Publication in composing 12 term papers. It is apparent that excepting for Paper-4 all others did not indicate plagiarizing from standard publication such as proceedings, transactions and journals. Only Paper-4 and Paper-6 show extensive usage of publications found on the Internet.

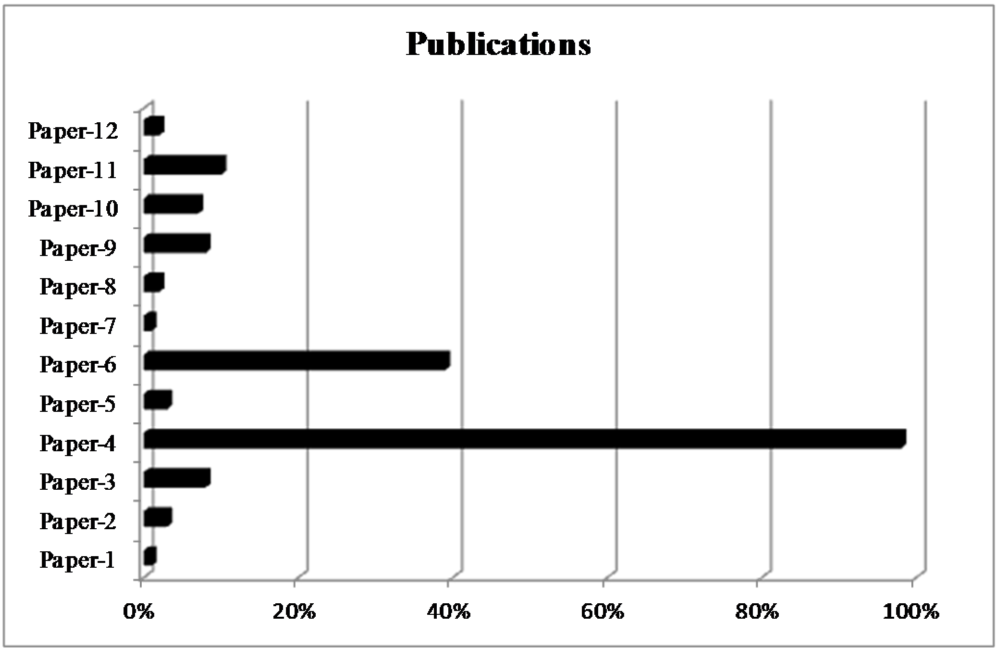


Figure-6 Use of publication detected by Turnitin

The score for other 10 papers range from 1% to a maximum of 10%. It could also be argued that the students did not waste their time sifting through proceedings, transactions and journals to compose their own document.

iii. Use of Student Papers

Let us now examine the last output received from Turnitin for usage of student's papers as reference materials. Figure 7 indicate that 2 out of 12 papers used other student's papers for writing their own. Paper 4 and Paper 6 shows a score of 86% and 93% respectively. For 9 out 12 papers the scope for other student's paper usage ranged from a minimum of 7% to a maximum of 48%. Which also means that majority of the papers to some extent used other student's work available on the Internet. Only Paper-7 showed 1% usage of others work which may amount to a similarity in title or something very small.

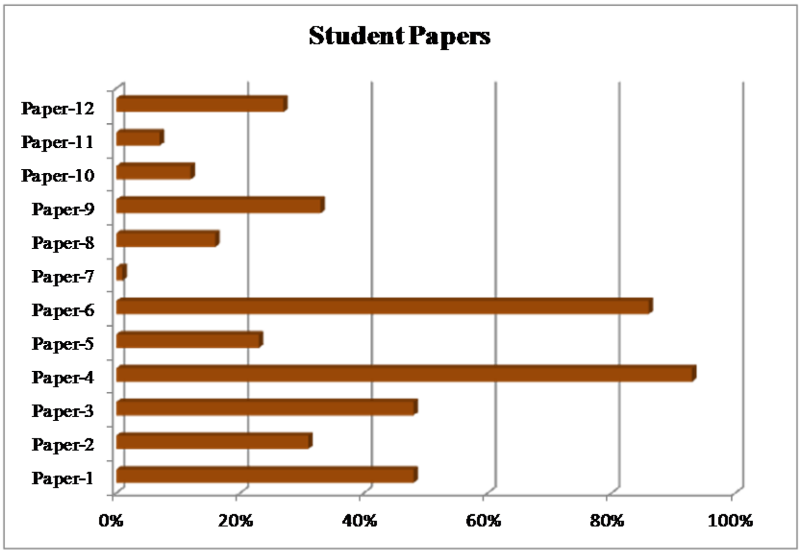
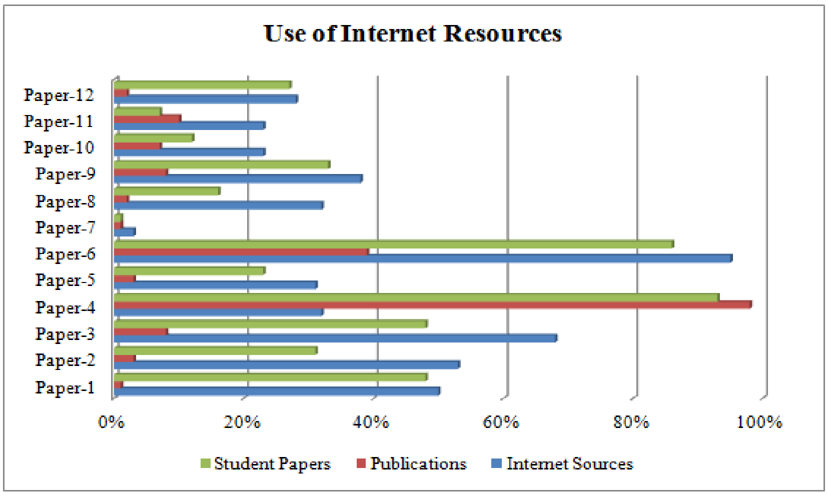


Figure-7 Use of student's papers detected by Turnitin

Discussion

A combination of all the 3 resources found on the Internet for each paper is shown in Figure-8. A careful examination of this graph provides an overall picture of the extent of plagiarism from various Internet resources.



Figiure-8 Use of Internet resources (%)

It is quite evident that 2 out of 12 papers extensively used the archived information available on the Internet. In the case of Paper-6 all the major indicators matched very well to each other- SI, Internet sources and student papers. In the case of Paper-4 three major indicators proportionately match to each other very well- SI, Publication and student papers. For this paper we can easily conclude that it is a replica of a student paper published in a proceeding or a journal available on the Internet.

In the past few years, plagiarism in many ASEAN universities has become an important issue. Although there is no denying that cheating is a pervasive problem in many universities but it could not be resolved by just focusing on Turnitin or similar tools. Since English is not the first language of students, it seems that most instances of “plagiarism” result from students’ ignorance about citation practices. If instructors properly educate students about how and when to cite the work of others in their own papers the issues of plagiarism will not be so threatening. It also raises the questions about how English is taught in schools and colleges.

Let us examine the implications of the two research question posed earlier. Many institutions in USA have taken a proactive position regarding the use of Turnitin as an instructional rather than crime detection tool. Plagiarism policies in many institutions underscore instruction by focusing on crime detection. Instructors in the universities should be trained to use the Turnitin as a teaching and assessment tool. They should teach students about the ethics and practices of reference citation. Instructors who use Turnitin should be advised to include information about this service in their syllabi. In addition, common warnings about the consequences of academic dishonesty must also be included. A syllabus should tell students that the instructor will use Turnitin in class, describing the types of issues that it detects, and of course, the consequences of deliberate plagiarism. In this way, especially in introductory classes, this roadmap will provide instructors with an opportunity to discuss acceptable citation practices. Students learn about proper citation practices, and at the same time receive clear warning about the consequences of not adhering to the instructor’s expectations.

The second research question is critical with regard to the status of English language in Thailand and elsewhere in ASEAN. Should a tool such as Turnitin be used in institutions at all? There is a larger issue about using Turnitin in Thailand where English is not the native or the first language of students. In this context, use of tool such as Turnitin should be carefully examined in terms of its usage. If the Thailand is genuinely interested in improving English education, then they have to do the following:

Thai higher education should concentrate on training their own people to become excellent teachers of English language. The teachers of English have to be good; they have to be an inspiration for their students. It would be very natural for young Thai students to say "if my teacher could do it, I can do it too". If ASEAN schools and colleges really want to employ a foreigner, then he/she must be a real qualified language teacher, not just a native speaker. It has to be one who has a high degree in language or linguistics, and who has also mastered at least one or more ASEAN languages. So instead of wasting time on deciding what to call English, (English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as Second Language (ESL) and for what reason, the educational policies should really be focused on improving the quality of English teachers and of English teaching in Thailand and elsewhere in ASEAN.

If some students take unfair advantage of the fact that some instructors let them do most of their writing outside of class, or that they don't use Turnitin, so be it. It's not that instructors don't care. They do, and if they catch them plagiarizing openly, they should try to make sure that there is some prize to pay. However, they should not devote an inordinate amount of time to catching them or get too obsessed over the students they don't catch. Knowing well that the English is not the native language of students they need to learn to let it go. Most students will use Internet to compile their papers. It is easily accessible to them. It's also true that, no matter what an instructor may do to deter cheating, some students are going to find a way around it. It comes down to this: either one can focus on becoming a good instructor or turn into a plagiarism police. Instructors need to mainly focus on improving the writing skills of their students. As such, part of their job may involve catching the occasional plagiarist. When that happens, instructors should remedy the situation by providing appropriate help. The students could be much happier and more productive that way. True, some students may "get away with cheating, but they' will eventually reach a stage when they will realize its repercussions on their careers. After all, it is hard to fake poor speaking, reading and writing skills.

Conclusions

Although there may be some common issues regarding teaching and learning of English in ASEAN but there is also a lack of efforts in harmonizing standards in the region's educational system. Immense disparities in educational systems and economic development across ASEAN present many more difficult challenges. There is still hope that the policy makers realize that in an emerging Asian Economic Community (AEC) English language can become a common language and act as glue that can bind the region together. It is very clear that English language is playing a major role in the process of globalization.

The results of this brief study does not reflect upon the overall quality of teaching and learning of English in the region This study should be considered as a small indicator of the problems facing students whose native language is not English. In that respect instructors themselves have to be well trained in the use of Turnitin or any other online services as a tool to improve speaking, reading and writing skills. Writing skills are developed over time. So instead of wasting time on deciding what to call English, (English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as Second Language (ESL) and for what reason, the policy makers and administrators, teachers and university instructors should really be engaged in and concerned about improving the quality of teaching.

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An Analysis of Translation Strategies Used in the English Subtitles of the Thai Movie 'Hello Stranger'

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Abstract

Subtitling is considerably one crucial type of translation acting as a significant vehicle in transporting communicating messages across cultures. This research aims to investigate translation strategies employed by a Thai subtitler in rendering the English subtitles of the well-known Thai movie 'Hello Stranger'. The list of non-equivalents at word level, occurring when the target language has no direct equivalent for the source-language-word (e.g. ถีบ and kick), was primarily analyzed according to the eleven categories pervasively proposed by Baker (1992). Once the non-equivalence was identified, eight translation strategies proposed by Baker were used to detect the strategy exploitation in dealing with those items. The frequency of each translation strategy used was revealed in the form of percentage, including plausible explanation for its usage.

The results revealed that seventeen translation strategies were employed by the subtitler; seven of them are under Baker's proposal. The first three most frequently used strategies were translation by a more neutral word/less expressive word, by cultural substitution, and by using a loan word or a loan word plus explanation. The findings noticeably show that Baker's proposal could almost cover the non-equivalent items found in this study. Additionally, it is represented that the subtitler exploited a number of diverse strategies in breaking through numerous barriers so as to render the conveying messages to his target audience.

Keywords: translation strategies, subtitles, subtitler, subtitling, non-equivalence

Introduction

In the world of globalization, it cannot be denied that 'movie translation' or 'subtitling' is nowadays considerably one of the vital vehicles in transmitting messages including culture from one language to another across cultural barriers with the main aims under its translating realm of delivering enjoyment and understanding of the conveying messages to the target audiences across cultures.

Subtitles become widely understandable as textual versions of the dialogue in films and/or television programs and they are normally displayed at the bottom of the screen. Dialogue in the form of subtitles can be translated into either a foreign language or the same language of the original movie, with or without added information in order to assist deaf people, hearing-impaired audiences, people who cannot comprehend aural conversation, or people who have troubles of accent perception, to keep following the conversation simultaneously displayed with subtitles (Borell, 2000). To launch such a significant translation product of subtitles, the translator has to consciously bring a number of elements into his/her mind such as the lexical and structural permission of the target language, the audience, context, cultural aspect, or even some restrictions of subtitling allowing only two lines and not more than 39 characters (Borell, 2000).

In respect of these statements, it seems to be hard for the translator to try to find the closest equivalence in the target language which is considerably the central problem of translation (Catford, 1965). Baker (1992) advocates this notion that non-equivalents, occurring when the

target language has no direct equivalent for a word in the source text, between languages always and definitely exist. This statement is supported by Newmark (1991) acknowledging that there is no 100% equivalence between languages. A word may seem to be the ready equivalent for another; however, one always possesses the grounded meaning or else overlaps to some extent, more than the other, leading to the problem of non-equivalence. With regard to these statements, it can be seen that the problem of non-equivalents is the crucial task of translation.
Moreover, Baker (1992) elaborates that the problem of non-equivalents is actually divided into five distinctive levels—at word level (dealing with lexical meanings), above word level (coping with collocation and idioms and fixed expressions), at grammatical level (relating to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages), at textual level (involving the textual information and uses of cohesion), and at pragmatic level (relating to the translator's real intention implied in his/her translation). The non-equivalence 'at word level' is, however, the smallest unit among the five and is considerably a common problem posing to the translator (Baker, 1992). Therefore, the unparallel counterparts at word level are drawn to this investigation. Remarkably, the focus of this research study is, thus, merely on 'semantic feature'; vulgar, swear words, and/or others are not excluded as long as their propositional, expressive, presupposed, and/or evoked meanings can be grasped.

Research Questions:

1. What translation strategies are employed in translating non-equivalence at word level into the English subtitles of the Thai movie "Hello Stranger" including plausible reasons behind uses?
2. What is the frequency of each translation strategy used in the aforementioned movie? What are the most and the least frequently used strategies?

Objectives of the Study

This research study is conducted to find out what translation strategies, including plausible reasons, were employed by the subtitler in dealing with non-equivalence at word-level found in the Thai romantic-comedy movie 'Hello Stranger' which was voted as one of the most frequently and enjoyably watched movies in 2010 by Thai nationals (Suai-Amata-Nirankarn, 2010) and obtained the National Film Association Award in 2010 (IMDb, 2010). In addition, the frequency of each strategy used as well as the most and the least frequently used strategies were also investigated.

Literature Review

Types of Non-Equivalence
With regard to the problem of non-equivalence at word level, the first element to be taken into consideration, it is noteworthy that Baker's conceptual categories of lexical non-equivalents are thoroughly proposed. This is asserted by Leonardi (2000, cited in Binh, 2010) praising that Baker suggests more detailed accounts on the concept of non-equivalence as broad as it can be defined while others do not give significance to and comprehensively generate non-equivalent categories. Baker (1992) classifies the non-equivalent problems into eleven extensive categories which are (1) **Culture-specific concepts** e.g. น้ำพริกปลาทู (Fish and Thai dip) and วันสงกรานต์ (Songkran Day); (2) **The source-language concept is not simply lexicalized in the target language** e.g. ตอแหล (lie in a mincing way) and savoury (having a pleasant salty taste but not sweet) (Baker, 1992); (3) **The source language word is semantically complex** e.g. หืน (unpleasant smell found in food cooked with repetitively used oil) and 'ฉี [หมู] (to slice a pig's

whole body into pieces and then bring to hawk from place to place, especially in a village); (4) **The source and the target languages make different distinctions in meaning** e.g. Indonesian words ‘hujan-hujanan’ meaning going out in the rain with the realization it is raining and ‘kehujanan’ denoting going out in the rain without realizing that it is raining (Baker, 1992); (5) **The target language lacks a superordinate** e.g. a lack of the heading word ‘facilities’ in Russian; (6) **The target language lacks a specific term (hyponym)** e.g. a lack of English hyponyms to refer to various different types of Thai banana ‘กล้วยน้ำหว้า’, ‘กล้วยเล็บมือนาง’, ‘กล้วยหอม’ and ‘กล้วยไข่’ (Pinmanee, 2006); (7) **Differences in physical or interpersonal perspective** e.g. the physical differences between the words ‘ถีบ (to hard kick) and‘เตะ (to kick)’ and the differences of words used for varied interpersonal relationship like กิน /kin/, ทาน /ta:n/, รับประทาน /rΛbprata:n/, ฟาด /fa:t/, แดก /dæg/, ยัด /yΛt/, หม่ำ /mΛm/, and เสวย /sawei:/; (8) **Difference in expressive meaning** e.g. the word เดือดดาล and its, actually less expressive, alternative equivalent ‘angry’; (9) **Differences in form** e.g. no Thai ready forms for English couplets and affixes like payer/payee and-ish in boyish; (10) **Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms** e.g. in English we ‘turn on’ the heating but hardly ever ‘open’ the heating and ‘really’ in English is used frequently rather than ‘verily’; (11) **The use of loan words in the source text** e.g. a loss of the real effect of the word ‘ร้านอาหารตามสั่ง’, meaning a food shop which only sells easy-to-order and rapidly-cooked food, when using only the word ‘La Carte’ as its substitute.

Translation Strategies

Facing the inescapable problem of non-equivalents as detailed above, it is mandatory for the translator to find ways to cope with them so as to deliver his/her messages to the target audience as intended. To facilitate that, Baker (1992) and other scholars e.g. Dowell and Bailey (1990), Vinay and Darbelnet, (2000), Newmark (1988), and Saibua (2006) propose translation strategies to handle those of the unparalleled items. However, Baker’s strategic framework seems to be the most systematic and extensive. This statement is weighted more by Roekmongkhonwit (2006); he asserts that all of Mona Baker’s translation strategies for tackling non-equivalents at word level are more specific than the others’. They are clear, accurate, and concise with many easy-to-understand examples. Therefore, her proposal is drawn as the base for this research analysis. All the eight typologies can be elaborated on and exemplified as follows:

1. **Using a more general word** is the use of a more general word or a superordinate to overcome a lack of specificity in the target language. In other words, the translator goes up to a higher level of the target language’s semantic field so as to find a more general lexical item that covers the core propositional meaning of the missing hyponym. The word “look” can be used as a more general word than the word “จ้อง” (glance), for example. Dowell and Bailey (1990, cited in Kunavarote, 2006) provide a good example for this strategy exploitation: the Italian word ‘vermicelli’ is translated into English as ‘spaghetti’. By using this more general word, it helps the readers to conceptualize that ‘vermicelli’ is actually only one kind of pasta.

2. **Using a more neutral or less expressive word** is generally used when there is a noticeable difference in the expressive meaning of the word between the source and the target languages. Sometimes words containing in an equal or nearly equal surface meaning (propositional meaning) may significantly possess different expressive meanings. The translator, therefore, turns to weigh more on using a word that is more neutral and/or less expressive than the original; the word “touch” is more neutral than the word “stroke”, for instance. Additionally, the translator might tackle an unequal meaning by adding a modifier, e.g., an adjective and an adverb, even if such a presence does not actually exist in the source text.

3. **Cultural substitution** involves substituting a cultural-specific word in the source language with a more familiar replacement in the target language. The translator turns to select something that is familiar to and can stimulate a similar impact on the target audience as the culture-specific word in the source language does to its audience. For example, the word "ไหว้" in Thai may be replaced by the word "greet" or phrase "shake hand" in the West. Noticeably, this strategy can be compared to the strategy of 'adaptation' proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000). This strategy is also suggested to be used when the message in the source language is unknown in the target language culture; using 'Thai opera' as a replacement of the word 'ลิเก' helps to generate a picture of this Thai traditional drama to westerners.

4. **Using a loan word or a loan word plus explanation** simply means the direct use of the source language word in the translated version. Loan words are the words of other languages which were borrowed (or loaned) and adopted into uses in another language and culture, usually used in translating names of people, places and geographical areas. An alternative explanation given accompanying the loan word can be very helpful in case occurrences of the word in question are frequently found within the text. Once it is explained, it can then stand alone. Newmark (1988), a translation expert, asserts more that this strategy is particularly used in handling culture-specific items and vogue-words with the purposes of giving local color, seizing the audience's attention, and showing respect for the source language's culture.

5. **Paraphrasing by using a related word** signifies an amplification of the meaning of a word in the source language with renewed words and/or forms in the target language so as to generate better comprehension. This strategy will be specifically used when the translator confronts the known concept but the target language system has no ready form to be lexicalized into, or it has but the frequency of use of that form seems to be unnatural in the target language For instance, the –ing form in the following sentence has to be reformed by paraphrasing using the related form of the original word if it is translated into German: The Ritz Hotel, **overlook<u>ing</u>** the lake, is favored by celebrities (the back translated version in German would be ***which overlooks***). This strategy is actually similar to the 'transposition method' proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000), depicting the uses of other words, expressions, structures or forms in the target language to reproduce the original message rendered by the source language. By this approach, the original meaning can still be completely retained.

6. **Paraphrasing by using an unrelated word** is normally employed when the source-language word cannot be lexicalized at all in the target language, particularly for the source-word that is semantically complex. What a translator does is to unpack the meaning of the source item or modify its superordinate. However, in doing so, the expressive, evoked meaning or other associative meanings of the source-item inevitably disappears since those kinds of meaning can be rendered only to single lexical items, and not to many slots of the lexical item generated by paraphrasing.

The use of this strategy can be visualized through the following English and German translation: *'You can even dine **<u>'alfresco'</u>** in the summer on our open air terrace.'* is translated into German as, in the back-translated-version, *'In the summer you can also sit and eat on the terrace **<u>in the open</u>**.'*, (Baker, 1992). It can be seen that the meaning of the loan word 'alfresco' is unpacked and the propositional meaning is also retained in the translated version. However, an air of sophistication or prestige value in 'alfresco' is lost. Additionally, though paraphrasing helps to reserve high precision of propositional meaning of a word, it is awkward and wieldy to use, especially for the genre where restriction on space is significant like subtitling.

7. **Omission** means that a message in the source language is not translated into the target one. This might sound drastic; however, if the word or expression in question is not important to the development of the text and does not cause meaning distortion, that word or expression can then be omitted. For instance, the phrase "บ้านที่แสนอบอุ่น" (Back translation: the very warm house) can be only translated into a lexical item "the house". In addition, Saibua (2007) suggests an analogous method; that is, removing the source-word. She recommends that when the meaning of some words or expressions in the source language is not so significant to the growth of understanding of the text, the removal of the source-words or expressions can come into play.

8. **Using illustration** is particularly helpful when the word in question possesses some physical entities which can be drawn out through illustration. This strategy is evidently favored by the translation where the space and lengthy limitations speak significant volume, requiring short, concise, and hitting-to-the-point translations; labeling and subtitling, for example. By considering a more effective use, an illustration can be operated along with words so as to increase the level of comprehension.

Apart from the translation strategies elaborated above, there are more feasible strategies proposed by other translation linguists; those are addition of information e.g. 'ขนมจีบ' = 'Ka Nom Jeeb' **(Streamed Dumplings)** (Saibua, 2005)**;** addition plus a loan word e.g. 'Chaophraya' = '**the river** Chaopraya'**;** use of metaphor e.g. he **is** a pig; use of simile e.g. the child is **as** pure **as** white cloth**;** use of hyperbole e.g. 'I think he might have **all the sugar in this world** before talking to me.'**;** using a more specific word e.g. 'the **teakwood** sala' as a replacement of the source-word 'sala' (Larson, 1984)**;** using synonymy e.g. 'oily food' and 'greasy food' as alternatives for the word 'rich food' (Farghal and Obiedat (1995) and Huang (2001) cited in Mungchomklang, 2009)**;** literal translation e.g. 'สมองหมา' translated into 'dog brain' (Newmark, 1985); use of onomatopoeia e.g. ding-dong and buzz (Zhang, 2005); and using a more intensely expressive word e.g. 'went mad' as a replacement of 'went angry' (Titiškytė, 2009).

Methodology

A. Samples

With the matter of fact that the English subtitles are chosen to be the tool for research conduction, there will be no live subjects participating in this research study. However, in respect of long duration of the movie, half of the movie is therefore taken into consideration; that is, subtitles lasting for 01:00:41minutes from the total duration of 01:57:30 were employed as the raw data.

B. Research Instrument

The observation sheets, based on the theoretical accounts of non-equivalents and translation strategies proposed by Baker (1992), were both used to detect unequal problematic items and to capture the strategy exploitation by means of tallying made by both intra- and inter-raters.

C. Data Collection

The master DVD 'Hello Stranger' was obtained from the GMM Tai Hub (GTH) company. The movie scripts downloaded from the internet were then compared and edited for verification of the data as the final valid source.

D. Data Analysis

In order to answer the research questions, all the non-equivalent items, based on the eleven categories proposed by Baker as aforementioned, had been primarily identified and checked by the researcher and two inter-raters, both native speakers of Thai and English. The non-equivalent items were then detected to capture translation strategies, based on Baker's theoretical framework, employed by the subtitler in decoding them into the English subtitles. To make the data more reliable, an inter-rater, a professional Thai teacher capable of English, was also invited to tally the translation strategies used apart from the researcher's investigation.

Results

The results were divided into two parts; that is, (1) all the non-equivalent items categorized according to its eleven types and (2) the translation strategies exploited by the translator (See Appendix).

(1) Non-equivalent items classified according to the eleven typologies

Table 1 shows the frequency of each type of non-equivalence, contributed by Baker, found in the English subtitles of the movie.

Table 1 The Frequency of Types of Non-Equivalence Found in the English Subtitles of the Thai Movie 'Hello Stranger'

Type of Non-equivalence	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Differences in expressive meaning	**26**	**24.07**
Concept in the SL is not simply lexicalized in the TL	19	17.59
Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	19	17.59
The use of loan words in the source text	13	12.04
Culture-specific concepts	11	10.19
The TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)	7	6.48
Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms	5	4.63
The SL & TL make distinctions in meaning	5	4.63
The SL word is semantically complex	3	2.78
The TL lacks a superordinate	**0**	**0**
Differences in form	**0**	**0**
Total	**108**	**100**

Investigating from the raw data of English subtitles, there was a total of 98 items being considered as non-equivalents. Some of the items were considerably marked in more than one category, thereby resulting in the total frequency of 108 of non-equivalence counted. The top three types of non-equivalents most frequently found are the type of which the unparalleled counterparts, between the Thai and English, differ in expressive meaning (e.g. *หนีเที่ยว* = *travelling* and *เตี้ย* = *dwarf*); non-equivalence of which the concept in the SL is shared but hard to be lexicalized in the TL (e.g. *แรงส์* = *x-rated!* and *แรด* = *act slutty*)**;** and the non-equivalents differing in physical or interpersonal perspective (e.g. *แดก* = *eat* and *นม* = *chest*)**.** Once all the non-equivalence items were obtained, they were then examined to detect the translation strategies exploitation, the main enquiry of this research study.

(2) The translation strategies used

Table 2 represents the frequency of each type of translation strategies employed by the subtitler when he was at critical junctures in dealing with non-equivalence at word level.

Table 2 The Frequency of Types of Translation Strategies Used by the Subtitler of the Movie 'Hello Stranger'

Type of Translation Strategies	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Translation by a more neutral word/less expressive word	**28**	**28.57**
Translation by cultural substitution	15	15.31
Translation using a loan word or a loan word plus explanation	12	12.24
Translation by paraphrase using an unrelated word	7	7.14
Translation by a more general word (superordinate)	6	6.12
Translation by omission	6	6.12
Translation by paraphrase using a related word	5	5.10
Translation by a more specific word	4	4.08
Translation by using a more intensely expressive word	4	4.08
Translation by using a synonym	2	2.04
Translation by addition plus a loan word	2	2.04
Translation by using a metaphor	2	2.04
Translation by using hyperbole	1	1.02
Addition of information	1	1.02
Translation by using onomatopoeia	1	1.02
Translation by using simile	1	1.02
Literal translation	1	1.02
Translation by illustration	**0**	**0**
Total	**98**	**100**

These empirical findings, in response to the first research question, reveal that there were seventeen strategies being employed by the subtitler in dealing with non-equivalence at word level in which seven out of eight translation strategies proposed by Baker were mainly in the bundle. Surprisingly, there were an additional ten theoretical strategies proposed by other translation linguists which were being exploited in handling the non-equivalence.

In answering the second research question in finding the most and the least frequently used strategies, the findings evidently show that 'translation by a more neutral word or less expressive word', proposed by Baker, speaks the loudest volume of the most frequently used one. On the other hand, the least frequently used strategies are 'translation by using hyperbole, 'translation by addition of information', 'translation by using onomatopoeia, 'translation by using simile', and 'literal translation'. The following is the conspicuous examples and plausible explanation of the three most frequently used strategies.

1. **Translation by a more neutral word/less expressive word**
   Example

Context: The main actor tries to make an excuse for his guilt in kicking the seat of the main actress. He instead puts the blame on the small girl nearby.

Source text (Thai): น้อง ไป**ถีบ**เบาะพี่เค้าเล่นทำไมล่ะครับ

Target text (English): Sweetie, why did you **kick** her seat?

With regard to the above instance, it shows that the translator selected the less expressive word 'kick' as the representative for the source language word 'ถีบ' even though he could have added a modifier like an adverb so as to retain and boost the level of expressive meaning of the source to the target language word. This might be because he considered that the context in which this source-word is used seems to be neutral, without any vulgarly aggressive emotion of any characters, rather showing polite expression indeed. Therefore, he chose the nearest equivalent which is both less expressive and more neutral.

In brief, this strategy is used by the subtitler to avoid rendering the wrong (inexact equivalence) and too direct expressive value of the source language and to tackle the problem of being incapable of finding the absolutely equally expressive word in the target language.

2. **Translation by cultural substitution**
   Example

Context: While the main actress is leading the way for the main actor to the target hotel, she is having some food. When seeing it, the actor complains about her deeds similar to the actions of eating and criticizing food of the well-known gourmet of Thailand, McDang.

Source text (Thai): เป็น**หมึกแดง**หรือไง ชิมอะไรอยู่นั่นแหล่ะ

Target text (English): Are you **Martha Stewart** or something?

McDang (หมึกแดง) is Thailand's most famous food expert, chef, and writer (Chef McDang, accessed on July 8, 2012). The actor mentioned him so as to visualize and satirize the main actress's actions which were similar to the characteristics of chef McDang in critiquing food he is eating and/or tasting. However, it would have been peculiar to the target audience who has been living in a different culinary cultural context if the translator directly used McDang as a loan word name. Therefore, to make translation more apposite and to stimulate a familiar context in the target language culture, the translator, instead, turned to use a cultural substitute 'Martha Stewart', a celebrity food professional, chef, cookbook writer, and host of a TV program renowned among westerners. This good substitution helps the target audience understand and identify the concept of translation.

In short, this strategy is employed by the subtitler in building understanding bridges for the semantic gaps from the source-culture-specific words to that of the target language. By using a word engendering a similar impact in the target language culture, it helps the target audience to conceptualize and comprehend the Thai cultural specific notion.

3. **Translation using a loan word or a loan word plus explanation**
   Example

Context: The main actress is introducing the main actor to the Korean family by assumedly naming him 'Darng'. The actor accepts and then asserts his invented name to the family by expressing the following utterances.

Source text (Thai): ครับ ผมชื่อ**ด่าง**

Target text (English): Darng (it means puppy)

Each nation names things under the notion of its own cultural context and language system, people's names, for example. The names in each country's language are varied and different from those of other countries. Therefore, the source language names are commonly transliterated

into the alphabets of the target language; translation of the names is rarely seen. Similarly, the subtitler of this movie converted the source language name into English plus added a direct explanation in parentheses so as to clarify the meaning of the transliterated name. This helps the audience clearly comprehend what ‘Darng’, the Thai name, denotes.
To summarize, the subtitler tends to use this strategy to increase the high-class-value of a word, to maintain the culture specific word, and to preserve the norm of translation particularly the names of all livings for which translation is not normally exercised.

Discussion

The following tables might help to clarify the discussion part of this research study

Table3 Suggestion and Trends on Strategies Used for Handling Specific Types of Problems and for Specific Purposes

Trend	Tackled/Used for	Strategies
1	culture-bound-item	Cultural substitution Using a loan word (+) explanation Paraphrasing using unrelated words
2	unequal expressive meanings between the SL & TL / emphasizing word meaning	Using a more specific word Using a more neutral/less expressive word Using a more intensely expressive word
3	clarifying & drawing more visuals to the conveying concept	Addition of info. Addition plus a loan word Using hyperbole Using onomatopoeia Using a metaphor Using simile
4	word repetition	Omission Using synonymy
5	lack of a specific word	Using a more general word
6	giving respect to the SL	Literal translation

Referring to the empirical findings, this research study revealed that there were a total of seventeen translation strategies, and seven of them belong to Baker, being employed by the subtitler in dealing with non-equivalents at word level when translating and handling those from Thai into English. There were ten more strategies, most drawing from the other translation scholars, that were employed to cope with those of the unparalleled counterparts. Interestingly, it is noticed that translation by illustration, which is one of Baker’s strategic categories, is not found to be employed at all in this subtitling. This might be the matter of fact that the visuals are simultaneously displaying while the subtitles are being revealed. This assistance, therefore, needs no other illustration.

Based on the findings, some significant ‘trends’ in using some specific groups of strategies for handling the particular groups of problematic translation issues and/or for specific purposes could be suggested (See Table 3). The details can be narrated as these.

When facing the problem of culture-bound-specific items in the source language, the following three strategies could be used: ‘cultural substitution’, ‘using a loan word or a loan word plus explanation’, and ‘paraphrasing using an unrelated word’. Thai and English reflect remarkably distinctive cultural concepts; therefore, there would be semantic gaps between the two cultures causing problems in translation. Translators could accordingly build an understanding bridge for these cultural chasms by using those strategies. For example, replacing the source-culture-specific-word with a similar cultural notion in the target language, rendering more conceptual familiarity, undoubtedly assists in making the target audience understand the communicating concept (e.g. ลัง=a *ton* of).

To emphasize the concept being conveyed and to deal with inequality of expressive meanings between the source and the target words, the following strategies are suggested: ‘translation using a more neutral or less expressive word (e.g. ผัวเมีย=The Mr. and Mrs.)’, ‘using more specific words (e.g. แก้ผ้า=get naked)’, and ‘using a more intensely expressive word (e.g. งอน=mad)’. For instance, when the expressive meaning of the source-word cannot be equally transferred to the target language, the translators can turn to employ the lexical representative which might carry higher or lesser expressive or other associative meanings, or else employ ones that are much more specific. By these tactics, the conveying concept can be more understandably visualized though the levels of other associative meanings might be transferred differently.

The set of strategies assisting in clarifying and drawing more visuals to the conveying concept are those of ‘addition of information’, ‘addition plus a loan word’, ‘use of hyperbole’, ‘use of onomatopoeia’, ‘use of a metaphor’, and ‘ use of simile’. The information which is added to the translation and uses of figurative senses, e.g. หมา=<u>a homeless</u> dog; พี่อ้อยพี่ฉอด=<u>DJ</u> Aoy-Chod, หมึกกระดึ๊บ=<u>dancing</u> octopus, อะจึ๋ยๆ=Click, หูกาง=<u>Donkey ears</u>, and ติ๋มๆ=<u>like</u> a nerd, help to cleanse the hindering wall of understanding towards the conveying concept. By these strategies, the target audience might better be able to mentally and cognitively draw their comprehension. Moreover, to avoid repetitively using the same words in rendering the same or nearly the same communicating concept throughout the translation, the translators might give significant attention to the use of synonyms or else omission (e.g. *‘honey’* and *‘baby’* for the source-word *‘ตัวเอง’* and *‘fluttered Ø’* as a combined unit of thought for the source word *‘สะบัดพลิ้วไสว’*). In respect of these examples, it can be seen that borrowing other nearly equivalent terms or else elimination was played in the translation when a wall of the same lexical usage was repetitively found.

Lacking equivalent specificity in the target language, using a more general word can come into use. Though the same sense and picture conveyed by the specific-source-word cannot be certainly rendered to the target language word, the communicating concept can still be understandable by the larger extent of meaning extensively covered by a superordinate (e.g. ผัด= cook). The last strategy which seems to be nowadays infrequently employed in most genres of translation is ‘literal translation’. Even though it sometimes causes no significance in the translation and possibly leaves great doubt in the target language audience (especially for the two language communities having distinctive cultural backgrounds as in the case of ‘ปัญญาควาย = buffalo brain’), the use of this strategy considerably gives respect to the culture, belief, and ways of interpreting things of the source language and its users.

Conclusion

This study provides explicit evidence that a number of strategies were used in tackling the translation problem of non-equivalence found in the English subtitles of the Thai movie ‘Hello Stranger’. Regarding the lesson gained from this research analysis, it comes to mind that which translation strategy is to be employed largely depends on a great number of factors such as text type being investigated and its specific restrictions, authority of other parties beyond the translator, aims of translation, authorial style of the translator, the target audience, and so forth.

Hence, it is the duty of the translator to select appropriate strategies for his particular translation and to weigh a myriad of specific restrictions as the aforementioned so as to efficiently render communicating messages of the source language as equivalently as possible to the target language and its audience.

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APPENDIX

Appendix: This table illustrates an analysis of the translation strategies used in the subtitling of the whole picture.

<table>
<tr><th>No.</th><th>Source Language</th><th>Target Language</th><th>Context</th><th>Type of Non-Equivalence</th><th>Translation Strategy Used</th></tr>
<tr><td>1</td><td>[เพลง] จึ๊ด</td><td>deep</td><td>The main actress asks if the actor has ever listened to the song of Paan Thanaporn which she thinks is so beautiful.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td><td rowspan="7">Translation by a more neutral word/less expressive word</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>เจ๋ง</td><td>cool</td><td>The main actor does not think that the performance of doing somersaults of the acrobat in the show which the main actress has just watched is impressive.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>กิ๊ก</td><td>a new guy</td><td>The actress reprimands the actor for butting in on her business. So, the main actor says that he is not interested in the matter whether she visits Korea to commit adultery.</td><td>TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>แก๊งค์รีดไถ</td><td>scam artist</td><td>The actress misunderstands that the actor might be a scammer when he constantly walks after her.</td><td>TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)</td></tr>
<tr><td>5</td><td>คอยดู</td><td>check (this) out</td><td>The actor asks the actress to wait and see whether his words are true that they can say anything they want to say while staying in other countries.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td></tr>
<tr><td>6</td><td>โคตร (ครั้งที่1)</td><td>hella (1st time)</td><td>This scene is when both the actor and the actress get drunk and the actor sees the actress’s ears. He expresses his opinion in the way that indicates he is shocked by her colossal ears.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td></tr>
<tr><td>7</td><td>โคตร (ครั้งที่2)</td><td>extremely (2nd time)</td><td>This scene is already mentioned. The main actress asks if the actor has ever listened to the song sung by Paan Thanaporn which she thinks sounds extremely beautiful.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td></tr>
</table>

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
8	งอน (ครั้งที่1)	be upset (1st time)	The main actor pretends to be the metal sculpture, Bae Yong Jun, of which the actress is taking photos. To amuse the actress, he acts by talking to another sculpture nearby asking the female statue not to be angry at his actions for having to have his photos taken with other girls.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	
9	งี่เง่า	so stupid	After the main actress' boyfriend knows the truth that she lies to him about travelling to Korea alone without Meow, her friend, like she told him, he scolds and criticizes the main actress for her habits that he has endured for so long. This is one of her habits.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	
10	ชิล	alright	The actor expresses his opinions towards the island Nami that they both are visiting that it is OK to visit.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	Translation by a more neutral word/less expressive word
11	ดิ้น	alive	The main actor is offered the dish of the long thin moving parts of the octopus by the restaurant owner. And he refuses to eat this moving creature at the beginning by saying that it is still moving.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	
12	แดก	eat	The main actor tries to prove his words that when staying in other countries they (the main actor and actress) can say anything since no one understands what they are saying in their native language. And when he says that the food of the restaurant owner is so bad that even a dog cannot eat, the restaurant owner, accordingly, doesn't understand that it is disapproving.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	

<table>
<tr><th>No.</th><th>Source Language</th><th>Target Language</th><th>Context</th><th>Type of Non-Equivalence</th><th>Translation Strategy Used</th></tr>
<tr><td>13</td><td>ตรงๆ</td><td>really</td><td>The actress asks the actor that they should not expose each other’s names because if they know each other, they might not be able to say what is really on their minds.</td><td>Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms.</td><td rowspan="7">Translation by a more neutral word/less expressive word</td></tr>
<tr><td>14</td><td>ถีบ</td><td>kick</td><td>The main actor tries to make an excuse for his guilt about kicking the seat of the main actress. He instead puts the blame on the small girl nearby.</td><td>Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective</td></tr>
<tr><td>15</td><td>ทุเรศ</td><td>crazy</td><td>The actress decides not to tell her name to the actor so that he cannot gossip about what stupid things she has done in Korea.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td></tr>
<tr><td>16</td><td>นม</td><td>chest</td><td>The main actor tries to prove the main actress’ words that being her friend he can say anything he wants and she will not get mad. And the main actress says ‘yes’. Therefore, the main actor pretends to revile her with disapproving words. In this case, he teases her for having such a small bust.</td><td>Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective</td></tr>
<tr><td>17</td><td>น้ำเน่า (ครั้งที่1)</td><td>corny (1st time)</td><td>The main actor does not understand why people like watching Korean TV/drama series containing stereotyped plots which he thinks are so boring.</td><td>Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL.</td></tr>
<tr><td>18</td><td>น้ำเน่า (ครั้งที่2)</td><td>cheesy (2nd time)</td><td>Similarly, when the actress says countering his opinions that those Korean series are indeed romantic. The actor so concludes that women always cannot differentiate which is romantic and which is clichéd.</td><td>Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL.</td></tr>
<tr><td>19</td><td>ปี๊ด</td><td>be mad</td><td>The main actor thinks that it is hard to guess women’s heart and thoughts. If one says anything that contrasts their opinion, most women normally get mad.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td></tr>
</table>

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
20	ผัว	husband	After the main actress guides the actor the way to his hotel very elaborately, the actor then questions if she has a Korean man as her husband when considering her extremely detailed directions.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	Translation by a more neutral word/less expressive word
21	ผัวเมีย	the Mr. and Mrs.	The main actor asks the actress whom the two sculptures on Nami Island represent and if they are the couple owners of the island.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	
22	ฟาด	to bone	As already mentioned, the actress reprimands the actor for butting in on her business. So, the actor says that he does not care if she visits Korea to commit adultery or have harsh sex with anyone.	Differences in expressive meaning	
23	แม่ง	really	The main actress boasts that the main actor indeed misses the gorgeous show she has watched.	Culture-specific concept	
24	ระบาย	talk	The main actress says that when away from Thailand, she has no one to relieve her feelings to like she always does there.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	
25	สมองเฝื่อน	brainless	After the main actress' boyfriend breaks up with her and scolds her badly, she scolds him back with a number of offensive expressions. This is one of those.	Differences in expressive meaning	
26	หนีเที่ยว	travelling	After the actress asks what kind of a person the actor is regarding his action in teasing the restaurant owner so badly, the actor retorts back by saying that it is not also kind of a good person for lying and sneaking to travel alone like the actress is doing.	Differences in expressive meaning	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
27	สยิวกิ้ว	so sexy	When the main actor pretends to be the male sculpture, he also pretends to say that he is now falling in love with himself (Bae) and so feels sexually disgusted.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL, Differences in expressive meaning	Translation by a more neutral word/less expressive word
28	เพ้อเจ้อ	ridiculous	The actress relates a story to the actor that when she mentions her desire in getting undressed in falling snow to her boyfriend, her boyfriend says this idea is nonsense.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL, Differences in expressive meaning	
29	(เข่า) ด้าน	ashy (knees)	As mentioned, the main actor tries to prove the main actress' words that being her friend he can say anything he wants and she will not get mad. When the main actress says 'yes', he pretends to revile her with disapproving expressions. In this case he teases her for having unimpressive knees.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	Translation by cultural substitution
30	(รสชาติ) เหี้ย (ครั้งที่3)	sucks (3rd time)	As mentioned, the main actor teases the restaurant owner by pretending to say that his food is so delicious but in fact he says it is damned awful.	Culture-specific concept	
31	(ศอก) ดำ	dirty (elbows)	As mentioned, the actor tries to prove the main actress' words that being her friend he can say anything he wants and she will not get mad. So, he pretends to revile her with critical expressions. In this case, he teases her for having unimpressive elbows	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	
32	ตัวแม่	bull's eyes	The actor has just scolded people for being crazy about Korean series; however, he then finds out he is scolding the actress who is hugging the sculpture of the protagonist.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
33	ตุ๊ด	Toosie film title	The main actress is challenging the main actor to eat the whole octopus to prove his manhood. When the main actor is hesitating, the main actress teases him and arouses his courage by pretending to guess if he is chicken-hearted gay.	Differences in expressive meaning	
34	ม.3	9th grade	The main actor relates his love story when he was a teenager aged around fifteen to the main actress. The level of study can be compared across cultures.	Culture-specific concept	
35	ลัง	(a) ton (of)	The main actress is dumped and severely scolded by her boyfriend. She, therefore, scolds back and vents what has been smoldering in her mind, especially a great number of things she has wanted to do. This expression (the source-word) is one of her desires—drinking a wooden crate of cola.	Culture-specific concept	Translation by cultural substitution
36	หมึกแดง	Martha Stewart	While the main actress is leading the way for the main actor to the target hotel, she is having some food. When the actor sees it, he complains about her deeds similar to the actions of eating and criticizing food of the well-known gourmet of Thailand, McDang.	Culture-specific concept	
37	เหล้า	Soju	The main actress challenges the actor to eat the living moving octopus and she will drink a glass of Korean liquor in return.	Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms	
38	เหี้ย (ครั้งที่1)	the hell (1st time)	The main actor is talking on the phone with his friend badly complaining to his friend for writing on his forehead while being drunk.	Culture-specific concept , SL and TL make distinctions in meaning	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
39	เหี้ย [ญ:ถุยกาแฟร้อน] (ครั้งที่2)	shit (2nd time)	The main actress is admiring the beauty of the surroundings of the Coffee Prince shop she is visiting. So, she does not know that the coffee served to her is so hot. She, therefore, exclaims as this.	Culture-specific concept , SL and TL make distinctions in meaning	Translation by cultural substitution
40	ชิบหาย	damn it!	The main actor has fallen asleep, and when he wakes up he just realizes that he had made an appointment with the tour for travelling. Immediately, he turns to ask about the time from the main actress who has woken him up unintentionally. When he knows the exact time, he is shocked and then exclaims as in the source-word.	Culture-specific concept , SL and TL make distinctions in meaning	
41	ไอ้ชั่ว	Bastard!	The main actress thinks that the actor raped her while she was drunk. So, she scolds him with a number of cursing words.	Differences in expressive meaning	
42	น้อง	bro [from brother]	A couple joining the same tour with the main actor asks the actor to take their pictures. So, they call him by using this form of address.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective, Differences in expressive meaning	
43	ไอ้เลว	Asshole!	This is the same context in which the main actress thinks that the actor raped her while she was drunk. So, this cursing word is what she scolds him with.	Differences in expressive meaning, Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
44	กิมจิ	Kimchi	The tour group except the main actor is taking a photo together. They all say this source-word while posing.	Using loan words in the SL	Translation using a loan word or a loan word plus explanation
45	(บ่อน) ปอยเปต	Poipet	The main actress asks the actor if he has ever seen real snow. The actor says no since the farthest place he has ever been to is just the casino in this town.		
46	ก้อย [ชื่อคน]	Goi	The main actor tries to call his ex-girlfriend so as to reconcile with her. He phones her and calls her name.		
47	คอฟฟี่ปริ้นซ์	the Coffee Prince	The main actress reaches the coffee shop which is the same place as in the series she likes watching.		
48	จา จั้ง เหมี่ยน	ja-jang-myeon	The main actor is offered a traditional Korean dish by the Korean family; it is called like this.		
49	ด่าง	Darng (it means puppy)	The main actress is introducing the main actor to the Korean family by assumedly naming him ‘Darng’. The actor accepts and then asserts his invented name to the family as in the source-word.		
50	แดจังกึม	Dae Jang-geum	The main actor tries to tell the Korean family that he also knows Korean stars like this well-known cook.		
51	เมย์ [ชื่อคน]	"May"	The actor asks the main actress to tell her name but she asks the main actor to guess. So, the actor guesses her name as this.		
52	โรแมนติก	romantic	Once the actress reaches the coffee shop, she records a video expressing her feelings towards the environment of that real place.		

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
53	วอน	Won	The main actress asks for her money back which she throws on the actor's face by thinking that he might be a robber. The actor teases her by saying that that amount of money is so little.	Using loan words in the SL	Translation using a loan word or a loan word plus explanation
54	เหมียว [ชื่อคน]	Meow	The main actress tells her boyfriend she is in a hurry since she has to attend the show with her friend (this source-word name) right now but in fact she does not.		
55	เฮิร์ต	hurt	The main actress retorts to the main actor in peeping her photos with her boyfriend by saying that a man like him (the main actor) undoubtedly has not got a girlfriend. Then, the actor says that he also has one but has just broken up with the girl. The main actress, therefore, teases him back by asking if he hurts.		
56	(ดูซีรี่ย์ให้) ตาแฉะ	all night long	As aforementioned, the main actress scolds back and relieves what has been repressed in her mind, especially the wishes she has wanted to realize in her life. This expression shows her desire in watching the Korean series all night.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	Translation by paraphrase using an unrelated word
57	น้ำตาแตก	that make you cry	As mentioned, the main actor does not understand being a big fan of Korean series, watching soap dramas and crying a river.	Differences in expressive meaning	
58	ไปกันใหญ่	getting way out of land	As mentioned, once the main actress sees the actor following her, she, in shock, expresses that the actor is a criminal. So, the actor says she is going too far.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
59	รองพื้น	put a blush on	The main actress is reviewing the lyric of the song that she thinks is so beautiful to the actor. One line of the lyric is sung that although women do not know about the cosmetics, they still put on a little make-up on their face.	SL and TL make distinctions in meaning	
60	แรด	act slutty	This scene is already mentioned. The main actress scolds back and relieves what has been repressed in her mind, especially the wishes she has wanted to make happen in her life. This expression shows her desire in making herself sexually attractive to the opposite sex, dressing in a way such that the body is largely revealed, and/or having many sexual partners	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	
61	อึ้ง	I had you going there.	After the main actor has teased the main actress by making up his untrue love story, the main actress mocks him back lying that she has aborted her children. After that, she reveals the truth in teasing him and she also mocks him by saying that she could make him shocked and fall silent (the source-word also shows his manner.)	SL word is semantically complex	Translation by paraphrase using an unrelated word
62	แอ๊บแบ๊ว [ถ่ายรูป]	strike a pose	As mentioned, the main actor pretends to be the metal sculpture, Bae Yong Jun. He acts and expresses a number of expressions to amuse and entertain the actress. When he persuades the main actress to take a picture with him (the personalized sculpture), he says this source-word at the time of posing.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
63	โบ๊ะ (แป้ง)	freshen up	This is the aforementioned scene. The main actor pretends to be the metal sculpture, Bae Yong Jun, of which the actress is taking photos. To amuse the actress, he acts and expresses a number of expressions; he (Bae) says he asks to put some make-up on his face before having his photo taken.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	
64	ผัด	cook	As mentioned, the actor is proving his words that when staying in other countries they can say anything since no one would understand what they are saying in their native language. So, he pretends to admire the food of the restaurant owner, but in fact badly criticizes him, saying that it is like the owner cooks vomit for him to eat.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	
65	เค้า (ครั้งที่2)	I (2nd time)	After the main actress's boyfriend knows the truth that the main actress travels to Korea alone, he is very angry. So, the actress is trying to give the real reason that she wants to attend her friend's wedding.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	Translation by a more general word (superordinate)
66	สายเดี่ยว	sexy tank top	The actor is relating the accounts of his first love when he was 15 to the main actress. He describes the appearance and characteristics of his ex-teenage-girlfriend. This is the type of clothing she always wore.	TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)	
67	อีบ้า	jerk	The actress is talking to her friend, Meow, on the phone so as to remind Meow that her boyfriend only knows that Meow accompanied her to Korea. Meow teases her, so she replies with this joshing.	Differences in expressive meaning	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
68	ถ่อย	a jerk	The main actor insults other people walking past by with derogatory words, so the actress scolds him back with this expression for rudely ruining others.	SL word is semantically complex, Differences in expressive meaning	Translation by a more general word (superordinate)
69	(ลมตี) พึบพับๆ	no translation	As mentioned, the actor is describing how the armpit of his ex-teenage-girlfriend is ruffled by the air.	TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)	Translation by omission
70	(หนีเที่ยว) เมืองนอก		The main actress feels amazed about the main actor's daring and traits in greatly teasing the restaurant owner, so she asks what kind of a man he is. The main actor, therefore, asks her back with the same question (what kind of a woman she is by deceiving her boyfriend into thinking she is traveling alone.)	Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms	
71	เค้า (ครั้งที่1)		The main actress' real boyfriend is asking if she drinks alcohol. She is not good at lying, so she admits she just drinks a bit.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	
72	จึ๊ดๆ [เสียงไฟช็อต]		As mentioned, the main actress is narrating the story shown in the play she has just attended with the main actor. This expression is how the actress illustrates the action that the protagonist is electrocuted.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	
73	พลิ้วไสว		As mentioned, the main actor relates his ex-girlfriend's appearances to the main characters. One of those was to have very long armpit hair and this expression narrates the manner of the girl's armpit hair when being blown about by the air.	TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
74	อี (หนวด)		The main actor tries to prove the main actress' words that being her friend he can say anything he wants and she will not get mad. And the main actress says 'yes'. Therefore, the main actor pretends to revile her with impolite and vulgar words. In this case he teases her for having a beard.	Culture-specific concept	Translation by omission
75	คล้อง (กุญแจ) (ครั้งที่1)	turns the keys together on their locks (1st time)	The tour guide is informing the travellers if a couple locks the keys together at that place, no one will separate them.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	Translation by paraphrase using a related word
76	ตลอด	every single day	As mentioned, the actress' boyfriend is revealing the truth of being unable to be tolerant of the habits of the main actress. One of those is that she always causes troubles for him.	Differences in expressive meaning	
77	เมรัย [สมญานามชื่อคน]	For "May" the drunkenness be with you	The actor asks the actress to say her name but the actress asks him to guess instead. The main actor, then, guesses the name of the actress in amusing and teasing ways that she is a kind of drunken girl.	Culture-specific concept	
78	สมองหมา	smell of dog	As mentioned, the main actor tries to prove the main actress' words that for being her friend, he can say anything he wants and she will not get mad. These are some of his vulgar teasing words.	Differences in expressive meaning	
79	หูอื้อ	your ears hurt	The actress' boyfriend is asking her if she takes chewing gum with her before boarding the plane. The actress, then, asks the reason for taking it. So, her boyfriend replies the reason for taking it is to save her ears.	SL and TL make distinctions in meaning	

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
80	แก้ผ้า	get naked	The actress is asking the actor if he sees real snow for the first time what he will do. After the actor replies, he asks the actress the same question. This expression illustrates her need.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	Translation by a more specific word
81	ขาสั้น	stubby legs	As mentioned, the actor is proving the actress' words that he can say anything he wants and she will not get mad. The actor, then, pretends to scold her with this insulting expression.	Differences in expressive meaning	
82	คล้อง (กุญแจ) (ครั้งที่2)	hooked (2nd time)	The actress is locking the key abiding by a Korean belief of being together with a lover forever. While doing that, she is narrating her action of locking the key to her boyfriend via the phone.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	
83	น้อง	sweetie	As mentioned, the actor tries to make an excuse for his guilt at kicking the seat of the actress. He instead puts the blame on the small girl nearby.	Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective	
84	งอน (ครั้งที่2)	be mad (2nd time)	As mentioned, the actor pretends to be the metal sculpture, Bae Yong Jun. To amuse the actress, he acts by talking to another sculpture nearby asking the female statue not to be angry at his actions for saying that he loves everyone.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	Translation by using a more intensely expressive word
85	ปัญญาอ่อน (ครั้งที่ 1)	idiotic (1st time)	Once the actress' boyfriend knows the truth that she lies to him about travelling to Korea alone without her friend, which is what she told him, he scolds the main actress with a series of impolite expressions. One of those is this expression.	Differences in expressive meaning	

<table>
<tr><th>No.</th><th>Source Language</th><th>Target Language</th><th>Context</th><th>Type of Non-Equivalence</th><th>Translation Strategy Used</th></tr>
<tr><td>86</td><td>ปัญญาอ่อน (ครั้งที่ 2)</td><td>stupid (2nd time)</td><td>As the above scene, the actress’ boyfriend is revealing the truth of getting bored with the actress. He scolds her with this disapproving expression.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td><td rowspan="2">Translation by using a more intensely expressive word</td></tr>
<tr><td>87</td><td>แรง [แบบแรงส์]</td><td>X-rated!</td><td>This is the aforementioned scene in which the main actress is asking the actor if he sees real snow for the first time what he will do. Once the actress expresses her need in stripping off in the falling snow, the main actor feels a bit shocked and produces this expression.</td><td>Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL</td></tr>
<tr><td>88</td><td>ตัวเอง (ครั้งที่1)</td><td>honey (1st time)</td><td>The main actress calls her boyfriend dropping her at the airport so as to say goodbye before boarding.</td><td>Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective</td><td rowspan="2">Translation by using a synonym</td></tr>
<tr><td>89</td><td>ตัวเอง (ครั้งที่2)</td><td>baby (2nd time)</td><td>This scene is already mentioned. The main actress is locking the key abiding by a Korean belief of being together with a lover forever. While she is doing that, the main actress calls her boyfriend narrating this action to him.</td><td>Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective</td></tr>
<tr><td>90</td><td>ทัดดาวบุษยา [ชื่อละคร]</td><td>a Thai soap "Thaddowbusaya"</td><td>The main actor expresses his critical opinions towards Korean series which he deems crazy as all the movies carry stereotyped plots. When he exemplifies some stereotyped plot which is actually a Thai soap opera, the actress corrects his speech by saying that is the plot of the Thai drama named as in the source-word.</td><td>Culture-specific concept</td><td>Translation by addition plus a loan word</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th>No.</th><th>Source Language</th><th>Target Language</th><th>Context</th><th>Type of Non-Equivalence</th><th>Translation Strategy Used</th></tr>
<tr><td>91</td><td>พี่อ้อยพี่ฉอด</td><td>DJ Aoy-Chod</td><td>After the main actor relates his love story when he was a teenager to the main actress, the actress then bemoans and relates her case of being dumped by her boyfriend via cellphone. And there is no one whom she can talk and consult with, so she thinks back to the persons to whom she frequently talks when she has love problems.</td><td>Using loan words in the SL</td><td>Translation by addition plus a loan word</td></tr>
<tr><td>92</td><td>เตี้ย</td><td>dwarf</td><td>After the main actress is dumped by her boyfriend, she then relieves her mental torment by shouting out. This source-word is her expressive relief, cursing the appearance of her boyfriend.</td><td>Differences in expressive meaning</td><td rowspan="2">Translation by using metaphor</td></tr>
<tr><td>93</td><td>หูกาง</td><td>donkey ears</td><td>As mentioned, the actor tries to prove the actress’ words that for being her friend he can say anything he wants. So, the actor teases her by expressing pejorative words as in this source-word.</td><td>TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)</td></tr>
<tr><td>94</td><td>(หมึก) กระดึ๊บ</td><td>dancing</td><td>This is the aforementioned context in which the main actress is challenging the main actor to eat the octopus’ moving legs offered by the restaurant owner so as to prove his manhood.</td><td>TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)</td><td>Translation by using hyperbole</td></tr>
<tr><td>95</td><td>หมา</td><td>a homeless dog</td><td>After the actor guesses the actress’s name in a disapproving way, the actress takes revenge by pretending to guess his name back, as well, in a negative way (meaning a vagrant). Then, she gives reasons for naming him that he is like a dog sleeping on the street after getting drunk.</td><td>Difference in physical or interpersonal perspective</td><td>Translation by addition of information</td></tr>
</table>

No.	Source Language	Target Language	Context	Type of Non-Equivalence	Translation Strategy Used
96	อะจึ๋ยๆ (ถ่ายรูป)	click	This scene is already mentioned. The main actor pretends to be the metal sculpture, Bae Yong Jun. He acts and expresses a number of expressions to amuse and entertain the actress. When he persuades the main actress to take a picture with him (the personalized sculpture), he says this source-word at the time of posing.	Concept in SL is not simply lexicalized in TL	Translation by using onomatopoeia
97	(แว่น) ติ๋มๆ	like a nerd	The main actress is relating the story about the show she has just watched alone in the theater to the main actor. This source-phrase is how she describes the physical appearances (wearing glasses) of the protagonist in the play.	SL word is semantically complex,	Translation by using simile (i.e. like, as)
98	ปัญญาควาย	buffalo brain	This scene is already mentioned. The main actor says this vulgar derogatory source-word so as to prove the main actress' words that for being her friend he can then say anything he wants to say, and she will not get angry.	Differences in expressive meaning	Literal translation

A Contrastive Study of English and Persian Double Object Construction

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Abstract

Contrastive Analysis was used extensively in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some features of the second language are more difficult to acquire than others. As English is a popular second language in Iranian society, it has always been targeted by researchers to be analyzed in contrast with Persian language. The aim of this paper was to investigate whether Iranian students had any difficulty using English double object constructions. To do the study, a translation test was administered inclusive of 18 sentences containing verbs with double object arguments. Thereupon, 20 EFL B.A. students and 20 EFL A.A. students were randomly chosen and were asked to translate the Persian sentences into English. The percentage of errors on each verb category as well as the errors on preposition use was calculated. As a result the plausible reasons behind the probable causes of errors were given and the source of errors, whether interlingual or intralingual was accounted. It is also inferred from the result that a great majority of Iranian students had difficulty using these constructions. It was also known that a large number of errors were due to interference or interlingual errors.

Keywords: double object construction, avoidance error, interlingual error, intralingual error

Introduction

Learning a foreign language is a life-time procedure which requires years of constant practice. It is by no means a straightforward process which can be mastered quickly, because there are always new areas, aspects and registers for the learner to master. One of the problematic areas in which students are often faced with is how to deal with double object constructions. These constructions can be classified into 4 categories which are as follows:

1. (verb + indirect object + direct object) or (verb + direct object + *to* + object)

$\frac{\text{My father}}{\text{Subject}}$ often $\frac{\text{gives}}{\text{Verb}}$ $\frac{\text{me}}{\text{I.O.}}$ $\frac{\text{a gift}}{\text{D.O.}}$ or $\frac{\text{My father}}{\text{Subject}}$ often $\frac{\text{gives}}{\text{Verb}}$ $\frac{\text{a giftt}}{\text{D.O.}}$ to $\frac{\text{me}}{\text{O}}$

2. (verb + direct object + to +object)

$\frac{\text{He}}{\text{Subject}}$ $\frac{\text{explained}}{\text{Verb}}$ $\frac{\text{his idea}}{\text{D.O.}}$ to $\frac{\text{us}}{\text{O.}}$

3. (verb + indirect object + direct object)or (verb + direct object + *for* + object)

$\frac{\text{John}}{\text{Subject}}$ usually $\frac{\text{buys}}{\text{Verb}}$ $\frac{\text{Mary}}{\text{I.O.}}$ $\frac{\text{a gift}}{\text{D.O.}}$ or $\frac{\text{John}}{\text{Subject}}$ usually $\frac{\text{buys}}{\text{Verb}}$ $\frac{\text{a gift}}{\text{D.O.}}$ for $\frac{\text{Mary}}{\text{O.}}$

4. (verb + indirect object + direct object)

$\frac{\text{I}}{\text{Subject}}$ $\frac{\text{asked}}{\text{Verb}}$ $\frac{\text{Mary}}{\text{I.O.}}$ $\frac{\text{a question}}{\text{D.O.}}$

When learners intend to communicate, they might choose among different categories but the point is that they might not utilize the same structure in the same situation. Each learner has his/her own choice of word which can be mostly influenced by his/her background knowledge of language, structures of his/her mother tongue and the complexity in the structures of the target language. This develops a tendency towards a learner's preference in selecting a special category while avoiding another and this causes different types of errors. Thereupon, to classify these errors and to be able to find their sources it is good to know that learners generally commit two types of errors; (i) Interlingual Errors, which are those induced by the first language and results from transfer from the mother tongue (L1 interference), and (ii) Intralingual Errors, which are errors committed by second language learners regardless of their first language. Such errors are believed to deal with the strategies that second language learners adopt [4]; they are the consequence of complexity of structures of second language. There is another point which might mislead the researchers and is called the "Avoidance Error" that is when learners avoid utilizing a specific structure not because they have tendency to use another structure but because they don't know how to utilize it.

hypothesis of the research

1) Iranian students face many difficulties while using double object constructions, especially those having alternative structures.
2) Iranian students commit error of avoidance while dealing with double object structures missing in Persian.
3) Most errors are interlingual errors rather than intralingual ones.

Review of literature

Contrastive Analysis (CA) actually started with the famous statement of Charles Fries [3]: "The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner". Robert Lado [5] coined the term CA for the first time: "Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their NL and culture to the FL and culture, both productively when attempting to speak the language and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language… as practiced by natives". He further emphasized that "those elements that are similar to the native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult." Corder [1] emphasizes the significance of Error Analysis. He believes that "Error analysis is significant in three aspects: it will tell the language teacher what needs to be taught; it will tell the researcher how learning proceeds; and it is a means whereby learners test their hypotheses about the L2.

According to Richards [7] "In the speech or writing of a second or foreign language, error is the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, grammatical item, speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete." "Error analysis deals with the learners' performance in terms of the cognitive processes they make use of in recognizing or coding the input they receive from the target language. Therefore, a primary focus of error analysis is on the evidence that learners' errors provide with an understanding of the underlying process of second language acquisition". [2]

Methodology

The claim that the best language-teaching materials are based on a contrast of two competing linguistic systems has long been a popular one in language teaching [8]. In order to provide the required data for this study a proficiency test [6] was administered among 40 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students (20 A.A. students and 20 B.A. students) who were randomly selected from Islamic Azad University of Zanjan, Science and Research Branch, Iran.

The test consisted of 30 vocabulary items, 30 reading comprehension items and 30 written items. Regarding their background English knowledge it is good to mention that, they were mostly from similar academic backgrounds, i.e. they have all participated in English classes at school for about 6 years and all of them have passed at least four semesters at university. The scores gained from the proficiency test distributed among the students ranked from 30 to 55 out of 90. Accordingly 20 students (10 A.A. students and 10 B.A. students) were selected as the participants of this study based on their scores. In order to explicitly compare and contrast the linguistic systems of these two languages (first and second language of the students), the best choice was to administer a second test. To check the students' performance in English sentences using double object verbs, a translation test was the best choice, so that learners encountered the sentences with double object verb arguments and they were forced to choose from specific structures. They were asked to translate 18 different Persian sentences into English. This was followed by the classification of the errors of the students based on their frequency and sources of errors, whether they are interlingual or intralingual.

Result and discussion

The major errors committed by almost 50 to 70 percent of all the students are presented below. It has been attempted to provide an explanation why the errors have emerged:

Category (1)

* Mary **sent** *for* John a nice shirt.	*He was **teaching** English *for* the students.
*Ali **brought** a gift *for* Reza.	*Company **offered** a good job *for* me.
*He **brought** a glass *for* me.	*I **wrote** a letter *for* Maryam.

Explanation:

As it is crystal clear, the verbs in this category can be used in two different structures:

Mary sent a gift to Reza.
Mary sent Reza a gift.

The erroneous sentences above are mostly ascribed to the negative transfer or interference from L1 . For example, in the following sentence of Persian, which is a SOV language, the verb "bring" needs the preposition "for" not "to". That's why the students tended to use "for" instead.

Mari	hediei	**bæraye**	Reza	Aværd
Mary	a gift	**for**	Reza	Bring (3rd, sing, past)

'Mary sent a book to Reza'

It is also necessary to add that almost everyone in this group avoided using the second alternative structures which is all missing in Persian. That is, they avoided using 'Mary sent Reza a gift'.

Category (2)

*He **explained** the points *for* the students.	*I **mentioned** the story *for* my mother.
*Ali **described** the house *for* teacher.	*Workers **delivered** us the furniture.
*I **explained** the story *for* Ali.	

Explanation:
The verbs in this category can be used only in one structure, the structure with the preposition "to". That is, direct objects precede indirect objects and the preposition "to" separates them. For instance:

He **explained** the points to the students.

These erroneous sentences (except the last one) are made because of the negative transfer from L1. In Persian, the verbs "explain", "deliver", "describe", and "mention" are in need of "for" as a preposition:

?u	nokat ra	**bæraye**	daneshjooyan	tozih dad
He	points+ obj. marker	**for**	students	explain (3rd, sing, past)

'He explained the points to the students'

That is, the students made up the sentences under the influence of their L1 (Persian). The last one can be called an intralingual error. The students made errors not because of L1, but the complexity of L2 (English). They had grasped some grammatical rules of English but their knowledge was not sufficient at that time.

Category (3)

*I made a cake *for* he.

Explanation:
In this category, the verbs such as "make", "buy", and "fix" can be used in two structures:

I made a cake *for* him.
I made him a cake.

Having thoroughly studied the data in this category, we came up with fewer errors in comparison to other categories. In Persian these verbs are used in only one structure and with the preposition "for":

mœn	**bœraye**	?u	keyk	dorost kœrdœm
I	**for**	him	cake	make (1st, sing, past)

'I made a cake for him'

Hence, almost everybody used "for" as a preposition. The only error which was committed was avoidance. That is, the students avoided using the second alternative "I made him a cake", since it was missing in Persian.

Category (4)

*She asked many questions *from* John.
*He charged $ 2000 *from* me.
*It cost $1000 *for* me.

Explanation:

In this category, verbs such as “ask”, “charge”, and “cost” are used only in one structure; indirect objects precede direct objects and no prepositions are needed:
She asked John many questions.
In Persian, these verbs are used with the preposition “for” and “from”. So, taking the above-mentioned erroneous sentences into consideration, the reason why they were committed can be clearly explained: Because of the negative transfer from L1:

?u	so’al haye	ziadi	**œz**	mœn	porsid
he	question(Pl)	many	**from**	me	ask
					(3rd, sing, past)

‘He asked me many questions’

?an	**bœraye**	mœn	1000 dollar	xœrʤ bœrdaʃt
it	**for**	me	1000 $	cost
				(3rd, sing, past)

‘It cost me 1000 $’

It is necessary to add that Iranian students tend to use double object constructions with prepositions, for all two-argument verbs in Persian require a direct object, followed by a preposition, preceding indirect object. That is the construction of double object construction without preposition is missing in Persian. Hence, about 77.5 percent of all the sentences made up by the students included preposition. In order to shed more light onto the matter, errors made by both groups are tabulated. In the tables below, types of errors are also given.

Conclusion

To sum up, the percentage of errors according to the sources of errors is summarized in the following table:

TABLE I: PERCENTAGE OF ERRORS OF TWO GROUPS

Group1		**Group 2**	
Errors	**Percentage**	**Errors**	**Percentage**
Inter-lingual	57.7%	Inter-lingual	54.3%
Intra-lingual	10.5%	Intra-lingual	11.7%
Avoidance	22.3%	Avoidance	24.5%
Other Errors	9.5%	Other Errors	9.5%
Total Errors	100%	Total Errors	100%

As can be seen, most errors are regarded as interlingual. Interlingual errors are ranked first and avoidance errors second; whereas a low percentage of errors were attributed to intralingual ones. Therefore, errors are indispensable part of language learning. Based on the first hypothesis, Iranian students have many difficulties using double object constructions. According to the second hypothesis, both groups avoided using certain structures due to their absence in L1. And lastly, Interlingual errors were much more than the intralingual ones; that is, 57.7 % to 10.5 % in group 1, and 54.3 % to 11.7 % in group 2. In order to help the students to eradicate those interlingual errors, we think, it is the responsibility of teachers to make up their lesson plans in such a way that through deductive method, expose the students to these double constructions and upgrade their understanding of these constructions.

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Focalization and Focus Representations in Persian

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Abstract

The term 'focus' has always been a great source for debates among linguists. What is 'focus' and how it is represented in languages have been a great concern for both formalists and functionalists. Though a functional term, Formalists struggle to illustrate it in tree diagrams. Some Information Structuralists believe it to be having new information while the rest of the sentence is supposed to bear old information. This article aims to study focalization in general and its representations in particular. Focalization is represented in three different strategies or tools. These strategies comprise syntactic, morphological, and phonological tools. This article attempts to illustrate these three different tools in Persian and exemplify how constituents can be focalized. The main outcome of this article is that Persian utilizes clefting, pseudo-clefing, and preposing as syntactic tool, focus markers as morphological tool, and heavy stress as phonological tool for focalization.
Index Terms— focus, focalization, focus marker, clefting, pseudo clefting

Introduction

The most prominent/salient constituent in a sentence is the focused element. Any language has definite and different ways to focalize its constituents. One way to focalize a constituent is by tonic stress / heavy stress (Erteschik-Shir, 2007, Karimi 2005). By receiving a heavy stress, constituents can be prominent. This way of being prominent could lead to a sort of focalization called "contrastive focus" or "identificational focus" (Kiss, 1998). Another way of focalization is through the use of focus markers. Attaching to any constituent, these markers can make that element prominent. Different languages such as German (Sennema Skowronek 2008, Muller 1998), Dutch (Bouma et.al, 2007) , Wombon (Erteschik-Shir, 2007), Guruntum, Turkish, Navajo (Otoguro, 2003), Tuki (Roachmont, 1986), and Persian (Oroji, 2012) use focus markers for focalization. And finally languages can use syntactic ways for focalization. Clefting and pseudo-clefting are among the syntactic tools for focalization (Butler 2003, Erteschik-Shir, 2007). Persian benefits from all three ways of focalization (Oroji,2012).

Basic Notions

"Focus is defined as "the semantic component of a pragmatically structured proposition" (Lambrecht
1994:213). Zubizarreta (1998) defines focus as *the non-presuppositional part of the sentence*. Lambrecht distinguished between three types of focus structure: argument focus, predicate focus, and sentence focus. The argument focus (narrow focus) usually extends over one NP constituent(ibid). It is a target of a wh-question: for example:

1) What is John drinking?
He is drinking BEER.

The predicate focus extends over several constituents such as VP:

2) What is John doing? What about John?
He IS DRINKING BEER.

The sentence focus extends over the whole proposition:

3) What happened?
JOHN DIED.

Kiss (1998) made a clear distinction between *information focus* (the same as questions and answers in examples 1, 2, 3 above) and *identificational focus* also called *contrastive focus*. She believes that unlike the information focus which doesn't involve movement and is always present in any sentence, the identificational focus is moved to the specifier of a functional projection and its presence is not necessary in the sentence:

4) A) I heard *your motorcycle* broke down.
B) MY CAR broke done.

Syntactic Tools

Following Givon (1984), Butler (2003) believes that languages use three different tools to represent focus in a sentence: syntactic tool, morphological (particle) tool, and phonological tool. As a syntactic tool, it-cleft and Wh-cleft play a great role in representing focus, specially the contrastive one:

5) It was JOHN who broke the window. [It was not somebody else]
6) What John broke was the WINDOW. [He didn't break the door for example]

Phonological Tools

Following Cinque (1993), Erteschik-Shir (2007) introduced the phonological tool for representing focus. Tonic stress is another tool for making an element prominent. Cinque's introduced the "Nuclear Stress Rule". Cinque's system predicts sentential stress on the 'most deeply embedded' element in the phrase. This accounts, for example, for the sentential stress on the object in both SVO (e.g. English) and SOV (e.g. Persian) in (7)

(7) a. John bought A BOOK.
b. Ali YE KETAB xarid
Ali a book bought-3sg
'Ali bought **a book'**

Morohological Tools

Butler (2003: 171) claims that [morphological] particles are one of the tools for representing focus. Erteschik-Shir (2007: 40) quotes from Dik (1997:335) that in 'Wombon', there is a focus marker (-nde) which makes the wh-word prominent:

8) Jakhov kenonop-**nde**takhim-gende?
They what-**Foc** buy-3pl:pres:final
'**What** do they buy?'

Ryo Otoguro(2003: 369) suggests that there is a clitic "à" in 'Gu□ru□ntu□m', a language spoken in Africa, which is considered as a focus marker. It can focalize V, VP, V arguments, adjuncts and aspect as well:

9) a) **Á** *kã* □□ã màì tí yáb ngwâì? Tí yáb-**à** *dòoróo* ngwâì.
FOC what REL 3SG sell out
b) 3SG sell-**FOC** goat out
'WHAT did he sell?'
'He sold A GOAT.'

Ryo Otoguro (2003) also exemplifies the focus marker "da / de" in Turkish:

10) a) oraya ben **de** gittim
there I **foc** go.past
'I went there too.'

b) ben oraya **da** gittim
I there **foc** go.past
'I went there too (as well as elsewhere).'
c) ben oraya gittim **de**
I there go.past-**foc**
'I also went there.'

Focus in persian

As mentioned earlier in the introduction, Persian can utilize all three tools for focalization.

A. Syntactic Tools

As a scrambling language, Persian has a variety of ways to focalize constituents. Clefting, pseudo-clefting and pre-posing are three main strategies for focalization:

11) **Ali** bud ke šiše ra šekœst {Clefting}
Ali was who window-obj marker broke
'It was **Ali** who broke the window'

12) Anče ke Ali šekœst **šiše** bud { pseudo -clefting}
What Ali broke window was
'What Ali broke was **the window'**

13) **šiše** ro Ali šekœst. {Pre-posing } window-obj marker Ali break (3rd, sing, past)
' **The window** Ali broke'

In example 13, the constituent 'šiše' is preposed together with its grammatical marker 'ra/ro' as object marker to the beginning of the sentence. This preposing is called 'scrambling'.

B. Phonological Tool

The constituent receiving STRESS is the one which is focalized. According to Rasekh Mahand (2003: 136), in Persian, it is possible to focalize an element by using contrastive stress:

14) **ALI** ketab ra be Arya dad. [It was Ali himself not JOHN]
Ali a book to Arya gave-3sg
'It was **Ali** who gave the book to Arya'

15) Ali **KETAB** ra be Arya dad. [not a pen]
Ali **a book** to Arya gave-3sg

'It was **a book** that Ali gave to Arya'

16) Ali ketab ra be **ARYA** dad. [He didn't give it to John]
Ali a book to **Arya** gave-3sg
'It was **Arya** whom Ali gave the book to'

C. Morphological Tools

There are some elements in Persian called 'focus markers'. These elements are "ke", "dige", "axe", "de", "ha/a". Some elements like "axe", "de", "ha/a", and "dige" can be used at the beginning or at the end of a sentence (Oroji, 2012: 84). All the examples given in this part are adapted from a corpus including 165 sentences, taken from 10 Persian film scripts.

17) a) Axe **če** **miše** **goft**
FOC what can say (bare infinitive)
'What can we say'
b) **če** **miše** **goft** axe
What can say (bare infinitive) FOC
'What can we say'

18) a) **beshin** de
sit down (imp) FOC
'Sit down come on!'
b) de **beshin**
FOC sit down (imp)
'Come on sit down'

19) In o be kœsi **nœgi** ha
it- obj marker to anybody not say FOC
'Don't say it to anybody'

20) œge na yoomœd **ye kari mikonim** dige
if not come (3rd sing, present) something do (1st pl, present) FOC
'If he doesn't show up, we'll do something then'

But, "ke" as a focus marker can mark any constituent in a sentence prominent and can be used anywhere:

21) Mæn-**KE** ketab- o be Ali ne-midæm.
I-**FOC** book-obj marker to Ali not give (1st sg, present)
'**I** won't give the book to Ali'

22) Mæn ketab-o-**KE** be Ali ne-midæm.
I book-obj marker- **FOC** to Ali not give (1sg, present)
' I won't give **THE BOOK** to Ali'

23) Mæn ketab- o be Ali- **KE** ne-midæm.
I book-obj marker to Ali-**FOC** won't give(1sg, present)
'I won't give the book to **ALI**'

24) Mæn ketab- o be Ali ne-midæm- **KE**.
I book-obj marker to Ali won't give-1sg-**FOC**
' I won't **GIVE** the book to Ali'

It should be noted that “ke” as a focus marker is used *in situ* and if it is deleted, it will not render the sentence ungrammatical (ibid). Focalization is represented in Persian in

Conclusion

Focalization is represented in Persian in three different ways: phonological (by tonic stress), Morphological (by focus markers), and syntactical (by clefting, pseudo-clefting and scrambling). Focused element is prominent and this prominence mostly results in contrast or contrastive focus. In accordance with the examples given above, focalization in Persian is mainly used to make a contrast or exclude other options in a given sentence.

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Mapping the World: Thomas King's *Green Grass, Running Water* as a Cartographic Novel

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Abstract

Cartography as a field of study has often served as a tool of the colonizer to intrude into the Other's territory and make a lopsided claim of such territory as their own. The Native Peoples of such occupied colonies across the globe have been thrown out of their ancestral places for the simple reason that they never had a map to claim the land as their own. In the contemporary postcolonial atmosphere, such finality of maps is being questioned by the marginal of the world. Moreover, with the onset of globalization, as borders stand to become more and more porous, maps are bound to become lucid and flexible. Both these issues have been well taken up in the American Canadian Cherokee writer Thomas King's brilliant novel *Green Grass, Running Water*. Born in the United States and having spent most of his adult life in Canada, Thomas King is well-equipped to reflect on the transitoriness of all borders. Furthermore, though a Cherokee by birth, King draws his tribal heritage from the Blackfoot of Canada and thus is truly in a borderless space in his cultural milieu.

This paper is an attempt to analyze King's *Green Grass, Running Water* from a cartographic perspective to underscore the importance or the lack thereof of mapping the world and the consequences of such mapping for the Native peoples of the U.S. and Canada. Towards the said purpose, this paper would adopt a postcolonial, postmodernist approach.

The western imperial authority has in the past invented, innovated, circumscribed, doctored, and as a whole constructed the image of the other as per its own convenience and requirement, so as to exercise power through the construction of knowledge. As has been pointed out by critics ranging from Aimé Césaire to Homi Bhaba, the western practice of "Othering" has often been a direct offshoot of their own imperial agenda that demanded justification of the colonization of an-other people by inferiorizing and demonizing them. In such a scenario, visual and textual representations of the Natives have been as far-flung and away from "truth" as they could have been. Hence Bhaba rightly observes that the so-called "necessary fictions" created under the aegis of the hegemonic writers "tragically believed too much in their necessity and too little in their own fictionality" (Bhaba, 1984, p. 97).

To effectuate an accurate representation of their peoples, their traditions, their histories and their worldview, Native writers of the United States and Canada have drawn largely from the postmodernist tools of parody, irony, metafiction, self-reflexivity, subversion and mimicry to name a few. By problematizing the hegemonic discourse and reappropriating their own multiple discourses, Native writers have opened, as Thomas King would tell us, "a whole can of worms… a pretty nasty can of worms" (Lutz, 1991, p. 108). Retelling of the stories of the past as well as present and rewriting of history of the Native world has given rise to a re-presentation of the aboriginal peoples of the land. Writing from a site of resistance and political and cultural appropriation, contemporary Native writers of Canada have come up with the production of an alternative discourse. Addressing the issue of "postcolonial" in Canada, Linda Hutcheon has thus rightly argued that "when Canadian culture is called post-colonial today, the reference is very rarely (at least explicitly) to the native culture, which might be the more accurate historical use of the term" (Vautier, 1996, p.7).

Thomas King is aware of the need to revise the spatial paradigms of the dominant narrative in order to relocate the Native within the land. One of the recurrent images of the text towards this purpose is that of the *map,* thus bringing in the issue of the cartographic discourse which served as a means of colonization (emphasis mine). As a text and a tool of discourse that presumes unknown territory as its own and binds the same within its lop-sided understanding of specificity, the map underlines the abrogatory principles of colonization. Maps are persistently present in *GGRW*-in the realist plot, Native characters like Alberta and Charlie's constant travels, in Eli's keeping hold of his mother's cabin in the midst of a dam project, in A. A. Gabriel's "town map" shown to Thought Woman, in journeys gone awry and so on. But the most obvious reference to a colonialist's use of the map as a tool of "power and control" (King, 1993, p.128) is perhaps found in the white colonialist showroom owner Bursum's "The Map":

The Map. Bursum loved the sound of it. There was a majesty to the name. He stepped back from the screens and looked at *his creation*. It was stupendous. It was more powerful than he had thought. It was like having the universe there on the wall, being able to see everything, being in control (emphasis original) (King, 1993, p.128).

The map as a tool of territorial appropriation has thus resulted in giving "power and control" to the colonialist of whom Bursum is an offspring and thus dispossessed the Natives off their land and their livelihood. By fixing up the Western right on Bursum's Map, the Native elders send a message of cultural reppropriation and survival. By erasing the colonial version of history and superimposing it with a Native view of history and reality, the text achieves the objective of confronting earlier appropriations. By using the map as a writing device, King reappropriates the imperialistic tools to rewrite the history of the land. Further, as an alternative to this colonial tool, King provides certain indigenous practices and observances; one such alternative is found in the SunDance.

It's by remembering the SunDance that, Eli, one of the central characters in *GGRW*, comes back home and performs his Native duty to resist the dam project on Native land, thus protesting a further tampering with the map of his land. Again, it's by getting his face painted and attending the SunDance that Lionel, Eli's nephew and a directionless Native youth finds a direction for his life. By simultaneously entering into and staying away from perceived histories, the four Native spirits fix the map of history, literature and culture. Rejecting the linear, boundaried construct of the Western map and foregrounding the effectivity of the circular pattern even in its narrative structure, the text thus simultaneously displays the importance of Native tradition and confronts the colonial tradition of territorialization. Goldman (1999) has pointed out:

Throughout the novel, the circle and the SunDance, in particular, are offered as alternatives to the map. The importance accorded to the SunDance makes sense only when readers understand that its goal lies in furnishing participants with a map of the universe in which their location is clearly demarcated (p.34).

However, keeping with the Native perception of a community identity and thus the authorial responsibility to keep certain stories untold, King's allusion to the SunDance stops short of giving any intricate details regarding the ceremony to the outside world which may neither aptly understand nor particularly respect the goings on of a Native ceremonial practice. In that sense, King mocks at the early anthropologists' practices of taping Native stories for circulation among non-Natives.

Allusion to past and present histories, subversion of the created images of Natives in the popular culture, revision of colonial tools such as the map, and more such counter-appropriations result in the undermining of the authority of history as it has been known till date and the singularity of "truth" as it has been offered by the colonial discourse, is confronted in *GGRW*. In that sense, King's writing becomes what Hutcheon has put forth as "historiographic metafiction," fiction that is "overtly and resolutely historical … in an ironic and problematic way that acknowledges that history is not the transparent record of any sure 'truth'" (Hutcheon, 1991, p.129). In his comic rewriting of canonical history, King emphasizes the point that "history can be revisited, endings can be rewritten, the letter does not have to be the law." (Linton, 1999, p. 228).

As language and interpretation confront the previous modes of knowledge, humor becomes a handy strategy to configure new stories and appropriate the already existing ones, often serving the cause of resistance and reaction. As the subaltern starts poking fun at the master narratives, their well-demarcated, peripheral, isolated subject positions lose quick ground and the binaries of the centre and the periphery not only get revised but also ought to get redefined. The margin's procurement of a voice then happens, in a subversion of earlier practices, at the cost of the centre. And this 'cost' involves serious retextualization of the earlier discourse as it gets reappropriated by a *parodic gaze* of the margin at the centre (emphasis added). The earlier ideological constructs such as the colonial ruler's maps are taken over by the comic and ironic reinterpretation of these constructs in the hands of the "constructed." This double play of discourse and counter-discourse thus results in a farcical, comical tone in the postmodernist text. Speaking from the postcolonial space, Thomas King, like his contemporary Native authors, frequently plunges into the recourse of humor, parody and irony, often subversive in nature and always unfailingly witty and funny in representation.

The four tricksters that figure in GGRW along with Coyote take help of technology in their "fixing" of the world, their "weapons" being "cars," another symbol of twentieth century tool used to go to places, often those that occur in the map, and on the roads leading to such places. King's choice of the names of the cars also resonates with Columbus's three ships: The Nissan, Pinto and Karman-Ghia that are tricked to the dam allude to the three ships of Columbus- Nina, Pinta and Santa-Maria. That the cars, representative of the contemporary automobile culture can be so easily used up by Native tricksters shows that subversion of even contemporary tools of technology is very much possible for Native tricksters. By using the cars as the weapons for devastating the dam, the tricksters on one hand appropriate technology; on the other hand, they have pitted one imperialistic sign of progress against another, thus creating an intra-discourse confrontation. And the fact that each car is found in a puddle of water before it gets lost points towards the primacy of the water world, and thus the Native worldview over the colonial one and also towards the possibility of the blurring of boundaries in an evolving world. As Brian Johnson (2000) has noted:

By transforming the cars into parodies of the ships that brought disease and conquest to the "New World," the tricksters concentrate a genealogy of Gutenberg technology- from the modern car, back to print media which inform Western imperial exploration – in a single image … (p.34)

As the cars appear, disappear and reappear "as battering rams to destroy the dam" (Goldman, 1999, p.32), Coyote trickery appears even more powerful than the magnificent imperialist icons of progress.

In *GGRW,* stereotypes are produced only to be debunked and appropriated within the textual space. In a subversion of the Eurocentric ways of mapping, King's Native places and characters are portrayed as a part of the contemporary world and not as some artifact archived in a safely distant past. King's strategy is to portray some Native places and characters beyond all stereotyping and some other satisfying the expectations of the dominant cultures, only to turn the table by demonstrating how myopic these images are. The text deliberately resists the usual depiction of the Native as a victim or even as one juggling and struggling between two worlds. King mocks at the "common" portrayal of the Native in literature and popular culture in the following passage:

It was a common enough theme in novels and movies. Indian leaves the traditional world of the reserve, goes to the city, and is destroyed. Indian leaves the traditional world of reserve, is exposed to white culture, and becomes trapped between two worlds. Indian leaves the traditional world of the reserve, gets an education, and is shunned by his tribe (King, 1993, p.286).

Self-conscious as a postmodern writer ought to be, King avoids these common themes in *GGRW.* In fact, going a step further, King's Native characters, as is evident in the portrayal of Portland and Latisha, take up the stereotypical garb so as to fool the oppressor with their innovative reconstruction of the constructed image, thus manipulating the maps they are supposed to stay within. It is thus not only the geographic space that King plays up within the text but also the mindscape of the mainstream reader who often is blinded by the conventional mapping of a Native person as quantifying to a set image.

King's narrative technique fuses myth and reality to such an extent that alternative discourses overlap and combine to produce what King calls an "Interfusional" effect. In *GGRW*, "the real, as it were, and the fantastic are so intertwined so as to dovetail into one another that it's hard to draw the line between where one ends and the other begins," King has observed (Andrews, 1999, p.179). As the Four mythical narrators take turns narrating their versions of the canon and the realist Blackfoot characters move on with their stories, a dynamic set of stories comes to circulate and "create a world where the border lines between human, natural, and supernatural are not clear or hierarchaized" (Lousley, 2004, p. 24). By cleverly manipulating all sorts of maps that occur in the physical and mental spaces of the colonial discourse, Thomas King certainly maps the world in Native terms. In the process, the real and the fictional blur their respective boundaries and become one.

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How Does Written Corrective Feedback Influence Grammatical Accuracy?

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Abstract

The study was conducted mainly to determine the effectiveness of the three common types of written corrective feedback on grammatical accuracy. A pre-test-immediate-post-test-delayed-post-test design was used to compare the effects of direct corrective feedback, indirect corrective feedback, coded corrective feedback, and no correction approach on accuracy in subject-verb agreement, verb tense, verb form, and word form in a paragraph-writing task. A survey about student attention and attitudes towards written corrective feedback was also conducted. Sixty-eight Thai students in an English foundation course participated in the experiment. Analyses showed that written corrective feedback had positive revision effects on the four grammar areas. However, only students who had received coded corrective feedback gained significantly in the delayed post-test. Analyses further revealed that grammatical accuracy was significantly influenced by the type of written corrective feedback, except in word form. Survey results indicated that students who had received coded corrective feedback were more aware of and had more positive attitudes towards the corrective feedback they had received than those given with direct and indirect corrective feedback. Findings, therefore, support the positive role of written corrective feedback, specifically coded corrective feedback, in language learning.

Keywords: error correction, corrective feedback, grammar, L2 learning

Introduction

Giving feedback, called as a teacher's "traditional right" by Ellis (2000), is considered as one of the most significant responsibilities of teachers (Nunan, 1998). Teachers are thus expected to give feedback on whether students' answers or productions are correct or appropriate, or what and how students should improve. It is therefore not surprising to see teachers spending significant amounts of time and effort in performing the task, particularly writing teachers. As pointed out by Ferris (2007), giving written feedback to learners is "the most time consuming and challenging part" (p. 165) of teaching writing.

Leki (1990) observed that one of the most common written feedbacks given by writing instructors was on language use. She noted that writing instructors were compelled to focus on how ideas were presented or structured in sentences instead of on ideas because the label "writing teacher" entailed the expected responsibility of teaching how to write in a particular language.

Language experts theorized that corrective feedback helps in language learning and acquisition as it assists learners notice the difference between their own production and the target structure, raising their consciousness about the structures they are learning (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Chaudron (1995) and Shin (2008) believed that grammatical corrective feedback is necessary for students to verify the "hypotheses" they have made in structuring their ideas.

Studies have confirmed language teachers' beliefs and practices supporting corrective feedback in terms of grammar as well as mechanics (Schulz, 2001; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Lee, 2009). Students as well have a strong belief about the importance of grammar feedback in learning a language and, understandably, expect to receive such feedback (Leki, 1990; Nunan, 1998; Schulz, 2001; Ur, 1998).

However, despite the positive perception of corrective feedback, academics have not found a consensus on the effectiveness of different kinds of corrective feedback, even on its usefulness in general (Ellis, 2000, 2009; Ur, 1998). Furthermore, research results have not been helpful in settling these issues (Macaro, 2005; Guenette, 2007).

Since the 80's up to mid-2000, researchers and experts have offered conflicting findings and theories about the benefits of corrective feedback. Lalande (1982), Schmidt and Frota (1986), Fathman and Whaley (1990), Matsumura et al (2002), Ferris (2006), and Ellis et al. (2006) favored the use of corrective feedback. On the other hand, Semke (1984), Brock et al (1986), Krashen (1987), Leki (1990), and Truscott (1996, 2007) questioned its usefulness.

Common types of written corrective feedback and their effectiveness

The three most common types of written corrective feedback are direct corrective feedback, indirect corrective feedback, and metalinguistic corrective feedback, of which use of codes is the most common approach (Ellis, 2009). However, the question as to which type is the most effective has not been settled yet.

Some research has shown the benefits of the direct approach (Ellis et al., 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Sheen, 2010). Others, like Fathman and Whaley's (1990) and Lee's (1997), have favored the indirect method; while others have suggested the use of codes, such as Lalande's (1982) and Kubota's (2001). However, these three approaches have not yet been put together in an experimental study designed to compare impacts.

Student response to written corrective feedback

Student response to, or engagement with, written corrective feedback is believed to be related to its efficacy. Ellis (2010) suggested that learner engagement should be considered in determining the effectiveness of corrective feedback. He proposed three aspects of engagement to corrective feedback: cognitive (attention response), behavioral (action response), and affective (attitudinal response).

Sachs and Polio (2007) claimed that attention paid to written corrective feedback influenced language accuracy. As Ellis (2009) put it, "corrections can only work if writers notice and process them" (p. 105). This belief is in accordance with Schmidt and Frota's (1986) Notice-the-gap Principle. As well, Leki (1990), Guenette (2007) and Ellis (2009, 2010) all agreed on the importance of attitudes towards feedback.

The kind of written corrective feedback may also play a crucial role in the way students respond to the feedback and in the effectiveness of the feedback. Storch and Wigglesworth (2010) revealed that higher levels of engagement were observed among students who received coded feedback than among those who received reformulations. They also noted that engagement with the feedback positively correlated with uptake, retention, and comprehension of feedback.

Moreover, several studies have revealed that, in general, student perception of written corrective feedback has been favorable (Cohen and Calvanti, 1990; Hyland, 2003; Shin, 2008; Schulz, 2001; Lalande, 1982; and Kubota, 2001). However, students' attitudes towards written corrective feedback seem to differ based on the approach. In Shin's case study (2008), students preferred direct corrections to use of codes and indirect approach, such as underlining, as they needed the right words or right way to express something, as they did not have enough language knowledge and skills. Also, they admitted that most of the time, they did not understand or did not know how to correct their mistakes that were underlined or coded.

Not all language experts agree on the positive role of student response to corrective feedback on language learning. Truscott (2007) he noted that in one particular experiment, students who paid more attention to corrective feedback had poorer accuracy performance. He stated that this was in tune with the belief that "students who more carefully attended to corrections harmed their learning by doing so" (p. 261). Moreover, Krashen (1987), Ur (1998), and Young (1999) believed that corrective feedback could negatively impact students' emotions.

Research questions

Considering the significant amounts of time and effort invested by language teachers in providing corrective feedback on students' compositions, together with all these questions about the effectiveness of and student responses to written corrective feedback, an investigation into the influence of written corrective feedback is therefore imperative.

The research focused on the following questions.

1. Does written corrective feedback improve students' English grammatical accuracy in subject-verb agreement, verb tense, verb form, and word form?
2. Are there significant differences in the effects of the three common types of written corrective feedback, namely direct corrective feedback, indirect corrective feedback, and coded corrective feedback, on students' English grammatical accuracy in subject-verb agreement, verb tense, verb form, and word form?
3. Are there significant differences in students' attention and attitudes to the three common types of written corrective feedback?

Methodology

Research Design

A pre-test-two-post-tests experimental study was conducted, involving three experimental groups based on the three types of written corrective feedback – direct corrective feedback (DCF), indirect corrective feedback (ICF), and coded corrective feedback (CCF) – and a control group that received no written corrective feedback. All groups were given a pre-test (at the beginning of the semester), an immediate post-test (right after the first treatment was given) and a delayed post-test (at the end of the 15-week semester).

To determine the attention and attitudes of students to the three types of corrective feedback, a survey was also conducted at the end of the end of the experiment.

Participants

The study was done at Assumption University in semester 1/2011, involving sixty-eight Thai students in four English I sections. The four sections were randomly assigned to the four groups, with the following sizes: ICF = 18, DCF = 13, CCF = 20, Control = 17.

The average age of the participants, whose first language is Thai, was 18.93 years. Forty were females and 28 were males. All were first year students from Business Administration (26.5%), Arts (38.2%), and Communication Arts (35.3%). They had an average of 12 years of learning English prior to university.

Target language features

Suggestions of Holt (1997) and Lane and Lange (1999) about global and frequent errors and the findings of Bennui (2008), Lush (2002), Pongsiriwet (2001), and Thep-Ackrapong (2005) about the common language problems among Thai students guided the selection of the target structures. Two global errors, i.e. errors in verb tense (VT) and verb form (VF), and two local errors, i.e. subject-verb agreement (SVA) and word form (WF), were chosen as they were the most frequent errors committed by Thai students.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the pre-test scores showed no significant differences between the groups in terms of accuracy in the four grammar areas under study: SVA ($F(3,64) = 0.619$, $p = 0.605$); VT ($F(3,64) = 0.237$, $p = 0.80$); VF ($F(3, 64) = 0.330$, $p = 0.804$), and WF ($F(3,64) = 0.780$, $p = 0.51$).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for pre-test mean ratings of errors in paragraph

	ICF		DCF		CCF		Control	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
SVA	2.79	2.12	3.26	1.25	3.40	2.19	2.72	1.11
VT	2.07	1.60	2.10	1.66	2.15	1.11	2.45	1.57
VF	1.07	0.71	1.30	0.48	1.24	0.54	1.18	0.91
WF	1.36	0.60	1.40	0.39	1.22	0.43	1.53	0.90

Treatment

The DCF group received explicit corrections through any of the following: a) drawing a line through errors and writing the correct words above them; b) crossing out words that make the structure incorrect; c) inserting letters or words to make structures correct.

Grammatical errors in the ICF group were underlined or circled without giving corrections or explanations.

The treatment for the CCF group involved underlining or circling errors and identifying the types of errors by using codes, i.e. SVA, VT, VF, and WF. Also, upon the return of the first practice writing with the treatment, CCF subjects received a correction guide about the use of the codes with meanings and sample errors and corrections. They were allowed to use this guide whenever they revised their compositions.

The control group received no grammatical corrective feedback.

Focused or selective corrective feedback, dealing only with the four target areas, was used.

All groups received general and text-specific written feedback on content and organization. Post-writing conferences were also held to discuss major problems in ideas and language use.

The study involved seven treatments, i.e. in four practice writings, paragraph writing part of two quizzes and the mid-term exam, at approximately two-week interval beginning on week two.

Corrected compositions were returned to students in the class following the practice writing, or in the case of quiz and exam papers, as soon as grading and treatment were finished. Students went through their writings and could ask questions regarding the feedback. Rewriting was required for practice writings, not for exams. Revised compositions were impressionistically checked in terms of content and returned to the students in the following meeting.

Tests
The tests consisted of a descriptive paragraph-writing task on the topic "The Person I Admire Most". Students had to write about 150 words in approximately 40 minutes. The same topic was given in the pre-test and in the two post-tests to avoid problems in the reliability and validity of the data.

Scoring of tests
Three expert raters identified, marked, and tallied the target grammar errors. After all papers were examined, grammatical accuracy scores (number of errors (every grammar area)/ number of words x 100 (Polio, 1997 and Biber et al., 1998)) were calculated. The lower the score, the higher the accuracy.
Analyses indicated high inter-rater reliability ($r= 0.90 – 0.953$, $p < 0.01$) in all grammar areas in all testing periods.

Questionnaire
The survey questionnaire, in English with Thai translation and administered only to the three experimental groups, was composed of two parts. Part 1 consisted of three multiple-choice questions about students' attention to the written feedback they had received, i.e. kinds of written feedback in general, grammar correction approach, and grammar areas covered. Correct responses were totaled, with scores ranging from 0 (paid no attention or unaware) to 8 (paid full attention or fully aware).

Part 2 consisted of 19 statements to which students had to rate their agreement/disagreement (Likert-scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = undecided, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

The questionnaire was pilot-tested and validated by nine experts. The attitude part also had high reliability *(Cronbach's alpha* = 0.8763).

Data Analysis
Data were processed and analyzed using SPSS. For descriptive purposes, means, standard deviations, and percentages were obtained. One-way ANOVA was used to determine the comparability of groups at the beginning of the study and to answer the third research question. General Linear Model (GLM) Repeated Measures Test: Two-factor Mixed Design was used to answer the first two research questions.

Results

Grammatical Accuracy
Subject-verb agreement

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for SVA

Group	Pre-test		Post-test1		Post-test2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
ICF	2.79	2.12	1.24	1.07	1.83	1.77
DCF	3.26	1.25	1.34	1.02	3.33	1.58
CCF	3.40	2.19	.88	.56	1.59	1.10
Control	2.72	1.11	2.16	1.28	2.49	1.51

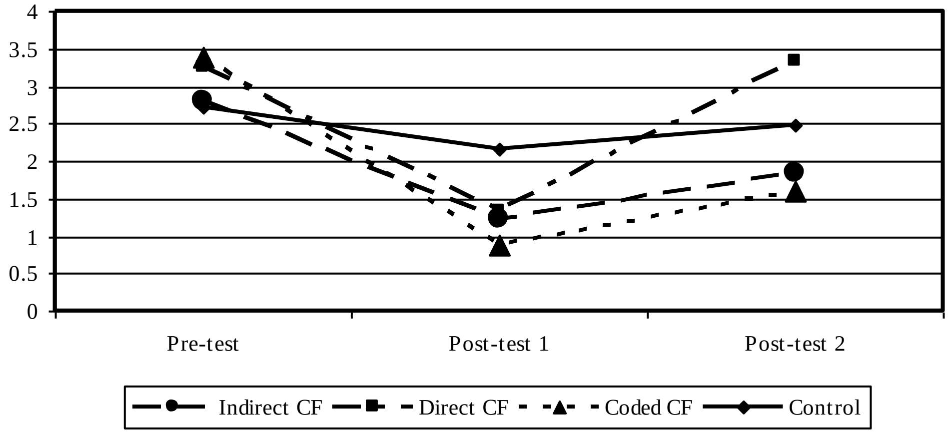

Fig. 6. Means for three testing periods of each group in SVA

General Linear Model (GLM) repeated measures tests of within-subjects effects revealed that the differences in the number of SVA errors made across the three tests were significant (F (2, 128) = 35.40, p = 0.000), with the most number of errors in the pre-test, less in post-test 2, and the least in post-test 1. The time-group interaction was also statistically significant (F (6, 128) = 4.20, p = 0.001), which suggests that the number of SVA errors committed across the three testing periods depends on the type of the treatment. Figure 1 illustrates that, although there was a general decrease in the number of SVA errors made in post-test 1 and in post-test 2 compared to the pre-test for all groups, the rate of decrease was greater for the CCF group than for the other three groups. Tests of within-subjects contrasts for time and group interaction showed significant results for both post-test 1 vs. pre-test (F (3,64) = 4.489, p = 0.006) and post-test 2 vs. pre-test (F (3,64) = 4.595, p = 0.006). These contrast results indicate that the mean differences between the pre-test and post-test 1 varied significantly across the four groups, with the CCF group making the greatest improvement, followed by the DCF, ICF, and control groups respectively. The results also mean that the differences between the pre-test and post-test 2 were significant across the groups, again with the CCF group making the most improvement, followed by the ICF and control groups, while the DCF group made more errors in post-test 2 than in the pre-test.

Verb tense

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for VT

Group	Pre-test		Post-test1		Post-test2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
ICF	2.07	1.60	0.75	0.87	2.01	1.98
DCF	2.10	1.66	0.36	0.47	1.40	0.95
CCF	2.15	1.11	0.53	0.60	.52	0.36
Control	2.45	1.57	1.64	1.23	2.45	1.72

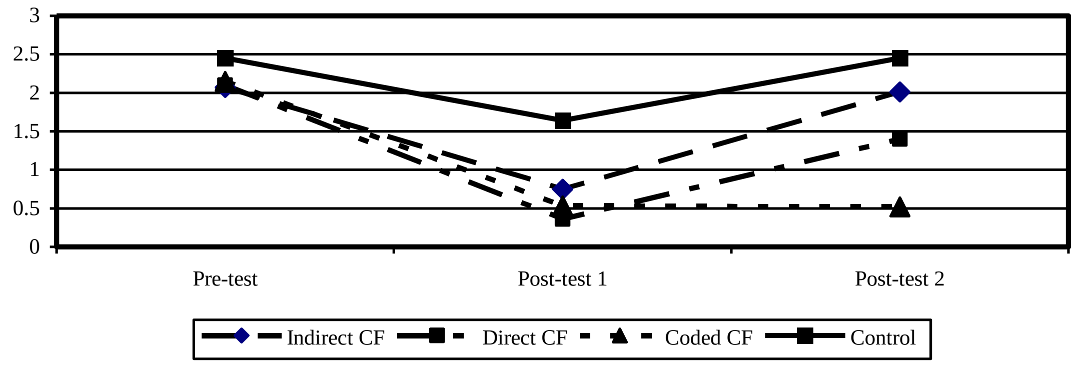

Fig. 7. Means for three testing periods of each group in VT

GLM tests showed that there were significant differences in the number of verb tense errors across the three tests (F (2, 128) = 37.40, p = 0.000). The most number of errors was made in the pre-test, whereas the least was in post-test 1. Moreover, the interaction between time and group was significant (F (6, 128) = 3.86, p = 0.001). This indicates that the four groups developed their verb tense accuracy differentially over time. Figure 2 clearly presents the trend in which the three experimental groups outperformed the control group in the immediate post-test. The figure also shows that the CCF group continued its improvement from pre-test to post-test 2 compared to the other groups. Results of tests within-subjects contrast for time-group interaction revealed that the contrast between the pre-test and post-test 1 was not significant (F (3,64) = 1.715, p = 0.173), which indicates that the mean differences between these two tests did not vary across the groups. However, the contrast for the pre-test vs. post-test 2 was found to be significant (F (3, 64) = 5.919, p = 0.001). This indicates that the four groups developed differentially in terms of verb tense accuracy from pre-test to delayed post-test, in which the CCF group made the most improvement followed by the DCF group, while the DCF group had a negligible change and the control group exhibited no improvement at all.

Verb form

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for VF

Group	Pre-test		Post-test1		Post-test2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
ICF	1.07	0.71	0.56	0.53	1.03	0.50
DCF	1.30	0.48	0.34	0.46	1.15	0.68
CCF	1.24	0.54	0.34	0.39	0.47	0.38
Control	1.18	0.91	0.80	0.94	1.65	1.01

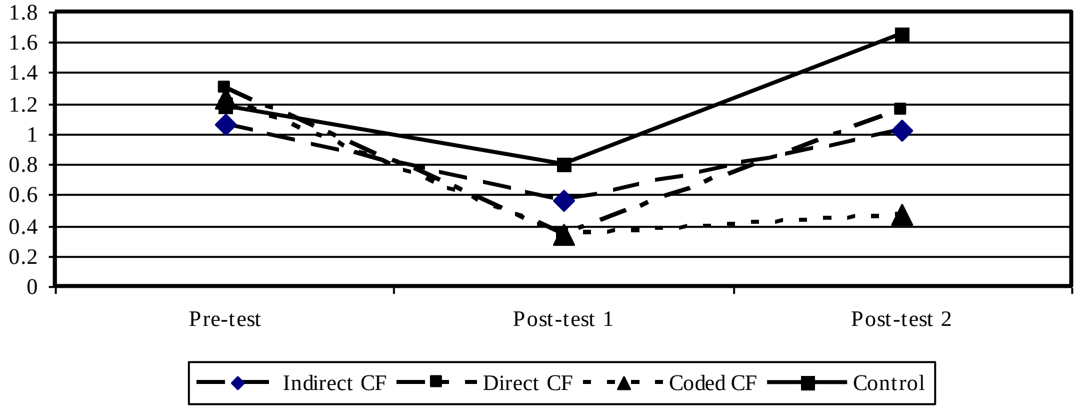

Fig. 8. Means for three testing periods of each group in VF

In terms of verb form errors, GLM showed that the scores of all groups differed significantly across the three tests (F (1.923, 123. 074) = 27.032, p = 0.000). The time-group interaction was also found to be significant (F (5.769, 123.074) = 4.206, p = 0.001). This indicates that the number of verb form errors made in the three tests depends on the kind of feedback treatment. Figure 3 shows the pattern in which the experimental groups scored better than the control group from the pre-test to the immediate post-test. However, the mean differences between the pre-test and post-test 1 for time-group interaction were not significant (F (3, 64) = 1.893, p = 0.140), which means that the revision improvement in verb form accuracy did not vary significantly across the groups. The pre-test vs. post-test 2 contrast for time-group interaction was significant (F (3, 64) = 11.127, p = 0.000), indicating that the rate of improvement from the pre-test to the delayed post-test was not similar across the four groups. As illustrated in Figure 3 the CCF group outperformed the other two experimental groups, which barely made any improvement, when the pre-test and post-test 2 were contrasted. The control group, on the other hand, produced more errors in the delayed post-test than in the pre-test.

<u>Word form</u>

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for WF

Group	Pre-test		Post-test1		Post-test2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
ICF	1.36	0.60	0.38	0.32	0.91	0.62
DCF	1.40	0.39	0.50	0.51	0.94	0.61
CCF	1.22	0.43	0.30	0.31	0.51	0.60
Control	1.53	0.90	0.91	1.08	1.41	0.65

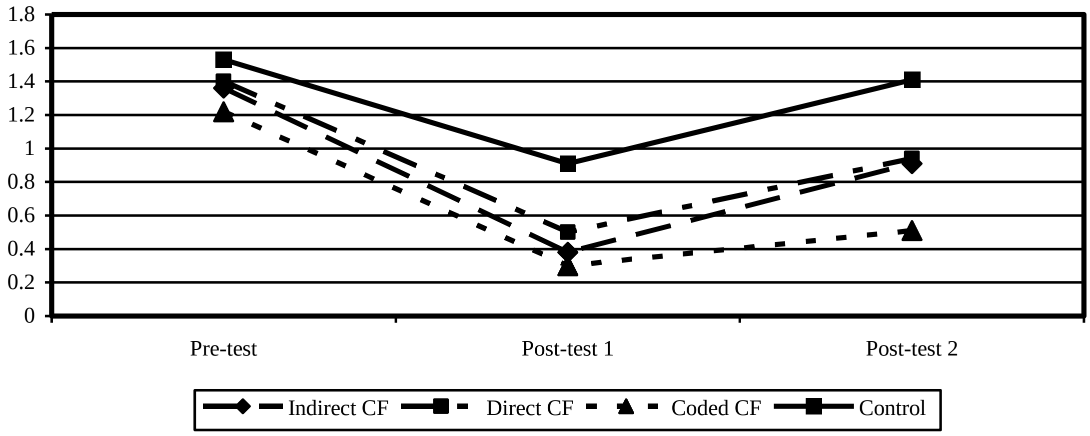

Fig. 9. Means for three testing periods of each group in WF

Tests of within-subjects effects of GLM repeated measures indicated that the differences in the number of word form errors made by all groups across the three tests were significant (F (2, 128) = 46.638, p = 0.000). Although Figure 4 illustrates that the experimental groups performed better than the control group from the pre-test to post-tests 1 and 2 , the time-group interaction was not statistically significant (F (6, 128) = 1.234, p = 0.293), i.e. the number of word form errors committed across the three tests was not dependent on the type of written corrective feedback.

Attention and attitudes towards written corrective feedback

Attention

Table 6. Group Means for Attention to WCF

Group	Mean	SD
DCF	3.48	0.98
ICF	4.14	2.02
CCF	6.14	1.19

Table 6 shows that students who received CCF had higher attention score than those who received direct and indirect feedback. ANOVA revealed that the differences in the attention scores between the three experimental groups were significant (F (2, 48) = 14.633, p = 0.000). Games-Howell post hoc analysis revealed that the CCF group had significantly higher attention score than DCF and ICF (p<0.01), which means that students who had received codes had higher attention level to, or more aware of, the corrective feedback they had obtained than those given with either direct or indirect CF.

Attitudes

Table 7. Group Means for Attitudes towards WCF

Group	Mean	SD
DCF	3.79	0.52
ICF	3.95	0.37
CCF	4.31	0.45

Average Attitude Scale: 1 – 1.49 highly negative; 1.50 – 2.49 negative; 2.50 – 3.49 neutral; 3.50 – 4.49 positive; 4.50 – 5.00 highly positive

Table 7 shows that all groups had positive attitudes towards the written corrective feedback they had received. However, ANOVA showed that there was a significant difference in the attitudes of the three experimental groups ($F (2, 48) = 6.158$, $p = 0.004$). Hochberg post hoc test indicated that the significant differences lay between the CCF and the DCF groups ($p< 0.001$) and between CCF and ICF groups ($p< 0.05$). Thus, CCF group had more positive attitudes towards the corrective feedback they had received than the direct and indirect CF groups.

Discussion

Research question one asked whether written corrective feedback improved the grammatical accuracy of L2 learners. To answer this question, we have to look at the immediate effect and the delayed effect.

With regard to the immediate effect, results have shown that all feedback groups performed better than the control group in all grammar areas. This result is expected for the DCF group since students simply copied the given corrections. The improvement in the ICF group can be related to two factors. First, ICF students probably had the so-called declarative or explicit knowledge about the grammar areas that helped them correct their mistakes when located. This suggests that students may be capable of correcting their own mistakes in the revision stage when they are guided as to where their mistakes are. Second, they might have asked knowledgeable others in the classroom, such as the teacher or their classmates, as to why they were wrong and how to correct their mistakes.

The increased accuracy among CCF students indicates that they understood the codes with the help of the correction guide. It also suggests that they possessed declarative knowledge regarding the target structures that helped them correct mistakes.

Students who did not get any written corrective feedback also showed some improvement, but at a lower rate than those who did. As they were also asked to revise their work, they might have made changes in content and organization which in turn might have lessened their use of such structures. They might have also benefitted from post-writing conferences in which common language problems were discussed.

However, in terms of the long-term effect, only the coded corrective feedback consistently worked in all grammar areas. In SVA, CCF and ICF groups performed better than the control group, while the DCF group performed worse than the control group and even performed worse than in the pre-test. In VT, CCF and DCF groups did better than the ICF group, which made negligible improvement, and than the control group that did not make any improvement. In VF, the DCF and ICF groups made very slight improvement, while the control group performed worse than in the pre-test. Only the CCF group showed marked improvement in VF. In WF, although all groups showed some improvement, the CCF group showed the greatest improvement.

Research question 2 asked whether there were significant differences in the effects of the three common types of written corrective feedback on grammatical accuracy. Analyses have shown that there were. Students who received different corrective feedback approaches developed their grammatical accuracy in subject-verb agreement, verb tense, and verb form differentially across the testing periods, especially in the long term, but not in word form. As discussed above, while all three corrective feedback approaches benefited students in the revision stage, only those who received coded feedback consistently improved their grammatical accuracy in SVA, VT, and VF. The superiority of coded feedback over the direct and indirect approaches when it comes to long-term language learning can be attributed to the active mental involvement of students when they are dealing with the codes to correct their work. Lalande (1982), Jordan (1997), and Broughton et al. (1994) noted that the use of codes engages students in guided learning and problem solving as students analyze their mistakes and make corrections. The codes do not simply help students in noticing their mistakes, but they also supply some clues as to the kind of mistakes students make, helping students understand the target structure (Sheen, 2010). This understanding is essential in retaining grammatical knowledge for future activation when needed. For Storch and Wigglesworth (2010), using codes makes students more engaged in their language tasks which then leads to increased uptake in revision. This high uptake results in better comprehension that benefits students in the long-term because of higher retention. The same cannot be said of the direct and indirect corrective feedback. The direct approach does not engage students in active cognition as students simply follow what teachers supply them. Students may notice the difference between their own construction and the proper way of writing it, but they may not be able to understand why or they may simply forget later on. Indirect approach may involve students in problem solving, but without guidance or explanation, they may not be able to fully understand certain language structures. Asking knowledgeable others may not always be an option or available. Limited understanding of mistakes may lead to limited retention or retention of incorrect information.

However, it should be noted that only SVA, VT, and VF were significantly influenced by written corrective feedback. Although the experimental groups, especially the coded group, outperformed the control group in word form accuracy, results have shown that the improvement did not depend on the treatment and might be linked to practice effect. This finding can be explained by what Ferris (2006) called treatable and untreatable errors. Treatable errors are rule-based and, thus, can be corrected by following the rules. Untreatable errors, on the other hand, are not governed by rules, but rather by convention or vocabulary. Subject-verb agreement, verb tense, and verb form are considered treatable, while word form is untreatable as it is vocabulary-based. Students may know that they have to use a noun, verb, adjective, or adverb in a certain structure but if they are not familiar with the different forms of a particular word, they will not be able to write the appropriate word. This finding suggests that written corrective feedback, i.e. coded corrective feedback, impacts only treatable errors.

Regarding research question 3, analyses have indicated that students who received different types of written corrective feedback responded differently in terms of their attention and attitudes to the corrective feedback. Students who received codes had higher attention level than those who were given direct and indirect feedback. This finding supports the idea of Lalande (1982), Jordan (1997), Broughton et al. (1994), Sheen (2010), and Storch and Wigglesworth (2010) that coded corrective feedback engages students more. The problem-solving and guided-learning nature of coded corrective feedback seems to require more engagement, and thus, attention. Higher attention level may also explain the better accuracy performance of students who received coded feedback compared to direct and indirect approaches. Moreover, this finding contradicts Truscott's (2007) belief that more attention to corrective feedback negatively affects accuracy. Finally, this result supports Leki's (1990), Guenette's (2007), Sachs and Polio's (2007), and Ellis' (2009, 2010) contention that positive response, i.e. attention, to written corrective feedback positively relates to the feedback's effectiveness.

Results regarding attitudes support the findings of Lalande (1982), Cohen and Calvanti (1990), Kubota (2001), Schulz (2001), Hyland (2003), and Shin (2008) that students view written corrective feedback positively. However, this study shows that students who received coded feedback had more positive attitudes than those who received direct and indirect feedback. This finding is in contrast with Shin's (2008) which indicated that the indirect approach was preferred to the coded method. This more positive view of coded feedback can be explained in relation to its effectiveness. Leki (1990), Guenette (2007), and Ellis (2009, 2010) believed that cognitive and attitudinal responses were necessary for corrective feedback to have a positive impact on accuracy. It may also be viewed in another way, i.e. the effectiveness of the feedback can influence attitudes of students. In this study, it is possible that the students noticed that the coded approach was making them more engaged in learning and their accuracy was improving, which could have positively influenced their perception of the corrective feedback they received.

Conclusions

The investigation was conducted to answer some lingering questions about the role of written corrective feedback in improving the accuracy of learners of English as a second language. Moreover, it aimed to compare the attention and attitudes of students to three common types of written corrective feedback.

This study has provided evidence that a common type of corrective feedback, i.e. coded corrective feedback, improves accuracy in the areas of subject-verb agreement, verb tense, and verb form. It has shown that using codes is more effective than simply locating the mistakes or supplying corrections as it involves active mental participation of students in correcting their mistakes, which is essential in learning. The use of codes does not simply help students notice the gap between their own production and the correct way of using a particular language structure, but more importantly, it affords students better engagement with and understanding of target language structures, both of which are vital in retaining knowledge for future use. This assertion can be supported by the higher attention level of students to coded feedback. Moreover, positive attitudes of students can help them better use the coded approach, or its positive accuracy effects can influence students' perception of the feedback they receive. Whatever the case may be, one thing is clear – the way students respond, cognitively and affectively, to written corrective feedback relates to the feedback's efficacy, not only in the short-term but also in the long-term.

However, coded corrective feedback in this study seems to have worked in the following context. First, the students involved were of low intermediate to intermediate levels of English proficiency. Second, writing paragraphs was one of the main foci of the course. Third, the corrective feedback was focused on selected structures. Fourth, only rule-based structures were influenced by coded feedback. Fifth, students were given a correction guide about the use of the codes. Finally, rewriting of compositions was a part of the process. Therefore, it is safe to suggest that, in order to reap the benefits of coded written corrective feedback, all six factors should be carefully considered.

Finally, as this study has limitations, further research should consider the following questions.

- Are there significant differences in the accuracy effects of and in student responses to the three common types of written corrective feedback in other contexts such as different English courses, different student proficiency levels, longer writing tasks, other errors, unfocused correction, and no rewriting tasks?
- Is CCF effective in the contexts mentioned above?

Answers to these and other relevant questions will aid in better understanding about the role of written corrective feedback in L2 learning.

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Investigating Societal Strategies in Learning English of Non-Thai ESL Students

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Abstract

This study was undertaken to investigate societal learning strategies employed by a group of 20 non-Thai ESL university students with diverse nationalities at an international university in Thailand. The study lays particular emphasis on social L2 strategies which this group of learners utilise to provide them opportunities to use and practise their knowledge in English. It is unveiled that the most frequently employed social strategies are cooperating with peers or classmates and seeking opportunities to listen and speak English. Also, using the Internet to learn more about English, native English speaking people and their culture is found to be an effective means to learning English fast and almost effortlessly. Many report trying to speak or ask classroom lecturers often in English so as to learn from their expressions pronunciations, etc. as a technique useful to improve their English proficiency. The process of exploring the participants' use of learning strategies is carried out by questionnaires followed by selected interviews. By triangulating findings across instruments, greater insights are revealed. Implications from the study have contributed to the teacher as a model for learning English effectively and the teacher's role in strategy instruction and strategy application in L2 learning. The study also advocates that no learning strategy is ultimate as individuals should attempt to seek and apply strategies conducive to their needs and levels of learning English.

Key words: Learning Strategies, Social Strategies, ESL (English as a Second Language), L2 (Second Language)

Introduction and Background

During the past two decades, a multitude of second language acquisition research has to some degree directed towards the effectiveness of learner strategies for learning a language. There has also been an increasing awareness and interest in resources for learning styles and language learning strategies in foreign and second language teaching and learning. Researchers such as Oxford (1990); Cohen (1998); and O'Mallay and Chamot (1990) have stressed that effective learners use a variety of different strategies and techniques in order to solve difficulties they face while acquiring or producing the language. Further, it is held that learners can improve their English proficiency by developing an ability to use specific strategies that support their use of English in communication.

Significance of the Study

In a particular EFL learning milieu where English is used as a medium of instruction, ESL students in this context are bound to face a number of difficulties, one of which is clearly a language barrier when trying to communicate in English. This situation seems worse if non-native English speakers live or study in a setting which is not their home country. Undertaking a study into language learning strategies used among these learners within such context has interested the researcher in particular. It would be worthwhile to explore their use of English learning strategies and how they employ such strategies to help them improve their English skills.

To make the study context specific, the researcher decided to investigate one of the indirect learning strategies, social learning strategies (Oxford, 1990), that the participants utilise during their university studies and even in their daily lives outside the classroom. The rationale to focus on indirect strategies is that all participants are enrolled to study in a specific field (Business English) in an EFL setting where direct needs for improving English appear less important.

In addition, with communicative language teaching or the communicative approach to language teaching having gained considerable popularity in teaching and learning ESL and EFL these days, the emphasis of learning is mainly on interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of study. All of these have pointed to the importance of social interaction that revolves around and involves other people while studying and learning a second or foreign language.

Research Question

The research question is:

"What social learning strategies are employed by non-Thai ESL university students with diverse nationalities?"

The study focused on a group of 20 non-Thai ESL university students who were selected purposively based on their study major, non-nativeness of English, willingness to participate and their grade. It is believed that all participants are achieving English language learners as they have been accepted to study in an international program taught with the medium of English. Most of the literature has suggested that strategies used by achieving learners can be applied to less successful learners in helping them become better language learners (Rubin, 1975). Even though this notion is still problematic to some strategy researchers, the researcher can see the possibility of using strategies of non-Thai ESL learners as guidelines or hints for helping less successful learners to develop their own effective learning strategies. Also, given the diverse cultural backgrounds of these ESL learners from different four nationalities, insights into their social strategies in learning English can contribute uniquely and greatly to the domain of language learning strategies.

Literature Review

The paradigm shift from the instructionist perspective to the constructivist viewpoint has brought great attention to the active role of learners in the learning process. In second/foreign language learning, learners use a range of language learning strategies. In fact, learning strategies and the factors that influence their use have received much attention in recent years since it has become widely accepted that learning is a process and the role of the teacher is to facilitate that process.

Within communicative approaches to language teaching, a key goal is for the learner to develop communicative competence in the target language. After Canale and Swain's (1980) dominant article recognised the importance of communication strategies as a key aspect of strategic and communicative competence, a number of works appeared about communication strategies in foreign language teaching. An important distinction exists, however, between communication and language learning strategies. Communication strategies are used by speakers intentionally and usually consciously in order to cope with difficulties in communicating in a foreign language (Bialystok, 1981). The term language learning strategies is used more generally for all strategies that foreign/second learners use in learning the target language, and communication strategies are therefore just one type of language learning strategies.

The term language learning strategy has been discussed and defined by several known researchers. Wenden and Rubin (1987: 19) define learning strategies as 'any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information'. Richards and Platt (1992: 209) assert that learning strategies are 'intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information'. According to Cohen (1998: 4) learning strategies are defined as 'learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner'. Faerch Claus and Casper (1983: 67) stress that a learning strategy is 'an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language'. However, there are problems in defining language learning strategies as terms such as tactics, plans, techniques and language processing strategies are used, creating difficulty in separating what is meant by each.

Research into learning strategies started in the 1960s. Williams and Burden (1997: 149) state that developments in cognitive psychology influenced much of the research done on language learning strategies. The first focus for learning strategy research was on identifying the characteristics of effective learners. In 1966, Aaron Carton's study was the first attempt to investigate learner strategies. After Carton, in 1971, Rubin started doing research which focused on the strategies of successful learners and stated that such strategies could be useful to less successful learners to help them learn a foreign language effectively. O'Mally and Chamot (1990) make the assertion that language learning strategies are also viewed in cognitive theory as complex cognitive skills. The advantage of viewing language acquisition as a cognitive skill is that it provides a mechanism for describing how language learning ability can be improved.

Useful categories of strategy use have been formulated by Wenden and Rubin (1987), O'Mally and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), Cohen (1998) and many others. Most of these efforts to classify language learning strategies reflect more or less the same categorisations of strategies. However, although it is beneficial to classify language learning strategies into categories, research studies on learning strategies should go beyond their descriptive taxonomies. To identify types of language learning strategies that appear to be the most effective to learners in certain contexts would seem to be a more productive goal.

Wenden and Rubin (1987) in addition to Oxford (1990) classify the learning strategies into two types. The first consists of categories that directly affect learning, including clarification, monitoring, memorisation, guessing or inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and practice. The second category, consisting of strategies that contribute indirectly to learning, includes creating practice opportunities and using production tricks such as using gestures, starting conversations in L2, watching films and reading books.
Oxford (1990) further subdivides learning strategies into six groups. She claims that the aim of language learning strategies is to develop communicative competence. Each type of strategy can support and connect with the others. In Oxford's system, direct strategies are 'memory', 'cognitive' and 'compensation' strategies whereas indirect strategies encompass 'metacognitive', 'affective' and 'social' strategies. In brief, memory strategies are those used for storage of information. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies

learners use to make sense of their learning. Compensation strategies help learners to overcome gaps to continue the communication. Metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. Affective strategies are concerned with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence, while social strategies, the focus of this study, refer to those activities that lead to increased interaction and practice with the target language, such as asking for clarification, cooperating with others and empathising with others.
Research into language learning strategies has identified a number of positive strategies used by good language learners. Such strategies could also be used by less successful language learners aiming to become more successful in language learning. However, there is the possibility that unsuccessful language learners use the same strategies as successful learners but become less successful due to some other reasons (Vann and Roberta, 1990). Using the same strategies as successful language learners does not ensure that unsuccessful language learners will eventually become successful in language learning as other factors may also play a role in achievement.

Rubin and Thompson (1994) suggested that both language learners and teachers need to become aware of the learning styles and strategies through strategy instruction. Attempts to teach students to use learning strategies (called strategy training or learner training) have produced good results (Rubin and Thompson, ibid.) The main objective of such attempts is to allow students to become more aware of their preferred learning strategies and to help them become more responsible for meeting their own objectives. Such objectives can be only achieved when students are trained in strategy use so that they become more independent and effective.

Research Methods

This research was conducted principally within an interpretative structure. It aims to understand the phenomenon and interpret how individuals make sense of their meanings. Two instruments were employed to collect data for this study: a questionnaire followed by a semi-structured interview.

Participants

The participants in this study were 20 non-Thai ESL students studying for a 4-year undergraduate degree program in Business English at a private university in Thailand. They are of 4 nationalities: Chinese (n=12), Japanese (n=4), Korean (n=2), and Myanmar (n=2). According to the Annual Report of The Registrar's Office, in the academic year 2011, the population of non-Thai ESL Business English students was 205 from the total population of 4,015 Business English students who are mainly Thai. In terms of gender, 15 females and 5 males represented the sample group, with the majority being the Chinese (n=12).

Data Collection Procedures

The questionnaire consisted of thirty-two close-ended items and one open-ended question. Each closed item was scored on a Likart scale from one to five. The researcher adapted several items from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990). However, these items asked about social strategy use on the whole so they were reworded to be suitable for the respondents' context.

In analysing the questionnaire data, the researcher identified and classified participants' social learning strategies using the categories developed by Oxford (1990:169), but he also modified them to reflect strategies that the participants reported using during the pilot interview. Oxford's original system of social strategies comprises three main categories: asking questions, cooperating with others and empathising with others. 'Seeking opportunities' was the new category formulated which can be divided into two subcategories: seeking opportunities to listen and/or read in L2 and seeking opportunities to speak and/or write in L2. The researcher placed listening and reading together, and speaking and writing together because they are 'receptive skills' and 'productive skills' correspondingly.

Of the twenty participants, ten were selected for interview. Since this specific group was targeted, where no attempt to generalise was desired, a similar population was acceptable (Cohen et al. 2000). Particularly, the researcher used dimensional sampling, one type of non-probability sampling, to identify various factors of interest in a population and obtain at least one respondent for every combination of those factors.

Reliability of the Research Instruments

In view of the reliability of the questionnaire, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used for reliability check. The coefficient results showed that the questionnaire used is trustworthy (An alpha of .87). For interview reliability, the researcher used field notes to record data and then coding was made and crosschecked to ensure the consistency of the interview data obtained. The interview data were then verified by the interviewees for accuracy and by two peer researchers for uniformity and constancy.

Results and Discussion

Questionnaire Results

The results of questionnaire analysis reporting the strategies used in sequence of the mean scores are shown in Table 2.

Item 11, *I work with other learners (both foreign and native English) to practise, review or share information*, received the highest mean score of 4.33. At this point, the researcher realizes that this group of participants seems to favor working and collaborating with others in the class most. This collectivist culture supports the idea that most participants view themselves as members of groups and usually consider the needs of the group to be more important than the needs of individuals. There are more social relationships and more harmony within a group setting and levels of competition and insecurity would be reduced. In fact, most Asian cultures appear to be collectivist (Heine, 2008).

The second most used strategy was '*I try to find opportunities to talk to and socialise with other foreign students and native English foreigners* (item 15). This is in fact in line with the fourth most used strategy, '*I speak or ask classroom lecturers in English as they can serve as a role model in learning English* (item 31). These strategies reflect the participants' focus on the importance of developing cultural understanding and seeking opportunities to listen and speak in English. They facilitate their interaction by conversing with others as well as teachers. Using these techniques, they seek opportune time to interact with foreign classmates and native speakers if possible. Classroom teachers are also found to be a good model and resource for their students.

Ranked third is item 21, *I use the Internet to learn more about English, native English people and their culture.* It would appear that the use of the Internet has become more and more popular among university students worldwide as the wireless Internet system has now been installed in many universities.

Item 6, *If I don't understand something in English, I ask other persons to slow down or say it again*, with the mean score of 4.10, came fifth. It is to be noted that in order to adopt this strategy, students need to learn acceptable ways to ask for clarification or verification.

Table 1
Quantitative Analysis of Social Learning Strategies in Order

Social Strategies (Questionnaire Item)	**Category(s)**	**Mean**
1. I work with other learners (both foreign and native English) to practise, review or share information (11)	Cooperating with others and seeking opportunities	4.33
2. I try to find opportunities to talk to and socialise with other foreign students and native English foreigners (15)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	4.27
3. I use the Internet to learn more about English, native English people and their culture (21)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	4.20
4. I speak or ask classroom lecturers in English as they can serve as a role model in learning English (31)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	4.16
5. If I do not understand something in English, I ask other persons to slow down or say it again (6)	Asking questions	4.10
6. I try to watch English programs on TV (8)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	4.06
7. I ask for help from my classmates who are foreign students and native English speakers (3)	Asking questions	4.01
8. I try to watch English movies as often as I can (18)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	3.97
9. I read extra books or sources in English (13)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	3.90
10. I try to listen to English radio programs (17)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	3.81
11. I ask questions in English in class when studying with foreign/native English teachers (1)	Asking questions	3.77
12. I try to listen to English songs (14)	Seeking opportunities	3.68
13. I try to sense the feelings of other people when they write something to me in English (9)	Empathising with others	3.60
14. I pay close attention to the thoughts and feelings of other people with whom I interact in English (12)	Empathising with others	3.51
15. I try to sense the feelings of others when speaking English with them face to face (28)	Empathising with others	3.48
16. I have a regular language learning friend (7)	Cooperating with others	3.42
17. I read and try to understand English signs	Empathising with others and	3.35

and directions (27)	seeking opportunities	
18. If I don't understand something after I read, I ask native English speakers, or foreign teachers or friends to clarify (20)	Asking questions	3.30
19. I keep in touch with other foreign or native English speaking students by writing or e-mailing (22)	Cooperating with others and seeking opportunities	3.21
20. I ask other people to check whether they have understood my meaning in English correctly (10)	Asking questions	3.13
21. I ask native English speakers or foreign teachers/ friends to correct me when I speak (5)	Asking questions	2.88
22. I register for English lessons extra from regular ones at school (30)	Seeking opportunities	2.79
23. I try to learn about the culture of native English speakers (2)	Empathising with others	2.71
24. I play English games with myself and with others (24)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	2.64
25. I try to speak with or ask teachers/experts who share my first language about English (19)	Asking questions and seeking opportunities	2.60
26. I ask native English speakers or foreign teachers/ friends to correct me when I write (4)	Asking questions	2.52
27. I try to speak with or ask my friends who share my first language about English (32)	Asking questions and seeking opportunities	2.50
28. I spend extra time practising English in the language lab (29)	Seeking opportunities	2.41
29. I attend the theatre to see a play in English (if any) (26)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	2.32
30. I attend free public talks and lectures in English (23)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	2.21
31. I practise listening to English language tapes (25)	Seeking opportunities	2.04
32. I participate in university activities e.g. taking part in English club or attending social events related to English (16)	Empathising with others and seeking opportunities	1.88

As shown in Table 1, the remaining strategies are listed in descending order of reported use.

On the contrary, item 16, *I participate in university activities e.g. taking part in English club or attending social events related to English*, received the lowest score from the students, with a mean score of 1.88. The probable explanation embodies the fact that this learning strategy lacks an element of motivation to interest them and taking part in clubs or joining social events requires more effort on the students' side.

The second lowest score was item 25, *I practise listening to English language tapes*, receiving the score of 2.04. It may be attributed to the fact that listening to tapes is a one-way non-visual communication aimed mainly at listening and is not realistic and enjoyable as compared to other means of communicative activities such as watching TV or listening to songs.

Item 23, *I attend free public talks and lectures in English*, was the third least reported strategy with a mean score of 2.21. Uninteresting topics of lectures/talks could mean that the respondents do not attend. The students themselves may not be motivated enough to participate in talks or lectures as such events may conflict with their class times.

On the whole, the average mean score for all participants was 104.76 out of 160, equivalent to 65.47%. Drawing on most of the literature on effective language learners, it is not a surprise to see that all participants in this study generally employed a wide-ranging number of learning strategies to facilitate the language learning process (Abraham and Vann, 1987).

Interview Results

In most instances, their interview responses were quite alike, including phrases such as 'socializing with foreign friends and teachers, working with classmates, using the Internet to learn and search for information, and watching English movies and programs'. Nonetheless, in a few instances, they provided more particular accounts ranging from listening to the radio, asking interlocutors to slow down, playing video and online games in English, reading English materials of any kind, proper planning and having English lessons organized. Table 2 summarizes the responses to the first interview question.

Table 2

Question:"What learning strategies do you use to improve your English?

Reported strategies used based on interviewing 10 students

1. Socializing with foreign friends and teachers (N =7)
2. **Working and collaborating with classmates (N=6)**
3. **Watching movies (N=5)**
   Using the Internet to learn about English (N=5)
   Watching English TV programs (N=5)
4. Having someone edit or correct English use (N=4)
   Listening to songs and radios (N=4)
5. Listening for key words (N=3)
   Playing video and online games in English (N=3)
   Asking conversation partners to slow down (N=3)
6. Conversing with native speakers of English (N=2)
7. Reading English materials (N=1)
   Planning and having English lessons organized (N=1)
   Keeping a list of new English vocabulary (N=1)
   Using what you've learned frequently in real life (N=1)

Interestingly, 12 interviewees pointed out that they recognised a need to improve their English proficiency. However, spending plenty of time on studies restricted some possibility. Such academic obligations had more priority than a desire to deliberately improve their English.

By analyzing both data collection approaches, the researcher is able to categorise the social learning strategies that the participants in this study report using on a regular basis. A discussion of these strategies including a selection of the relevant students' direct quotations is given as follows:

Working with foreign friends and socializing with teachers

The results obtained both from the questionnaire and the interview suggested the great importance of this strategy. The majority of the interviewees said that working with foreign students and socializing with classroom teachers could improve their English listening and speaking skills. Also, this comes with a reduction in their anxiety and stress. Many of them expressed their intentions to be friends with other non-native English speaking students as they found it more comfortable due to some reasons, such as similar cultures or backgrounds, the greater numbers of non-native ESL students in their learning context, a higher level of intelligibility shared among non-native ESL students, and a higher level of informality in using English. Most of them also held that talking and socialising with class teachers is useful for English language improvement.

Many research studies point to the importance of creating practice opportunities with proficient language users, both native and non-native speakers of the target language. For example, Pearson (1988) finds that in one of the interview series with Japanese speakers, five participants who took every chance to talk and make friends with local people for six months reported that they could handle most of their communication needs in the target language. Practice strategies mentioned in the study of Huang and Van Naerssen (1987), including speaking with other non-native students and native speakers, reveal perceivable language improvement of learners under study.

Interestingly, it is found that most participants haven't directed to the learning of English and English strategies with particular reference to the nativeness of English or native English speakers. This can be linked to the emergence of English as a lingua franca (ELF) as a way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different first languages.

Using the Internet and social networks to improve English language skills

Most participants favored this method of seeking opportunities for language development and acquisition. Presently, they can easily access the Internet at school, home or places of interest as far as there is a Internet connection service available. This has clearly enabled the students to sources of information at hand. Also, with a number of social network programs, such as Facebook, Twitter, Line, and What's App, communication between students and with others is made possible at their fingertips.

There is some research on the development of language acquisition from the use of the Internet and social media. Social media in fact consist of interactive forms of media that allow users to interact with and publish to each other, generally by means of the Internet. According to Wu and Pai (2011), language learners are able to enhance their language skills due to the different methods within which new social media have created.

Asking others to slow down or say it again

A number of interviewees said they used this strategy to support their English language learning. Interestingly, three participants pointed out that asking others to repeat something might depend on the liaison between the speaker and the listener and the significance of the topic. This is also voiced by an interviewee commenting that some topics are trivial and some are vital, so using this strategy is up to the individual's decision whether to whom he or she is speaking and on what occasion it should be used.

According to Oxford (1990), asking questions for clarification or verification is employed more often in receptive skills (listening and reading) than in productive skills (speaking and writing). It is not a surprise that the respondents in this study employ this learning strategy in communication as they need to communicate frequently at university in the target language.

Watching programmes on TV and movies

Most participants reported watching TV programmes and movies to some extent. According to them, watching TV helped become familiar with English. A few stated that this was also entertaining and familiarised them with native English speakers' culture.

In fact, the power of movies as a medium is acknowledged by many students as well as scholars. Good movies can serve as a valuable pedagogical aid, both for classroom use and self-study as they present slices of life, and as such, provide a realistic, authentic and entertaining way of improving the learners' command of the language (Massi & Merino, 1996). Thus, audiovisual material, especially a movie, with its rich context is a powerful instructional tool known to have a motivational, attentional, and affective impact on viewers, which in turn facilitates auditory processing (Baltova, 1994).

Overall, most participants in the study seek what Bialstok (1981) called 'functional practising' in which language learners increase their opportunity to use the language for communicative competence.

Conclusion and Implications

This study aimed at examining the social learning strategies of a group of non-Thai non-native ESL Business English major students studying at an international university in Thailand. The results showed that these students were high to medium users of strategies. Based on the findings in the study, it can be rationally concluded that most participants made most use of the strategies that appear to facilitate their classroom learning in groups as opposed to individualism i.e. working with others. Also, they seem to favor strategies that expose themselves to opportunities to engage in conversations with others including classroom teachers. It is also found that strategies that did not require much of their effort are preferred e.g. using Internet to learn more about English, watching TV and movies, and asking for repetition.

In addition, the researcher believes that the use of some individual strategies could be attributed to culture and educational system dependent upon countries where the participants represent. Moreover, the participants appear to be more concerned with passing exams and meeting demands of their studies and assigned tasks. The results may be reflected in less use of some certain strategies even though these strategies were thought to be advantageous.

The data emerging from this research have certain implications for language teachers. The teacher's role in strategy training is important. The teacher should learn about the students, their interest, motivations, and learning styles. The teacher can learn what language learning strategies his/her students appear to be using by observing their behavior in class. It is a fact that each learner within the same classroom may have different learning styles and varied awareness of the use of strategies. Thus, the language teacher needs to realise the individual differences among learners in various settings and contexts as well. O'Malley and Chamot introduce the following steps to strategy instruction:

. . . the teacher first identifies or shows students for their current language strategies, explains the rationale and application for using additional learning strategies, provides opportunities and materials for practice, and evaluate or assist students to evaluate their degree of success with new learning strategies.(1990, pp. 157-59)

There appears a need for more comprehensive research on a wide range of variables affecting language learning strategies employed by ESL learners such as cultural background, beliefs, learning style, motivation, attitude, etc. Moreover, research on the frequency of use of the certain language strategies and the choice of given strategies is recommended since it is helpful for both learners and teachers.

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How Facebook Affect Political Communication in Thailand?

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Introduction

> "Thai politics can seem chaotic, arcane, esoteric, and beyond comprehension. The drama has such an unlikely cast of characters: one of Asia's few surviving monarchs; starring roles for generals, retired generals, and provincials boss politicians rumoured to be involved in smuggling, drag-running, gambling, and arms trading; walk-on parts for small-time lawyers, lay ascetics, and retired policeman; and a chorus of strutting gangsters, professional opinion-makers, vociferous monks, new media moguls, and cashiered colonels. The big scenes are full of coups, demonstrations, crumbling collations. The plot is hard to follow because the characters change sides so regularly. The whole script is overloaded with rumour, scandal, anonymous pamphlets, corruption charges, and backstairs intrigue."
>
> (Phongpaichit and Baker, 1998, p.217)

The above is how Pongpaichit and Baker summarize Thai politics in the years till 1998. The same political ideology could still be used to described Thai politics from 2000 – 2011. The differences are the rapid changes in government, the deeper level of polarization of protesters in the political demonstrations and the emergence of new media and social networking sites bringing alternative political channels to Thai society. As a result, such channel of communication had influenced the way in which people communicate about Thai politics.

Social networking sites are defined as "large website(s) that hosts a community of users, and makes it easy for those users to communicate with one another. Social network enables users to share experiences and opinions with one another via status updates, short text messages that are posted for public view by all of that person's friends on the site" (Miller, 2011, p.8). Examples of social networking sites include Twitter and Facebook.

Social networking sites have also became part of the political communication landscape during contemporary Thai political crisis. Since the 2006 coup, Thaksin Shinawatra (former prime minister) was exiled from Thailand. The Thai government has prevented him from reaching his Red Shirt supporters via telecast (Carthew, 2010). Thaksin started to use social networking sites as a communication tool to shape his political image and therefore, he started the Twitter trend in Thailand. Thaksin had an estimated 65,000 followers on his Twitter page during the crackdown in Bangkok in May 2010 (Carthew, 2010).

The number of Thai Facebook users has increased dramatically from 2.4 million to more than 5.3 million users since the 2006 coup (Carthew, 2010) due to the ongoing political crisis in Thailand and the limitations of mainstream media news reports. Carthew refers Thaksin's way of communication as 'Thaksin's Twitter Revolution'.

Social networking sites have also been used to network people of different political viewpoints during the Red Shirt and Yellow Shirt political uprising and the 2011 election in

Thailand. There has been an increased number of research looking at the use of social networking sites for political communication in other context. However, as there is a lack of research in the use new media in Thai political communication, this current research explores how the use of Facebook social networking sites affect political communication and politics in Thailand.

The objective of the current paper is to review the literature of the relationship between media and politics in Thailand and social networking sites research. Also, the current paper attempts to outline the current research approach.

The Role of Media in Thai Politics

In a broad view, the role of media in democracies is to act as a tool to communicate with and inform citizens adequately about politics. The media acts as the agents of communication to transfer messages into text, sound and images to mass audiences in order to keep them up to date with political issues. To be more specific, McCargo (2003, p.3-4) outlined that the roles of media in Thai politics as follows:

Agent of Stability: The media is in charge in helping to preserve social and political order.
Agent of Restraint: The media do the daily monitoring of the political order by checking and telling media audience on what the government is doing.
Agent of Change: "Helping to shape political changes during time of crisis." (p.3-4)

According to Chaisang (2009, p.137), "Good media have a duty to present news and information to society, which should be true, neutral and harm no one. And the media should take responsibility for what they present." He argued that the Thai media are not neutral as there has been a trend that Thai media clearly identifying themselves as belonging to political parties. This reflects the limited extent of journalistic professionalism in Thailand as people expect professional objective media to be neutral and not take sides in politics.

As a result, the role of media in Thailand varies according to the media ownership and media audience. Throughout the contemporary Thai political crisis, Thai media have claimed that they are neutral and objective and are reporting from *fair and objective* points of view. However, although two news channels might be reporting about the same agenda, but the way in which the agenda is bring framed can differ according to ownership of the news agency and the media audience. It is therefore challenging to generalize the role of media in Thai politics.

The Role of Politics in Thai Media

Thai politicians try to have close personal ties to newspaper editors and columnists in order to further their own objectives (McCargo, 2003, p.137-9). This means that people who have power can influence media coverage and they can have the interpersonal relationship with news editor and journalists as a 'reliable' elite source, convincing them to report the news according to their own interest. This part of the literature will outline how Thaksin tried to influence the mainstream media before and during this time in office.

Thaksin's business conglomerate is mainly comprised telecommunication and media holdings. Thaksin's family has invested in an advertising company (Matchbox), television station, internet provider and satellite television and satellite concessions (Ockey, 2004). The ex-prime minister also owned the *Independent Television* (iTV) for propaganda purpose and for promoting government policy. This further suggests his expertise on media conglomeration and that the people who have power and wealth can have control over media. When he had control over his own media, he was able to order assets investigations into journalists who were critical about him.

According to Ockey (2007, p.134), critics have asserted that Thaksin had weakened the independence of the media in Thailand, especially television and radio and to a lesser degree the internet and the print media. In addition, Thaksin had also shown an unwillingness to tolerate criticism, stifling both public and parliamentary debate**.**

The Thaksin government used all the recourses at its disposal to prevent public debate and political participation (Rattikalchalakorn, 2009). During the Thaksin administration, there were significant changes in television programming. There were shorter news programme broadcast. The agenda set for television broadcasting were reprioritized towards government action, crime and human interest stories. (Phongpaichit and Baker, 2009). Therefore, there was little space for parliamentary opposition, protest and non-insitutional politics.

Entertainment content, especially game shows, increased in television programming (Phongpaichit and Baker, 2009). As the Thai press and the public platform were criticizing political leaders during the Thaksin administration, Thaksin deployed both old and new methods to bring such criticism under control (Phongpaichit and Baker, 2009). "Thaksin Shinawatra took such a pedagogic stance toward the Thai media, suggesting that journalists should learn to be constructive rather than critical in reporting on government policy." (Rattikalchalakorn, 2009, p.11). Thaksin was controlling the mainstream media in Thailand, limiting criticism of his policies and conflicts in the Thai society. The freedom of media in Thailand had declined since the start of Thaksin government and there has been an increased of media regulation in Thailand.

Thaksin also used the media as a state tool and his rise to power had serious implications for media freedom in Thailand (Woodier, 2008). It could be said that Yingluck Shinnawatra, who won the July 3rd election also made the best use of both new media and old media to portray their party's image. Such methods and strategies of making use of media during the campaign and during their time as prime ministers have a clear media effect on Thai voters.

One of the ways to prevent or minimize future protests and crackdowns is through media reformation. According to Carthew (2010):

> The media reform committee was expected to concentrate on accelerating the reform of state media and regulation of the state-owned broadcast media; investigate and solve problems relating to press freedom; improve self-governing mechanisms covering media organizations; improve the training of professional media practitioners and strength organizations that study and monitor the media.

As mainstream media plays an important role in conveying political information to people who do not have access to the internet, media audiences expect reports to come from a *true* and *fair* point of view. Although middle class people have shifted to use social networking sites for political communication, a large number of the Thai population still rely on broadcast reports, print and radio to know what is going on around them.

Thus, Thai politician such as Thaksin was able to influence and regulate the media for political purpose. As a result of political influence on mainstream media, it has becoming difficult to generalize if media is regulated according to the public interest or the government interest. The extent to which such influence impacts upon Thai society depends highly on how Thai people respond to and view the situation.

New Media and Thai Politics

There have been changes in trend of media consumption as new media emerged into Thai society during the contemporary political crisis. Social networking sites such as Facebook and Twitter have allowed Thai people of the same interest to be connected in the same network and to be more interactive about Thai politics. More Thai people are involved in political interaction on the internet, allowing them to be more connected to the country politics. Though the emergence of the internet has provided alternative channel for Thai people to communicate about politics, the mainstream media such as television, newspapers and radio are still on high consumption as the majority of Thai people still lack the access of new media technology in Thailand. About 73% of the population still does not have access to the internet ("Thai Facebook Statistics," 2012).

"The personal image of political leaders is a focus of contemporary political communication … a process in which to produce political texts and images, control the flow information within and across organizations, and manage relations with the mass media and the public …" (Craig (2004, p.130) cited in Rattikalchalakorn, 2009, p.10). Having new media as another channel for political communication in Thailand has diversified the type of people involve in political communication. Political communication does not only involve politicians, but scholars and journalists are being part of political communication in the new media ecosystem. They have their own social networking accounts to communicate directly with Thai people who have interest in them.

"Diversity and change are the key to understand today's media."(McCargo, 2012, p.220). With the development of communication technology, media are becoming increasingly diverse. Thus, political change can occur rapidly as political news and information takes less time to reach media audience and more interaction exists between politicians and citizens. Having a diverse media platform does contribute towards political change within of a country, with the potential changes ranging from radical (as in the case of the Arab spring) and more subtle.

Social Networking Sites for Political Communication

Social networking sites enhance the quality of image and reputation for public figures, which is an essential focus in contemporary political communication. Political communication is "a process in which to produce political texts and images, control the flow information within and across organizations, and manage relations with the mass media and the public …" (Craig (2004, p.130) cited in Rattikalchalakorn, 2009, p.10).

As social networking sites allow users to be networked according to the same political interest, users' homepage have been personalized according to what and who they are eager to know. In addition, users are able to experience real-time and two-way communication, which enhance the efficiency of the flow of information through such way of communication.

As quoted from Valenzuela, et al (2012), "On one hand, social networking sites seem to reduce the costs of collective action, enabling citizens to organize themselves more easily and to voice their concerns more publicly. On the other, there is the risk of furthering inequality if the population of social networking users is skewed toward the technological savvy and those with high human, social and economic capital (Valenzuela et al, 2012). Therefore, researchers should be thinking if political communication in the social networking age is moving towards including people who have access to social networking, while excluding people who lack access to technology and computer literacy. As the country become greatly divided with political views, such channel of communication is crucial for people to share and access political news from the political players themselves. Communication becomes decentralized on the internet, which means that censorship of the internet will be less tenable for government than censorship of the old media (Bailard, 2012, p.333).

The user-generated content formed in virtual communities indicates the spread of power in news production, enabling citizens become more involved in the generation of content rather than remaining as largely-passive consumers. Jonsson and Ornebring (2010) argue that interactivity and user-generated content in the online news media will enhance democratic development but will not shift the power over media regardless of the degree of participation or interaction. Such interaction comes in different types including online newspapers and YouTube videos (which give space for readers to comment on a particular topic) blogs, websites and broad online discussions about a particular topic, as well as informal discussions on social networking websites.

In addition to Jonsson and Ornebring's (2010) views on user-generated content, Cheshire and Antin (2008) refer to such a way of gathering information as accessing the *information pool*, in which digital information goods are collected and transmitted in the computer network and can be accessed by individuals. Such ways of formulating the information pool allows individuals to contribute text and multi-media content. People who do not contribute are considered 'free-riders' as they only consume and use the information (Cheshire and Antin, 2008).

Gatekeeping is a process of 'culling and crafting countless bits of information into the limited number of messages that reach people each day' (Shoemaker and Vos, 2009, p.1). It is a lengthy and long-established way to determine which information is selected (Shoemaker and Vos, 2009, p.1), what content will be used and what the nature of news will be. Furthermore, news editors also decide which images should be used to portray the news visually. Such process could lead to what Street (2001) refers as 'unwitting bias'. It is challenging to know what news editors' intention with such selection. Though social networking sites users hold the freedom to post anything, but a gatekeeping process still exists as they decide on what to post and what not to post.

Communicating via social networking sites has been referred to as 'networked journalism' and it has shortened the gatekeeping process (Beckett and Mansell, 2008). But, if social networking sites users depend highly on social networking sites for news, they may end up getting too much information, face the problem of data mining and deciding on which information is relevant to what they are looking for.

The difference between new media and old media is the decentralization of decisions-making for to post news. This makes people concerned about the quality of information emanating from social networking sites. It does not cost any money and there is no time limit to make a post on social networking sites, therefore politicians can contribute as many posts, videos and photographs as they want. But what really motivates people to participate and contribute to the information pool is ‘social approval’ (Cheshire and Antin, 2008), which looks at the extent to which other people liked their last contribution to the information pool.

In short, social networking sites have not only decentralized the communication hierarchy, but they have also allowed internet users to be the producers of news and information. Such forms of communication involve both real-time communication and two-way communication, where interaction enhances online communication. Old media have to challenge with social networking sites in order to maintain their demand.

About the Research

After reviewing the literature of media and politics in the Thai context and the literature of the use of social networking sites in political communication, the current research found that there is a lack of research done about the use of social networking sites for political communication in Thailand. It has becoming difficult to ignore this area of research as social networking sites have been used to mobilize contemporary social movement, 2011 general election campaign, and for the purpose of daily public relations of politicians. Moreover, social networking sites have diversified the type of people involving in online political communication. This includes journalists, scholars and netizens who want to express their political views in online communication. As a result, it is important to explore into how social networking sites affect Thai political communication and Thai politics.
The current research splits its focus into different parts by having the centre idea of the following main research questions:

Research Questions

1. How Facebook affect election campaign during the Bangkok Governor Election 2013?

2. How contemporary Thai political discourse is mediated by Facebook?

Methodology

> “The world is complex. There are no simple explanations for things. Rather, events are the result of multiple factors coming together and interacting in complex and often unanticipated ways. Therefore any methodology that attempts to understand experience and explain situations will have to be complex. We believe that it is important to capture as much of this complexity in our research as possible, at the same time knowing that capturing it all is virtually impossible. We try to obtain multiple perspectives on events and build variation into our analytical schemes. We realized that, to understand experience, that experience must be located within and can’t be divorced from the larger events in a social, political cultural, racial, gender-related, informational, and technological framework and therefore these are essential aspects of our analyses.”
>
> (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p.8)

There are many complex issues involving in social science research. As every human are exposed to different forms of medium and have different experience their political life, it is impossible to provide a simple explanation of how things work in the society. To explore the research questions formulated in the current research, triangulation methodology have been chosen.

Triangulation is "the use of two or more research methods to address the same research question. If results from different methods agree, researchers can have greater confidence in their findings" (Treadwell, 2011, p.217). This means that it will be too simplistic to draw a conclusion by using one method to answer the research question. By using more than one method to approach the current research, the results gain from one method will be able to cross check with the result gain from another method, which will also increase the validity of the research (Read and Marsh, 2002). This part of the paper outlines the literature of content analysis and interview and explains how these methods fit into the research questions.

Methodology 1: Content Analysis

> Content analysis is a research technique for making replicate and valid inference from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use.
>
> (Krippendorff, 2013, p24)

The purpose of using content analysis for the current research is to study the content of Thai political page on Facebook during the Bangkok Governor Election campaign 2013. The sampling will include candidate proposed to compete with each other in the campaign, Thai journalists, scholars and netizens who use Facebook as part of political communication during the election campaign (message producers). The data will be coded according to the coding scheme set up for the research. "*The message*" of Facebook post is an important element that affects Facebook users' political views and political participation in Thailand. The research explores into how individual ownership of Facebook account affect the agenda and framing of the message.

According to Burnham et al (2004), content analysis can be divided into qualitative and quantitative method. In terms of qualitative content analysis, a hypothesis of the research topic is needed to the appropriate sources of evidence in order to select a sample of text to investigate and analyze. Qualitative content analysis is a subjective methodology, meaning that the judgment and analysis is based on the expertise of the researcher to study and interpret the meaning of the message (Burnham et al, 2004).

On the other hand, quantitative content analysis is an objective as well as systematic method for analyzing rapidly increasing communications produced by governments, companies and other organizations, but in particular by newspapers and television (Burnham et al., 2004). Analysis of the content is done in numerical form in order to provide a statistical generalization of the frequency of different type of ideas, opinions and facts appearing in the content. Being objective means that the researcher's "personal idiosyncrasies and biases" should not affect the findings of the research (Wimmer and Dominick, 2006, p151).

As content analysis is replicate and valid, it is also systematic, meaning the content of communication data must be "selected according to explicit and consistently applied rules" (Wimmer and Dominick, 2006, p.151). This also means that all the content are treated in the same manner and only one guidelines is used for evaluating the research (Wimmer and Dominick, 2006). The researcher select united for analysis and categorize the data using clearly defined criteria and the researcher cannot arbitrarily pick what aspect to analyzed (Treadwell, 2011). By doing so, the methodology and the procedure to conduct the research can be duplicated by other researchers to double check the results obtained from content analysis and they should yield the same results.

Methodology 2: Interview

The researcher intents to interview scholars, journalist/news agency, public relations/ politicians and citizens, who are the main group of political message provider, use Facebook social networking for political communication. This part of the methodology will discuss the strategy that these groups of people have on producing message, before they post them on Facebook, the benefits and challenges they face in using such form of communication to produce message. The researcher will ask the interviewees for permission for the interview to be recorded.

Conducting interview will enable the current research to gain a deeper understanding and to formulate a critical analysis of the use of social networking sites by different groups of people. Interview allow one-to-one contact between the researcher and the participant for longer period of time in order to gain a more in-depth understanding of the participants (Rubin et al, 2005). In addition, interviewing people will provide the research with a detailed background about the reasons why participants provide such answers and interviewers enable the researcher to elaborate data concerning participants' opinions, values, motivations, experiences and feelings (Wimmer and Dominick, 2006). The success of intensive interview is dependent on the rapport established between the interviewers and the participant (Wimmer and Dominick, 2006).

As different group of these users might provide different information according to their professionalism and expertise in political communication, a semi-structured interview will the interviewer to develop questions based on the answers provided by the interviewee of different groups. Semi-structured interview is a type of non-standardized interview, which the researcher will have a number of questions prepared to cover the intended scope of the interview (Flick, 2011).

The aim of semi-structured interview is to obtained individual's view based on the participant on an issue (Flick, 2011). The interview does not have to stick on the exact formulations of questions during the interview, but the questions can be developed according to answers that the participant gives during the interview. As different Facebook message providers have different experience of using Facebook for political communication, they might give different viewpoints during the interview. Therefore, semi-structure interview is chosen to fit into such scope of research.

Conclusion

Due to the raise in social networking users in Thailand and the increased in number network of politics on social networking, the current research is still ongoing in both the literature review and data collection. Though little have been researched about the social networking and political communication in Thailand, the current research attempts to explore at the content of message posted by politicians, journalists and academics who the main social networking producers in Thailand by using content analysis and interview. The result gained is important to provide a foundation understanding of how social networking Facebook affects the way in which these groups of people affect the political communication in Thai society.

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The effectiveness of Communicative Approach in teaching English as a second language by public school teachers in Baguio City

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Abstract

This study dealt with finding the effectiveness of Communicative Approach in teaching English as a second language by public school teachers of Baguio City, Philippines; specifically, the degree of effectiveness of using the approach along the four language skills; the difference in the degree of effectiveness of the approach when respondents are categorized according to some factors; and the degree of seriousness of specified problems encountered in the implementation of Communicative Approach in teaching English.

In using the communicative activities, which manifest Communicative Approach, the respondents considered them very useful in teaching English. In the overall rating, communicative activities along the four language skills were very effective. On the other hand, there were few activities which received low ratings. Nevertheless, their corresponding description was relatively high. This implied that using Communicative Approach in teaching English was definitely significant.

A number of respondents had no extensive idea or knowledge about the principles of Communicative Approach as indicated by the respondents' less frequency of using some of the important communicative activities in their teaching especially along reading and writing skills. The results of this study is indispensable to school administrators in designing and assessing curriculum textbooks and in evaluating instructional materials suitable to the communicative needs of students. Teachers are encouraged to use Communicative Approach in teaching and to select most appropriate activities for more functional or valuable interaction. Subsequently, these activities inspire students to feel more confident in using English in various functions or situations.

Keywords Communicative Approach, language skills, discourse competence, grammatical competence sociolinguistic competence, authentic materials, native language, accuracy, fluency

Introduction

Perhaps the majority of language teachers today, when asked to identify the methodology they employ in their classrooms, would mention "communicative" as the methodology of choice. However, when they are pressed to give a detailed account of what they mean by "communicative," explanations vary widely. Does communicative language teaching mean teaching conversation, an absence of grammar in a course, or an emphasis on open-ended discussion activities as the main features of a course? (Richards, 2004).

Communicative Approach is also called Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). CLT is an approach to the teaching of second and foreign languages that emphasizes interaction as the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. It is also referred to as communicative approach to the teaching of foreign language.

In effecting Communicative Approach in the classroom, the role of the teachers as facilitators is being justified. Freeman (1986) points out that teachers in communicative classrooms will save themselves from dominating the class in talking but will find themselves listening more. They are turning into active facilitators of their students' learning. Since students' performance is what matters the most, the teachers simply set up the activity and step back to act as referees.

With the importance of English in the world today and the demand to teach learners a working command of English to satisfy various communicative needs in their life, English teachers in many Asian countries have felt an urge to learn the newest methods of teaching. In Vietnam, for example, teachers of English recognize that traditional pedagogy, emphasizing the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary rather than communicative competence does not meet the requirements of English learning in an era of integration and globalization (Hiep,n.d.).

In the Philippines, students can comprehend English and can use it in writing. However, when they suddenly come face to face with real life situations that necessitate them to communicate their thoughts, they grope for appropriate words or expressions. It is here where Communicative Approach comes in. Communicative Approach offers solutions to this problem of floundering when interacting using the English language.

Statement of the problem

This study focused on finding the effectiveness of Communicative Approach in teaching English as a second language. Specifically, it sought answers to the following:

1. What is the degree of effectiveness of using Communicative Approach along the following skills:
   a. listening
   b. reading
   c. speaking
   d. writing

2. What is the difference in the degree of effectiveness of the Communicative Approach when respondents are categorized according to the following variables?
   a. gender
   b. educational attainment
   c. ethnic origin
   d. number of years in teaching English

3. What is the degree of seriousness of the problems encountered in the implementation of Communicative Approach in teaching English?

Methodology

Research design

The study used a descriptive research method particularly the survey method to obtain the degree of effectiveness in the use of Communicative Approach in teaching English as a second language. It also made use of causal-comparative method because it investigated the possible effect or influence of the profile variables on the degree of effectiveness of Communicative Approach.

The descriptive statistics was used because the degrees are measured by weighted means.

Population and locale of the study

The target subjects of the study were fifty (50) English teachers, 46 females and 4 males, at two public schools in Baguio City. These were Baguio City national High School and Pines City National High School.

Data gathering tools

A structured questionnaire on the four macro skills was prepared. Under each skill were communicative activities that were rated according to the degree of effectiveness. It used the descriptions very effective, effective, fairly effective and not effective to quantify them.

Data gathering procedure

First, the researcher administered her questionnaire to the respondents. Second, the respondents gave the frequency of use of the communicative activities. Third, the respondents described the degree of effectiveness of each activity according to their evaluation which was based on the students' performance. Fourth, the respondents checked some problems that hindered the successful implementation of Communicative Approach in language teaching. To boot, some personal information about the respondents were likewise examined to determine their significance in the study.

Treatment of data

To determine the extent of use of Communicative Approach in language teaching, frequency count, percentage, rank, and weighted mean were used.

Statistical Treatment

The descriptive statistical measure used in this study is the weighted mean which uses the following formula:

$$X_w = \frac{\sum_{I=1}^{K} fi\ Xi}{\sum fi}$$

Where: X_w = weighted mean

fi = frequency

Xi = weight

K = number of cells on categories

The inferential statistics used to test the hypothesis were the t-test and the F-test. The t-test was used to find out if significant difference occurred between means of two populations while the F-test (using the analysis of variants) was used to test significant difference among means of more than two populations.

The formula for F-test is the following:

$$tc = \frac{X_1 - X_0}{{}^{s}/\sqrt{n}}$$

Where: tc = computed t-values

X1 = observed weighted mean

Xo = Hypothesized mean

S = standard deviation

N = number of respondents

The formula for F-gt is as follows:

$$F_c = \frac{MS\ tr}{MSE}$$

Where F_c = computed F-value
MS tr = mean sum of squares of treatment
MSE = sum of squares of error

The 0.05 level of significance was used in the study.

Results and discussion

The degree of effectiveness of communicative activities which manifest Communicative Approach are evaluated by English teachers along the four language skills- listening, reading, speaking, and writing. On the other hand, some specified problems that can possibly thwart a successful implementation of communicative activities are identified and described. In addition, the degree of influence or effect of some of the respondents' profile variables are interpreted and analysed.

Table 1. Distribution of respondents according to specified profile variables

PROFILE VARIABLES	N	PERCENTAGE (%)
A. Gender		
Male	4	8.00
Female	46	92.00
Total	50	100.00
B. Educational Attainment		
Bachelor	19	38.00
Master's	28	56.00
Doctorate	3	6.00
Total	50	100.00
C. Ethnic Origin		
Ibaloi	15	30.00
Mt. Province	13	26.00
Ilocano	16	32.00
Other ethnic	6	12.00
Total	50	100.00
D. Number of Years in Teaching English		
1-3	11	22.00
4-7	16	32.00
8-15	10	20.00

16-25	7	14.00
26-45	6	12.00
Total	50	100.00

Standard Deviation = 0.192 Tc = 2.760
* Significant T.05 = 2.132

Table 1 shows the prominent bigger number of female teachers compared to the number of male teachers. This indicates that in terms of gender, female teachers are dominant in the public high schools of Baguio City. This female commonness is a fact not only in public schools but also in private schools.

In terms of educational attainment, majority of the respondents are master's degree holders. The high percentage of master's graduate is an indication that finishing this degree is an extremely important requirement for teachers in public schools.

Among the 50 respondents, the Ilocano ethnic origin has the highest percentage closely followed by the Ibaloi and Mountain Province ethnic origins. This distribution is explained by the fact that these three ethnic groups are the predominant residents of Baguio City.

As to the number of years in teaching, majority belongs to respondents whose experience in teaching English is in the range of 4-7 years. It is followed by the rest of the respondents who belong to 1-3 years, 8-15 years, 16-25 years and 26-45 years respectively. This distribution reveals that there are a great number of young teachers in public schools these days

Table 2a. Degree of effectiveness of using communicative activities as perceived by the teacher-respondents along listening skill

LISTENING	MEAN	DESCRIPTION	RANK
Listening for the Gist	3.10	Very Effective	2
Information Gap	2.98	Effective	4
Chinese Whisper	2.74	Effective	5
Following Directions	3.26	Very Effective	1
Guess Who's Talking	3.08	Very Effective	3
Total	3.03	Very Effective	

* = significant Tc = 2.760*
ns = not significant T.05 = 2.132

Standard Deviation = 0.192

Table 2a presents the different rating each listening activity receives. The overall numerical mean rating for listening is significantly higher than the expected value which is equivalent to the description "effective." In other words, the use of communicative activities is a general priority or emphasis among English teachers in public schools of Baguio City.

The activity, Following Directions, obtains the highest rank equivalent to "very effective" which implies that students enjoy giving directions basically because this is to them easier to carry out. Chinese Whisper ranks the lowest; this is because passing the message, especially a long one, from one student to the next is not expected to be accurate when it reaches the last person in line. Thus, the success (that entails enjoyment and satisfactory feeling the activity supposedly creates in students) is not achieved to a maximum degree. Therefore, the teacher needs to consider some factors such as the level of students, time and space when using this activity. In considering the level of students, it may be advisable to use what Yalden (1997) calls a "Proportional Approach." Proportional Approach is giving the students a chance to focus on activities that are in accordance to their level. He suggests that low learners focus on simple, common, and short vocabulary or phrase or sentence, while advanced-level students focus on the other. So in the case of the activity, Chinese Whispers, it is expected that if students understand the sentence, passing it accurately is possible.

Table 2b. Degree of effectiveness of using communicative activities as perceived by the teacher respondents along reading skill

READING	**MEAN**	**DESCRIPTION**	**RANK**
Vocabulary Bee	3.32	Very Effective	1
Scanning Race	3.20	Very Effective	3
Scrambled Paragraphs	3.18	Very Effective	4
Cloze Dictation	3.12	Very Effective	5
Prediction	3.22	Very Effective	2
Total	3.21	Very Effective	

Legend:

* = significant — Tc = 22.361*

ns = not significant — T.05 = 2.132

Standard Deviation = 0.073

Table 2b presents that all the communicative activities -Vocabulary Bee, Scanning Race, Scrambled Paragraphs, Cloze Dictation, and Prediction Relay- are described as very effective. This indicates that students enjoy and apparently prefer a communicative approach over traditional reading strategies which are often uninteresting or mechanical.

Table 2c. Degree of effectiveness of using communicative activities as perceived by the teacher-respondents along speaking skill

SPEAKING	MEAN	DESCRIPTION	RANK
Picture Strip Story	3.24	Very Effective	2
Talk Show	3.24	Very Effective	2
Newscast	3.06	Very Effective	3
Dialogue	3.36	Very Effective	1
Debates	3.94	Effective	4
Role Play / Simulation	3.36	Very Effective	1
Total	3.03	Very Effective	

Legend:
* = significant — Tc = 10.206*
ns = not significant — T.05 = 2.015
Standard Deviation = 0.168

Table 2c shows that almost all of the speaking activities receive a "very effective" description. This clearly indicates that the speaking activities are exciting and significant in developing the students' speaking ability.

The activities, Dialogue and Role Play/Drama, rank highest because in any language approach or method, these two are convenient and are valuable in students' mental and emotional development especially drama. In an attempt to illustrate the psycholinguistics feature of communicative language teaching, Ryan (2001) cites drama (a superb communicative activity) as an example. He says "Perhaps the value of drama can be summed up by Stern (1990) who looked into drama in second language learning from a psycholinguistic point of view. She says that drama heightens self-esteem, motivation, and spontaneity. It also increases capacity for empathy, and lowers sensitivity to rejection.

Table 2d. Degree of effectiveness of using communicative activities as perceived by the teacher-respondents along writing skill

WRITING	MEAN	DESCRIPTION	RANK
Editing Race	2.98	Effective	4
Letter to the editor	2.82	Effective	5
Movie Review	3.14	Very Effective	1
Skit Writing	3.12	Very Effective	2
Comics Writing	3.08	Very Effective	3
Total	3.03	Very Effective	

Legend:

* = significant Tc = 4.506*

ns = not significant T.05 = 2.132

Table 2d shows that the reading activities Movie Review, Skit Writing and Comics Writing receive "very effective" description while the Editing Race and Letter to the Editor are "effective."

Movie Review receives the highest rank chiefly because students enjoy motion pictures and appreciate writing about or reacting to movies. Consequently, these activities train students to be artistically and academically productive.

Letter to the editor is the lowest in evaluation because students do not find letter writing fun. Nevertheless, English teachers may think up remedies to work this out with the students. The teachers themselves know as much as anyone else does that letter writing is very helpful in honing the writing skill of students. Brown (2006) says "Make writing as realistic as possible." He adds that students should write for a real purpose and that there are varieties of writing the teachers can choose from.

Table 2e. English teachers' assessment on the degree of seriousness of specified problems

PROBLEMS	MEAN	DESCRIPTION
Class Size	3.38	Very Serious
Class Time	2.54	Serious
Teaching Load	3.00	Serious
Availability of Authentic Materials to be Used	2.96	Serious
The Extent of the Teacher's Training or Knowledge on Communicative Approach	2.44	Slightly Serious
Total	2.86	Serious

Legend:
* = significant Tc = 1.06 ns
ns = not significant T.05 – 2.132
Standard Deviation = 0.761

The problem on class size is described by the respondents as "very serious." The teachers feel that communicative activities would have been "very effective" if classes are relatively small in number. Since communicative activities involve a dialogue strategy, it is much easier for teachers to accomplish them when classrooms are not overcrowded.

On the other hand, class size should not be a hindrance in effecting communicative activities. In fact, a large number of students may be broken up into groups or pairs depending on the activity. As Freeman (2000) said that at times, the teacher is a co-communicator, but more often he establishes situations that prompt communication between and among students; they interact a great deal with one another. They do this in various configurations; pairs, triads, small groups, and whole group.

In addition, when Communicative Approach is put into practice in large classrooms, levels of learners need to be taken into account. The "Proportional Approach" of Yalden is very suitable in this instance.

The big number of students in a class especially in public schools is common not only in the Philippines but also in other parts of the world. Since these problems are inevitable and universal, teachers have to be more creative to resolve them.

Into the bargain, the following realities such as appropriate teaching load, availability of authentic materials, and class time are considered “serious” problems by the respondents. The extent of the teachers’ training or knowledge of Communicative Approach is “slightly serious.” One can, therefore deduce from the teachers’ evaluation that the problems they described as more serious are those that are beyond their control. There is a need to seek for possible way out to obtain maximum effectiveness in the implementation of communication activities.

Whether one or all of these mentioned problems exist, the teachers’ creativity and resourcefulness must never be out of hand in any teaching situations. As Ryan (2001) guarantees that disadvantages can be solved if careful thought and planning are done especially if teachers want to encourage students to have a positive attitude towards language learning.

Table 3a. Level of effectiveness in using the Communicative Approach along listening according to gender

LISTENING SKILL	MALE			FEMALE		
	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank
Listening for the Gist	2.50	E	2	3.17	VE	2
Information Gap	2.50	E	2	3.00	E	3
Chinese Whispers	2.25	FE	3	2.83	E	4
Following Directions	3.00	E	1	3.28	VE	1
Guess Who’s Talking	2.25	FE	3	3.17	VE	2
Total	2.95	E		3.09	VE	

Legend:

* = significant

ns = not significant

Tc = 0.51 ns

T.05 – 1.860

Standard Deviation = 0588

Table 3a shows that the overall mean of listening activity given by the male respondents is equivalent to the description "effective" while the overall mean given by females is equivalent to "very effective." On the other hand, there is no significant difference in the level of effectiveness of the listening activities on the whole when the evaluation of males and females are compared. This finding implies that gender is not a factor as far as the perceived effectiveness of listening activities in the implementation of Communicative Approach is concerned.

Table 3b. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along reading according to gender

READING SKILL	MALE			FEMALE		
	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank
Vocabulary Bee	3.50	VE	1	3.37	VE	1
Scanning Race	2.25	FE	4	3.30	VE	2
Scrambled Paragraphs	2.25	FE	4	3.25	VE	3
Cloze Dictation	2.75	E	2	3.15	VE	4
Prediction Relay	2.50	E	3	3.28	VE	3
Total	2.65	E		3.28	VE	

Legend:
* = significant   Tc = 2.603*
ns = not significant   T.05 – 1.860
Standard Deviation = 0.518

Both females and males describe Vocabulary Bee as very effective. However, both genders differ in their evaluation for the other listening activities. The males consider Scanning Race and Scrambled Paragraphs as fairly effective while the females regard them as very effective. These differing perceptions may be rationalized by what Villamin et.al (2001), cited by Lydio (2005), explain that females by nature are more oriented to quiet activities which enhance readiness for reading and that they are more patient and can work longer. Males, on the other hand, are aggressive by nature. This means that males have more interest to bring into play speedy activities, as reflected by their evaluation on Vocabulary Bee being number 1 in rank with high mean value.

The numerical values state that there is a significant difference in the degree of effectiveness of the reading activities by comparison between males' and females' evaluation. This result implies that gender matters a lot in the perceived degree of effectiveness of Communicative Approach along reading.

Table 3c. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along speaking according to gender

SPEAKING SKILL	MALE			FEMALE		
	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank
Picture Strip Story	2.00	NE	4	3.35	VE	3
Talk Show	2.25	FE	3	3.35	VE	3
Newscast	1.75	NE	5	3.17	VE	4
Dialogue	3.00	E	1	3.41	VE	2
Debate	2.75	E	2	2.89	E	5
Role Play/Simulation	2.75	E	2	3.43	VE	1
Total	2.42	FE		3.27	VE	

Legend:

* = significant Tc = 3.899*

ns = not significant T.05 – 1.812

Standard Deviation = 0.492

The males' overall evaluation for speaking is "fairly effective" and the females' overall evaluation for it is "very effective." There is an obvious variation in the evaluation of speaking activities according to the gender of respondents. There is a significant difference in the level of effectiveness of the speaking activities in general when the evaluation of males and females are compared. This finding suggests that gender is a factor to be considered in the perceived effectiveness of speaking activities in the Communicative Approach.

Table 3d. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along writing according to gender

WRITING SKILL	MALE			FEMALE		
	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank
Editing Race	2.75	E	2	2.91	E	3
Letter to the Editor	2.25	FE	3	2.83	E	4
Movie Review	3.00	E	1	3.20	VE	1
Skit Writing	2.25	FE	3	3.20	VE	1
Comics Writing	2.25	FE	3	3.13	VE	2
Total	2.50	E		3.05	VE	

Legend:

* = significant Tc = 4.83*

ns = not significant T.05 – 1.860

Standard Deviation = 0.0354

The overall mean score given by the males on writing skill is equivalent to "effective" while the females' evaluation is "very effective." Evidently, there is a significant difference in the level of effectiveness of the writing activities in general when the evaluation of males and females are compared. This finding indicates that gender plays a significant role in the perceived effectiveness of writing activities in the Communicative Approach.

Table 4a. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along listening as perceived by respondents according to educational attainment

LISTENING SKILL	**BACHELOR**		**MASTER'S**			**DOCTORATE**			
	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank
Listening for the Gist	3.28	VE	3	3.07	VE	2	3.67	VE	2
Information Gap	3.37	VE	1	3.07	VE	2	3.00	E	4
Chinese Whispers	2.28	FE	5	2.72	E	3	3.00	E	4
Following Directions	3.33	VE	2	3.24	VE	1	4.00	VE	1
Guess Who's Talking	3.06	VE	4	3.24	VE	1	3.33	VE	3
Total	3.06	VE	3.07		VE		3.40	VE	

ANOVA

Source of Variance	**df**		**SSS**	**MS**
Colum	**2**		**0.3666**	**0.1833**
Error	**12**		**1.7691**	**0.1474**
Total	**14**		**2.1357**	
	F-Tabulated	**0.05 0.01**		
Fc = u.244ns		**3.89 6.93**		

The analysis of variance shows no significant difference in the evaluations of the three groups-bachelor, master's and doctorate. This means that as far as the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in the aspect of listening is concerned, the educational attainment does not in any way affect the perception of respondents. Therefore, the degree of effectiveness is the same to all the degree holders.

Table 4b. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along reading as perceived by respondents according to educational attainment.

READING SKILL	**BACHELOR**			**MASTER'S**			**DOCTORATE**		
	Mean	Description	Rank	Mean	Description	Rank	Mean	Description	Rank
Vocabulary Bee	3.39	Very Effective	1	3.34	Very Effective	1	3.33	Very Effective	2
Scanning Race	3.22	Very Effective	3	3.21	Very Effective	2	3.33	Very Effective	2
Scrambled Paragraphs	3.28	Very Effective	2	3.14	Very Effective	3	3.00	Effective	3
Cloze Dictation	3.11	Very Effective	4	3.07	Very Effective	4	3.67	Very Effective	1
Prediction Relay	3.28	Very Effective	2	3.07	Very Effective	4	3.67	Very Effective	1
Total	3.26	Very Effective	3.17		Very Effective		3.40	Very Effective	

ANOVA

Source of Variance	**df**		**MS**	
Colum	**2**		**0.0697**	
Error	**12**		**0.034**	
Total	**14**			
	F-Tabulated	**0.05 0.01**		
Fc = 2.05 ns		**3.89 6.93**		

The analysis of variance shows no significant difference in the evaluation of the three groups. This means that as concerns the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in the reading skill, the educational attainment does not at all affect the perception of respondents. In other words, the level of effectiveness along reading is the same to the bachelor, master's and doctorate degree holders.

Table 4c. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along speaking as perceived by respondents according to educational attainment.

SPEAKING SKILL	BACHELOR			MASTER'S			DOCTORATE		
	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank
Picture Strip Story	2.78	E	5	3.45	VE	1	3.33	VE	2
Talk Show	3.28	VE	1	3.24	VE	3	4.00	VE	1
Newscast	2.83	E	4	3.07	VE	4	4.00	VE	1
Dialogue	3.27	VE	2	3.41	VE	2	4.00	VE	1
Debates	2.39	FE	6	2.90	E	5	3.00	E	3
Role Play/ Simulation	2.89	E	3	3.45	VE	1	4.00	VE	1
Total	2.91	E	3.25		VE		3.72	VE	

ANOVA

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	
Colum	2	2.0075	1.0038	
Error	16	3.7941	0.2371	
Total	18	5.8016		
	F-Tabulated	0.05 0.01		
Fc = 4.233*		3.63 6.23		

Table 4c presents that doctorate degree holders have a significantly higher evaluation on the effectiveness of the specified activities compared to the evaluation of both the master's and the bachelor degree holders.

The analysis of variance shows significant difference in the evaluation of the three groups as far as effectiveness level of the communicative activities in the area of speaking is concerned. This indicates that educational attainment affects the groups' perception of the effectiveness of using Communicative Approach along speaking.

Table 4d. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along writing as perceived by respondents according to educational attainment

WRITING SKILL	BACHELOR			MASTER'S			DOCTORATE		
	Mean	Description	Rank	Mean	Description	Rank	Mean	Description	Rank
Editing Race	2.94	Effective	4	3.07	Very Effective	2	3.00	Effective	2
Letter to the Editor	2.67	Effective	5	2.79	Effective	3	3.00	Effective	2
Movie Review	3.06	Very Effective	2	3.34	Very Effective	1	3.33	Very Effective	1
Skit Writing	3.00	Effective3	3.34	3.34	Very Effective	1	3.33	Very Effective	1
Comics Writing	3.11	Fairly Effective	1	3.07	Very Effective	2	3.00	Effective	2
Total	2.96	Effective	3.12		Very Effective		3.13	Very Effective	

ANOVA

Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	
Colum	2	0.0977	1.0489	
Error	12	0.4549	0.0379	
Total	14	0.5526	0.0379	
	F-Tabulated			
Fc = 1.289 ns		0.05 0.01		
		3.89 6.23		

In general, both the master's and the bachelor degree holders consider the communicative activities along writing as very effective while the doctorate considers them effective. On the other hand,

the analysis of variance indicates that there is no significant difference in the evaluation of the three groups. This means that educational attainment does not affect the perception of respondents on the effectiveness of Communicative Approach in the aspect of writing.

Table 5a. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along listening according to ethnic group

LISTENING SKILL	BENGUET			MT. PROVINCE			ILOCANO			OTHER ETHNIC ORIGINS		
	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank
Listening for the Gist	3.20	VE	3	3.31	VE	2	3.00	E	2	3.33	VE	2
Information Gap	3.13	VE	4	3.23	VE	3	2.81	E	4	3.00	E	4
Chinese Whispers	2.93	E	5	2.77	E	5	2.75	E	5	2.50	E	5
Following Directions	3.40	VE	1	3.38	VE	1	3.13	VE	1	3.50	VE	1
Guess Who's Talking	3.27	VE	2	3.15	VE	4	2.88	E	3	3.17	VE	3
Total	3.19	VE		3.17	VE		2.91	E		3.10	VE	

ANOVA

Source of Variance	df		SS			MS
Column	3		0.2318			0.0773
Error	16		1.0301			0.0644
Total	19		1.2619			
Fc = 1.20 ns		F – Tabulated		1.05 3.24	0.01 5.29	

Table 5a presents that all the four groups of respondents consider Following Directions as the highest ranking listening activity. The rank is equivalent to "very effective." This is followed by Listening for the Gist and Guess Who's Talking respectively; both of these activities have evaluations equivalent to "very effective" description. On the other hand, the evaluation for the other activities in the listening skill is varied.

The analysis of variance shows no significant difference in the evaluation of the four groups from different ethnic origins as shown by the computed F-value. This simply means that ethnic origin does not affect the perception of the respondents. Thus, the effectiveness of all the listening activities is of the same degree to the English teachers from all the ethnic groups.

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Table 5b. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along reading according to ethnic group

READING SKILL	BENGUET			MT. PROVINCE			ILOCANO			OTHER ETHNIC ORIGINS		
	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank	Mean	D	Rank
Vocabulary Bee	3.40	VE	1	3.31	VE	2	3.13	VE	2	3.83	VE	1
Scanning Race	3.20	VE	4	3.38	VE	1	3.13	VE	2	3.17	VE	2
Scrambled Paragraphs	3.33	VE	2	3.38	VE	1	2.94	E	4	2.83	E	4
Cloze Dictation	3.27	VE	3	3.15	VE	3	3.00	E	3	3.00	E	3
Prediction Relay	3.00	E	5	3.38	VE	1	3.25	VE	1	2.83	E	4
Total	3.24	VE		3.32	VE		3.09	VE		3.13	VE	

ANOVA

Source of Variance	df		SS			MS
Column	3		0.1632			0.0554
Error	16		1.8815			0.0551
Total	19		1.0447			
Fc = 1.005 ns		F – Tabulated		0.05	0.01	
				3.24	5.29	

Table 5b shows that the respondents from all the four ethnic groups describe most of the communicative activities along reading as "very effective."

The analysis of variance shows no significant difference in the evaluation of the four ethnic groups. This means that as much as the effectiveness of the communicative activities in the reading is concerned, ethnic origin does not affect the perception of respondents. Therefore, the degree of effectiveness of Communicative Approach along the reading skill is the same to all the groups.

Table 5c. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along speaking according to ethnic group

SPEAKING SKILL	**BENGUET**			**MT. PROVINCE**			**ILOCANO**			**OTHER ETHNIC ORIGINS**		
	Mean	D	R	Mean	D	R	Mean	D	R	Mean	D	R
Picture Strip Story	3.27	VE	3	3.31	VE	1	3.06	VE	4	3.17	VE	4
Talk Show	3.33	VE	2	3.08	VE	2	3.44	VE	1	3.33	VE	3
Newscast	3.33	VE	2	2.92	E	3	3.13	VE	3	3.00	E	5
Dialogue	3.40	VE	1	3.31	VE	1	3.38	VE	2	3.67	VE	1
Debates	2.40	FE	4	2.69	E	5	2.94	E	5	3.33	VE	3
Simulation	3.33	VE	2	2.85	E	4	3.38	VE	2	3.50	VE	2
Total	3.18	VE		3.03	E		3.22	VE		3.33	VE	

ANOVA

Source of Variance	**df**		**SS**			**MS**
Column	**3**		**0.1632**			**0.1306**
Error	**16**		**1.8815**			**0.0601**
Total	**19**		**1.0447**			
Fc = 2.172 ns		**F – Tabulated**		**0.05 3.24**	**0.01 5.29**	

Most of the communicative activities are considered "very effective" by the respondents. The other activities are all "effective."

The analysis of variance shows no significant difference in the evaluation of the ethnic groups. This means that as far as the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in the speaking skill is concerned, ethnic origin does not affect the perception of respondents. Hence, the degree is lower than the tabular value of significance.

Table 5d. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along writing according to ethnic group

WRITING SKILL	**BENGUET**			**MT. PROVINCE**			**ILOCANO**			**OTHER ETHNIC ORIGINS**		
	Mean	D	R	Mean	D	R	Mean	D	R	Mean	D	R
Editing Race	2.87	E	1	2.85	E	3	3.19	VE	1	3.50	V	1
Letter to the Editor	2.67	E	2	3.00	E	2	2.81	E	2	2.83	E	3
Movie Review	3.33	VE	3	3.08	VE	1	3.19	VE	1	3.5	VE	1
Skit Writing	3.27	VE	1	3.08	VE	1	3.19	VE	1	3.33	VE	2
comics Writing	3.33	VE	1	2.77	E	4	2.81	E	2	3.50	VE	1
Total	3.09	VE		2.96	E		3.04	E		3.33	V	

ANOVA

Source of Variance	**df**			**SS**		**MS**
Column	**4**			**0.6041**		**0.1510**
Error	**20**			**0.6955**		**0.0848**
Total	**24**			**2.2996**		
Fc = 1.781 ns		**F – Tabulated**	**0.05 0.01 2.87 4.43**			

Table 5d shows that three ethnic groups evaluate the use of Communicative Approach along writing as very effective. These groups are other ethnic origins, Benguet and Ilocano. However, Mt, province evaluates it as “effective.”

The analysis of variance manifests that there is no significant difference in the evaluation of the four groups. This means that when it comes to the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in the improvement of the students’ writing skill, ethnic origin does not affect the perception of the respondents. Therefore, in so far as writing is concerned, degree of effectiveness is the same to English teachers from all the ethnic groups.

Table 6a. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along listening according to number of years in teaching English

LISTENING SKILL	1-3 YEARS		4-7 YEARS			8-15 YEARS			16-25 YEARS			26-45 YEARS			
	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R
Listening for the Gist	3.09	VE	1	3.19	VE	3	3.60	VE	1	3.29	VE	2	3.17	VE	2
Information Gap	2.82	E	2	3.13	VE	4	3.60	VE	1	3.14	VE	3	3.00	E	3
Chinese Whispers	2.73	E	3	2.81	E	5	2.90	E	3	3.00	E	4	2.33	FE	4
Following Directions	3.09	VE	1	3.44	VE	1	3.50	VE	2	3.29	VE	2	3.33	VE	1
Guess Who's Talking	2.73	E	3	3.31	VE	2	2.90	E	3	3.57	VE	1	3.17	VE	2
Total	2.89	E		3.18	VE		3.30	VE		3.26	VE		3.00	E	

ANOVA

Source of variance **Column** **Error** **Total**	**4**	**df** **20** **24**			**1.9898**	**SS** **1.1480** **3.1378**	**0.4975** **0.0574**	**MS**
Fc = 8.666**	F-Tabulated		0.05 2.87	0.01 4.43				

The evaluation of the respondents who have teaching experience ranging from 8-15 years,16-25 years, and 4-7 is equivalent to "very effective," while the evaluation of those who have teaching experience ranging from 26-45 years and 1-3 years is equivalent to "effective." However, the analysis of variance shows no significant difference in the evaluation of the English teachers. This shows that as to the degree of effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in the listening skill is concerned, length of teaching experience does not affect the perception of the respondents. Hence, the degree of effectiveness of Communicative Approach in the listening skill has a similar evaluation or rating as supposed by all the groups of respondents.

Table 6b. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along reading according to number of years in teaching English.

READING SKILL	1-3 YEARS			4-7 YEARS			8-15 YEARS			16-25 YEARS			26-45 YEARS		
	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R
Vocabulary Bee	3.18	VE	1	3.31	VE	2	4.00	VE	1	3.29	VE	2	3.33	VE	1
Scanning Race	3.00	E	3	3.25	VE	3	4.00	VE	1	3.29	VE	2	3.17	VE	2
Scrambled Paragraphs	2.82	E	4	3.31	VE	2	3.60	VE	2	3.43	VE	1	2.83	E	4
Cloze Dictation	2.64	E	5	3.73	VE	1	3.30	VE	3	3.29	VE	2	3.00	E	3
Prediction Relay	3.09	VE	2	3.25	VE	2	3.60	VE	2	3.43	VE	1	2.50	E	5
Total	2.9	E		3.37	VE		3.70	VE		3.35	VE		2.97	E	

ANOVA

Source of variance **Column** **Error** **Total**		**df** **4** **25** **29**				**SS** **0.464** **3.6541** **4.1181**		**MS** **0.116** **0.1462**
Fc = 0.793 ns	F-Tabulated		0.05 2.76	0.01 4.18				

The findings indicate that English teachers who belong to the 8-15 years group have a high significant evaluation on the effectiveness of the specified activities in the area of reading compared to the respondents who belong to the 1-3 years group.

The analysis of variance implies that there is no significant difference in the evaluation of the respondents. This means that length of teaching service does not at all affect the perception of the English teachers. In short, all the respondents have the same perception on the degree of effectiveness of the Communicative Approach along reading skill.

Table 6c. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along speaking according to number of years in teaching English.

SPEAKING SKILL	1-3 YEARS			4-7 YEARS			8-15 YEARS			16-25 YEARS			26-45 YEARS		
	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R
Picture Strip Story	2.82	E	3	3.38	VE	2	3.50	VE	1	2.71	E	3	3.50	VE	2
Talk Show	3.27	VE	1	3.19	VE	3	3.40	VE	2	3.57	VE	1	3.17	VE	4
Newscast	2.64	E	5	3.19	VE	3	3.30	VE	3	3.57	VE	1	3.17	VE	4
Dialogue	3.27	VE	1	3.38	VE	2	3.50	VE	1	3.57	VE	1	3.33	VE	3
Debates	3.00	E	2	3.56	E	4	3.00	E	4	2.29	FE	2	3.00	E	5
Role Play/Simulation	2.73	E	4	3.56	VE	1	2.60	E	5	3.57	VE	1	3.83	VE	1
Total	2.9	E		3.21	VE		3.22	VE		3.21	VE		3.33	VE	

ANOVA

Source of variance Column Error Total		df 4 20 24				SS 0.2424 2.0513 2.2937		MS 0.0606 0.1026
Fc = 0.591 ns	F-Tabulated		0.05 2.87	0.01 4.43				

All the respondents regard the communicative activities in speaking as very effective. This suggests that all of them recognize the significance of these activities.

The analysis of variance implies that there is no significant difference in the evaluation of the respondents as shown by the computed F-value. This means that length of teaching service does not at all affect the perception of the English teachers. All the respondents have the same perception on the degree of effectiveness of the Communicative Approach along speaking skill.

Table 6d. Level of effectiveness in using Communicative Approach along writing according to number of years in teaching English

WRITING SKILL	1-3 YEARS			4-7 YEARS			8-15 YEARS			16-25 YEARS			26-45 YEARS		
	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R	M	D	R
Editing Race	3.09	VE	1	3.19	VE	1	3.10	VE	3	2.43	FE	4	2.83	E	3
Letter to the Editor	2.73	E	4	2.75	E	4	2.80	E	4	2.71	E	3	2.83	E	3
Movie Review	3.00	E	2	3.31	VE	2	3.40	VE	2	3.14	VE	2	3.33	VE	1
Skit Writing	2.82	E	3	3.06	VE	3	3.50	VE	1	3.57	VE	1	3.33	VE	1
Comics Writing	2.64	E	5	3.19	VE	1	2.80	E	4	3.57	VE	1	3.17	VE	2
Total	2.86	E		3.10	VE		3.12	VE		3.08	VE		3.10	VE	

ANOVA

Source of variance Column Error Total		df 4 20 24				SS 0.2424 2.0513 2.2937		MS 0.0606 0.1026
Fc = 0.591 ns	F-Tabulated		0.05 2.87	0.01 4.43				

The table shows that all the activities in general are very effective to all the respondents. The analysis of variance implies no significant difference in the evaluation of the respondents. This means that irrespective of the length of their service in teaching, the respondents' view of the effectiveness of communicative activities in the building up of the students' writing skill is not affected. Therefore, the degree of effectiveness of Communicative Approach along writing is the same to all the groups.

In wrapping up this chapter, a major inference is drawn. Statistically almost all the communicative activities presented in this study are given with mean scores equivalent to "very effective" degree. However, some answers from the respondents are not consistent between the frequency of use and the degree of effectiveness of the communicative activities. This implies that a number of teachers are not much familiar with the principles of Communicative Approach. Though the respondents consider the extent of teachers' knowledge on Communicative Approach a slightly serious problem, the inference is the opposite. In brief, teacher's knowledge is actually one of the serious problems as indicated by the respondents' answers on the frequency of use.

Summary

This study aimed to determine the effectiveness of Communicative Approach in teaching English as a second language by public school teachers of Baguio City along the four language skills including the difference in the degree of effectiveness of the approach when respondents are categorized according to gender, educational attainment, ethnic origin and years of teaching. In addition, this study sought to determine the degree of seriousness of the problems encountered in the implementation of Communicative Approach in teaching English.

The results reveal that the degree of effectiveness of Communicative Approach along the four language skills is very effective.

Gender has a significant difference on the degree of effectiveness of Communicative Approach. The predominantly females among the respondents indicate the imbalance of the number of teachers in terms of gender in the population of English teachers in Baguio City. The variables educational attainment, ethnic origin and number of years in teaching English do not have much effect or influence on the effectiveness of Communicative Approach.

As to educational attainment, master's degree holders are greater in number than doctorate and bachelor degree holders. This reveals that almost all the English teachers in public schools have finished a postgraduate study in the master's level.

As regards ethnic origin, the big number of respondents from the Ilocano, Ibaloi and Mt. Province origins is explained by the fact that they are the predominant ethnic groups of Baguio City.

With regard to length of teaching experience, the great number of English teachers who have 4-7 years of teaching indicates that there are more young teachers than old teachers in public schools.

Finally, in the specified problems that hinder the success of Communicative Approach, "extent of the teacher's knowledge on the approach" is the only problem that is rated by the respondents as slightly serious while "class size" is very serious. The other problems are serious.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn based on the findings of this study: The respondents consider Communicative Approach along the four language skills very effective. The difference in the degree of effectiveness of Communicative Approach when respondents are categorized according to gender, educational attainment, ethnic origin and number of years in teaching is varied. Gender, on the other hand, has a comparatively significant influence or effect on the implementation and effectiveness of Communicative Approach in teaching English. Likewise, educational attainment, ethnic origin and number of teaching experience in English have less significance in the effectiveness of Communicative Approach.

As to the seriousness of the problems encountered in the implementation of Communicative Approach, class size, class time, teaching load and availability of authentic materials are the serious problems that hamper the success of Communicative Approach according to the teacher-respondents.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions, the following are recommended: Since English teachers recognize the importance and effectiveness of Communicative Approach, there should be a study on the frequency of use of the communicative activities in the classroom. Second, given that most of the communicative activities which obtained a low degree of effectiveness are along reading and writing skills, further studies on better remedies for these concerns should be done. Next, there should be a study on how school administration could equip English teachers with the skills and techniques they need for implementing Communicative Approach. Also, school administrators and teachers should design or assess curriculum textbooks or workbooks and other instructional materials that are suitable to the communicative needs of students. Moreover, further study on how teachers should evaluate the performance of students in a communicative language teaching should be conducted. Teachers should think more along the lines of the communicative events and their social context and less about structural or lexical concerns. Students, on the other hand, should feel more confident in using English in various situations or functions. They should realize the use of English as a means of expression like expressing values and judgments. There should be further studies focusing on how to deal with the following important concepts in the execution of Communicative Approach: error correction, mixed ability class/learners (slow and fast), feedback and students' attitude or motivation, proper pronunciation, less teacher talk and integration of the four language skills. Given the specified problems such as class size, availability of authentic materials and class time as serious and beyond the teachers' control, a study on giving solution to these circumstances should be conducted because they definitely interfere in the successful implementation of Communicative Approach. Furthermore, a comparative study on accuracy and fluency is suggested. On top, a study on Communicative Approach with students as respondents this time is highly proposed.

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Women's Subordination: Feminist Social Theory in *Reading Lolita in Tehran*

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Feminist theory examines women in the social world and addresses issues of concern to women, focusing on these from the perspectives, experiences, and viewpoint of women. Feminist theorists tend to be women who theorize about their own experiences and interaction, feminist social theory is concerned with the everyday lives and experiences of women and their social interactions, and it is often connected to women's groups, social reform, and broad social and political movements, organizations, and institutions.

As mentioned earlier feminist social theory is concerned with analyzing women's everyday experiences, the main challenge for them resides in the meaning women give to their lives without losing sight of the patterns of dominance and subordination. Its basic premise is that women's subordination derives from the social, cultural and religious attitudes of the society. Gender here is seen as a social construct rather than a biological one and within these debates patriarchy was historical, some felt that it was based on past societies which was based on the rule of the fathers, the world in the book *Reading Lolita in Tehran* can be explained as one which is based on patriarchy, where men have forever dominated women. Feminist social theory seeks to analyze the conditions which define women's lives and to gain a deeper understanding of what it is to be a woman. There is a need to understand our place as women, women's subordination and exclusion from or marginalization within a certain social context. Inequalities between men and women do not exist naturally and they should be questioned. (Jackson & Jones, 1998)

My paper attempts to explore male dominance and the struggle of women in the book *Reading Lolita in Tehran* by Azar Nafisi (2003), highlighting structural patterns of dominance which includes gender as a social construct which is supported by culture and religion. The paper further aims to explore the paths explored by women and their struggle throughout, choices women make at the end as a form of liberation and perhaps a step towards freedom in *Reading Lolita in Tehran*.

Synopsis of the book *Reading Lolita in Tehran*

The book is about a book club. Nafisi is a professor of English Literature and introduces a book club for her female students after the Islamic Revolution of 1979 which had banned many great works of Literature. The book revolves around the characters: Azin, Yassi, Sanaz, Mitra, Mahshid, Manna, Nassrin and Nima, who collect at Nafisi's house to discuss these great works. The book highlights the difficulties the women face at the hands of the men at home and in pivotal roles. Here the individual personalities and histories of each come to the fore, and we get a glimpse into personal worlds experienced intensely under circumstances that have nearly robbed them of their identities. The books Azar Nafisi chooses are a depiction of the lives they lead, the oppression the women face, the women in the book club can relate to the characters in the books they read. The first book Nafisi chooses to review is *Lolita* by Nabokov (1989).
The author, now living in the US, tells of almost two decades in Iran, as a teacher of English and American literature. She tells of the great hopes for reform after the fall of the Shah and the

return from exile of the Ayatollah Khomeini, and with her we watch in horror as the revolution takes Iran by force instead into its medieval past.

Lolita by Nabokov

To understand *Reading Lolita in Tehran* by Nafisi (2003), one has to understand *Lolita* by Nabokov. It is a story of a young girl who is completely possessed and redefined by a character called Humbert. Lolita is not only sexually violated, but is robbed of her free will and completely dominated by Humbert. *Lolita*, we discover, becomes a story of a girl who finally escapes from the clutches of a man who wants to erase who she is and turn her into a figment of his imagination. Through Nabokov (1989) we learn that Humbert, the main character in the book wants to completely possess her and redefine her. Nafisi and her students could relate to Lolita, the girl in the book, as they too felt emotionally, they feel trapped and dominated just like Lolita by the men and the regime.

Recognizing Structural Patterns of Dominance through Gender as a Social Construct

Patriarchal Domination

In the Islamic Republic of Iran, men take precedence over women. Fathers, brothers are considered to be decision makers and women are supposed to follow them, without questioning their authority. Men and Women exist as socially different categories which both bind them together and set them apart from each other. The fragility of women's position, their source of power and their own sense of self is very closely related to the patriarchal feature set. The values taught and practiced from early childhood are responsible for patriarchal society. According to Keddie and Baron (1991) the place of women in the book is also pre- defined by their location in the hierarchy of gender. In the book *Reading Lolita in Tehran*, it often draws the attention of the reader to the role of the men which is patriarchal, women in the book are expected to follow the rules made by the men.

According to Smith (1997), "Experience never comes to us in a raw form. In everyday life we constantly work over, interpret, make sense of our experiences- we are all practical theorists" (p. 11). Research by Jackson and Jones (1996) supports, "Patriarchal domination is not based upon pre-existing sex differences; rather gender exists as a social division because of patriarchal division" (p. 135).

Let us look at one of the women in the book, Sanaz: she is one of the females who belongs to the book club started by Professor Nafisi, to offer these girls an escape from the harsh reality of male dominance in Tehran. Nafisi (2003) stated in the book:

> There are two very important men domination Sanaz's life at the time. The first was her brother, who was 19 years old and had not yet finished high school and was the darling of their parents…..He was spoilt and his one obsession in life was Sanaz, he had taken to proving her masculinity by spying on her, listening to her phone conversations, driving her car around and listening to her phone conversations. (p. 15)

In another instance we learn that Nassirin had to lie to her father to get permission to step out of the house. Nafisi (2003) wrote, "I lied, she said. You lied? What else can one do with a person who is so dictatorial; he won't let his daughter at this age, go to all female literature class" (p. 17). Nafisi (2003) explained:

> Our world under the Mullah's rule was shaped by the colorless lenses of the blind sensor. Not just our reality, but also our fiction had taken this curious coloration in a world where the censor was the poet's rival in rearranging and reshaping reality… we were the figments of someone else's imagination. (p. 25)

The someone else is the men in the society. They seem to dominate and shape women's life in Tehran. Women had somehow gotten used to their role of dominance. The father, the brother, the mullah, the uncles were all men, who had the right to dominate.

Another example is seen in the life of Yassi, another member of the book club. When Nafisi asked her what was wrong in her wanting to go to America, her reply showed the male dominance in her life. Nafisi (2003) wrote, *"*What was wrong with that? She wanted to go to America, like her uncles, like me. Her mother, her aunt had not been allowed to go, but her uncles had been given the chance" (p. 32).

The book, *Lolita* which was chosen as one of the readings for the book club and is ironically also in the title, talks about Lolita, a 12 year old girl who is completely possessed by an old man, The truth of Lolita highlights not only the rape of a 12 year old at the hands of a dirty old man, but according to Nafisi (2003), *"*The confiscation of one's individual life by another*"* (p. 33); here she is referring to the regime and how it had confiscated the freedom of the females in Tehran. Another incident tells us about males being empowered by the society. It was when Sanaz went out with some of her friends and some of them were males. Sanaz and her other female friends were arrested and taken to jail; finally when she did go home, in the words of Nafisi (2003) we learnt, "Sanaz had to deal with another indignity, her brother's admonitions. What did they expect? How could they let six unruly girls go on a trip without male supervision" (p. 73).

Nafisi (2003) expressed, "I was thinking about life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, about the fact that my girls are not happy, what I mean is that they feel doomed to be unhappy" (p. 281); alongside Nafisi says they should not be encouraged to feel like victims, "They have to learn to fight for their happiness, my girls like millions of other citizens, by refusing to give up their right to pursue happiness, had created a dent into the Islamic Republic's fantasy world" (pp. 281-282).
It was the spirit of freedom residing in the hearts of the girls which refused to dampen their sense of selves at the hands of the Islamic Republic and most basically the men in the society.

Women's Subordination through Culture and Religion

The experiences of real life women are the main indicator of their status in society and gender needs to be checked against real life experiences. This theory first originated from the Marxist epistemology: Eagleton (2003) found, "That you have to trust the evidence of real life women, that real life conditions are the most important indicator of the status of women" (p. 197).

According to Yousuf (2011), the diversity in the Muslim world is also reflected in the situations of women in different political settings and social cultures. During the heyday of Arab nationalism, republican regimes like Algeria, Tunisia, Egypt and Libya liberated their women from traditionalism only to re-cage them in the grinding wheels of economic and political hardships. Meanwhile the Islamic monarchies enclosed women within the confines of the house in the name of religion—or more accurately tribalism.

Islam does not inherently hold women subservient to men. The Quran describes the reaction of a pre-Islamic father upon hearing the news of the birth of daughter that when news is brought to the people, of the birth of a female child, his face darkens, and he is filled with inward grief! With shame does he hide himself from his people, because of the bad news he has had! Shall he retain it or bury it in the dust? What an evil choice they decide on? In such a context, the Quran emphasized gender equality. Islam gave women dignity, status, the right to marry the man of their choice, rights to keep their earnings, inheritance, property, and rights to divorce. Prophet Mohammad married Khadija, who was much older to him and the marriage proposal was initiated by Khadija, interestingly, in many of today's Muslim societies, Muslim girls are not supposed to propose to a man directly, this act is considered shameful. Despite of having examples of women's liberation in the Islamic history, women under the Islamic regimes have been unable to break free from male tyranny.

The worst crime committed by totalitarian governments is that they force their citizens, viewing them as victims to become complacent in their crimes. One of the examples of male tyranny is seen in Nabokov's (1989) *Invitation to a Beheading*. In the book *Reading Lolita in Tehran,* Nafisi (2003) said:

> In the end, when Cincinnatus is led to the scaffold, and as he lays his head on the scaffold, in preparation for his execution, he repeats the magic mantra: .by myself. This constant reminder of his uniqueness, and his attempts to write, to articulate and create a language different from the one imposed upon him by his jailers, saves him at the last moment, when he takes his head in his hands and walks away towards voices that beckon him from that other world, while the scaffold and all the sham world around him, along with his executioner, disintegrate. Dancing with your jailer, participating in your own execution, that is the act of utmost brutality. (p. 76)

The only way to survive in such a prison, to free oneself of such a confinement is to detach oneself from the mind of the executioner. The women in Tehran found a few moments of escape and freedom in their book club, in applying nail polish under the veil, in leaving a strand of hair showing. The regime invaded every private space, forced every gesture and this was a form of escape from the execution brought upon the women by the regime.

The women in the book also cope with their oppression by constantly reminding themselves of their identity as women, their equal rights, a constant reminder of their uniqueness. In many Islamic societies, women find themselves disadvantaged because of religiously imposed cultural norms. This is an anomaly because of the long history of Muslim females active in society, politics, and the professions faithfulness was protected and assured. Later this custom was extended to all Muslim women, likely as a way to emulate Muhammad and his wives. Unfortunately, an act of faith and religious expression has been legislated as a social control in modern-day Iran. This oppressive state leads to a prevalent theme in Islamic women's literature, a crisis of self or identity. The Islamic Republic of Iran is a religiously imposed government and community. Nafisi claims that the regime usurped individual identity and superimposed a personality and religious faith over the public.

Islamic Rules at the University

Female students were the victim of the strict Islamic rules enforced at the university. Nafisi (2003) stated, "Students were being penalized for running up the stairs when they were late for classes, for laughing in the hallways, for talking to members of the opposite sex*"* (p. 9). Dictatorship in the attitudes of the regime was reflected through their attitude of women. Nafisi's resignation letter was not acknowledged, she expressed, "It was this arbitrariness that had become unbearable" (p. 10).

Nafisi tells the reader of all the unnecessary things she had to be extremely careful about, the size of her coat, even the slightest speck of lipstick, the size of the ring and the level of attractiveness. According to Nafisi, "Life in the Islamic Republic was always too explosive, too dramatic and chaotic, to shape into the desired order required for a narrative effect" (p. 274); it brought to the surface the trapped souls and the muted voices that had come to the surface, by keeping them bottled up for so long, this was the only way people knew how to respond. Independence of thought is the greatest freedom of man, once that is taken away, all else crumbles, the class gave the girls a place of refuge, an environment where they could voice their fears without any censorship. In Nafisi's own definition of freedom and democracy, she said:

> I have come to believe that genuine democracy cannot exist without the freedom to imagine and the right to use imaginative works without any restrictions. To have a whole life, one must have the possibility of publicly shaping and expressing private worlds, dreams, thoughts and desires……How else do we know that we have existed, felt, desired, hated, feared? (Nafisi, 2003, p. 339)

There are so many examples which can be quoted from the book regarding the cultural and religious subordination of women, but the most insightful is, Nafisi has explained:

> Living in the Islamic Republic is like having sex with a man you loathe…..Well, it's like this if you are forced to having sex with someone you dislike, you make your mind blank—you pretend to be somewhere else, you tend to forget your body, you hate your body. That's what we do over here, we are constantly pretending to be somewhere else- we either plan it or dream it. (p. 329)

Reading this made me extremely sad, I had to recover from what I had just read and I put the book down for a few moments. If a reading can have such a profound effect on the reader, imagine the emotional and the mental trauma the girls must have faced at the hands of the regime, most particularly the men in the society.

The Veil: A Way of Cultural and Religious Subordination

The veil in Islam is for the protection of women, so they do not arouse men when they step out of the house. The Quran does not stress on covering the head, but the bosom. It should not be a forced choice. The Islamic regime does not have the right to enforce the veil. The veil should not be a symbol of imposing the laws of the regime, it offers protection and security for the women and should be done for that purpose. Azar Nafisi highlights the role of the veil in her book and the injustices of the regime which forces women to take on the veil. Nafisi (2003) said:

> All through my childhood and early youth, my grandmother's chador had a special meaning to me. It was a shelter, a world apart from the rest of the world….now the chador was forever marred by the political significance it had gained, it had become cold and menacing. (p. 192)

Veil should not be forced as a symbol of political satisfaction. She said:

> From the beginning of the revolution there had been many aborted attempts to impose the veil on women….in many important ways the veil had gained a symbolic significance for the regime, its re imposition would signify a complete victory of the Islamic aspect of the revolution. (Nafisi, 2003, p. 112)

Nafisi gives words to this lowest point by telling her readers how she questioned and doubted herself, asking the plaintive question, "Do I exist?" (p. 168). With this question, she gives credence to a regime that would have erased her by doubting her very being. Nafisi (2003) expressed, "It was not that piece of cloth that I rejected, it was the transformation being imposed on me that made me look in the mirror and hate the stranger I had become" (p. 165).

Islam believes in treating women with utmost respect. Lashing them just because they do not adhere to the laws of wearing the veil is a crime against women at the hands of the mullahs which dictated the laws of Tehran. There are scholars who claim that veiling and seclusion for all the Muslim women is in the Quran, this is rather a tendentious reading. There is one verse that tells the Muslim women to hide their bosoms and their ornaments, later taken to mean except the hands, feet and the face, I feel this interpretation is invalid as the Quran would not stress on just veiling the bosom if everything else was to be covered as well. Keddie (1991) said:

> Dress is a symbol of Islamist beliefs, and the dress adopted by Islamist women is almost as important as a badge of ideology as it is a means to modesty or seclusion. In fact Islamic women are not secluded from the world, but are found heavily among students, young working women, and the like and are also engaged in the political activity. The dress of most Islamic women also is not traditional, but newly fashioned. (p. 17)

In *Reading Lolita in Tehran*, Nafisi said:

> The government didn't take long to pass new regulations restricting women's clothing in public and forcing us to wear either a chador or a long robe and scarf…….disobedience was punished by fines, up to 76 lashes and jail terms. (p. 167)

A fully covered female invites more trouble and is more alluring to men. The more the covering and the sensor, the more heightened the arousal. Men who are not used to seeing women on the streets uncovered, get aroused by the most simple gestures and show of skin. Nafisi expressed, "Can you imagine a kind of man who would get sexually provoked just by looking at a strand of my hair? Someone who goes crazy at the sight of a woman's toe…Wow!" (p. 70).

The veil was a constant subordination of women at the hands of the rulers. The women had been shaped by someone else's dreams Nafisi (2003) said, "We were figments of someone else's imagination" (p. 25). The club started by Nafisi opened a door to another world for the girls where they did not have to conform to the laws of the land and could enjoy their freedom. Nafisi explained:

> In that living room we rediscovered that we were also living and breathing human beings; and no matter how repressive the state became, no matter how intimidated and frightened we were, like Lolita we tried to escape and create our own little pockets of freedom. And like Lolita we took every opportunity to flaunt our subordination. (p. 25)

Paths women in the book choose: A way to freedom

Towards the end of the book Nafisi (2003) said, "Nowadays all my girls seemed to want to leave Iran-all except Mahshid who was more than preoccupied by her job" (p. 270).

It is interesting to observe that almost all the women in the book escape the regime, the totalitarian rule, the oppression at the hands of men by leaving Tehran at the end. Azar Nafisi, the professor that has started the book club for the girls: Mahshid, Yassi, Mitra, Nassrin, Azin, Sanaz and Manna, almost all of them choose to leave. Freedom is enjoyed for brief moments when the girls gather to study literature, but these few moments are not enough to provide satisfaction, the women are forever fighting the subordination they suffer at the hands of men.

It is very difficult to leave your home, your country, and the streets where you have spent your childhood. All the memories are so very precious. The other concern is that if everyone wants to leave the country then who will stay back and help heal the country, serve their home. This was the question that often disturbed Professor Nafisi, she didn't really want to leave, but it was a decision which had no alternative. According to Nafisi, "This was a question I asked myself day and night. We can't all leave this country, Bijan had told me-this is our home" (p. 286). Nafisi's magician whom she greatly admired and sought his council advised her to leave. Nafisi explained, "His advise was that I should leave: leave and write my own story and teach my own class" (p. 317).

Another instances where we learn about Nafisi's decision to leave is when she meets her mentor, he is addressed as the magician in the book. They meet at a coffee place, soon the place is raided by revolutionary guards. Nafisi and the magician who is a man are forced to flee the scene immediately, as she is warned there would be dire consequences if she is seen with a man. Nafisi (2003) said, "In the taxi I felt confused and angry and a little repentant. I am going to leave, I am going to leave, I told myself. I can't live like this anymore" (p. 313).

Manna also expressed her unhappiness and her desire to leave. Nafisi (2003) said:

> I can't get used to it, Manna had said one day in class and I couldn't blame her. We were unhappy, we compared our situation to our potentials, to what we could have had, and somehow there was little consolation in the fact that millions of people were unhappier than we were. (p. 314)

Nafisi had finally decided to leave and it was not an easy call; she knew once she left, she wouldn't be coming back. Bijan, her husband was opposed to the decision at first, but finally agreed, as he could witness the atrocities of the regime. Nafisi explained:

> Our decision to leave Iran, came about casually—at least this is how it appeared. Such decisions, no matter how momentous, are seldom well planned. Like bad marriages, they are a result of years of resentment and anger suddenly exploding into suicidal resolutions. (p. 316)

At this point, Nassrin contemplates and voices her desire to leave as well. (Nafisi, 2003, p. 321) Nafisi is not surprised to learn about the decision to leave, it is a decision which has become inevitable. As we reach the end of the book we learn that all the girls want to leave, Mitra leaves for Canada. We learn that Nafisi leaves Iran on June 24th 1997. Almost all the other girls do the same. Nafisi said, "Nassrin I know arrived safely in England….Mitra left for Canada a few months after we moved to the U.S…. I heard from Sanaz too, when I first came to the states. She called me from Europe" (p. 342).

Azin decided not to leave. Mahshid, Manna and Yassi decided to stay on. The women resume their new lives in different places. Leaving Tehran has not been an easy decision, we learn that it has robbed the women of their true identities, of the future they could have had, the freedom they could have enjoyed.

The Novel: A Message of Hope

Nafisi (2003) said, "Curiosity is insubordination in its purest form" (p. 45); daily life became acts of constant insubordination. Nafisi (2003) explained:

> Woman must write herself: must write about women and bring women to writing, from which they have been driven away as violently as from their bodies. For the same reasons, by the same law, with the same fatal goal. Woman must put herself into the text. As into the world and into history by her own movement. An assertion of self is very significant in identity formation and maintenance. (p. 257)

Feminism can be viewed as an emotional response to the world as well. The restrictions women have to adhere to while executing their daily chores. Anger is a natural response for women when they are told not to do certain things just because they are women. The pain we experienced to see other women suffer as well. Despite all this Sara Ahmed (as cited in Eagleton, 2003, p. 239) explained:

> the wonder I felt at the way in which the world came to be organized the way that it is….the hope I felt that guides every moment of rejection and refusal and that structures the desire for change with a trembling that comes from an opening up of the future, an opening up of what is possible. (p. 239)

And it is these very possibilities that offer the ultimate message of hope in *Reading Lolita in Tehran*.

The search for beauty should never end, the journey towards the light should never discontinue, and hope should not be abandoned. While reading *Lolita in Tehran* we discover that it is book which gives hope to the reader, especially the women. During the moments of despair, there is a flicker of hope and freedom. Freedom truly is a state of mind. One can set themselves free whenever one decides to free the mind of the confinement imposed by others. Nafisi (2003) expressed:

> I would like to believe that all this eagerness meant something, that there was in the air, in Tehran, something not quite like spring, but a breeze, an aura that promised that spring was on its way. This is what I cling to, the faint whiff of a sustained and refrained excitement, reminding me of reading a book like Lolita in Tehran. (p. 47)

Nafisi further explained, "Every fairy tale offers the potential to surpass present limits, so in a sense the fairy tale offers you freedoms that reality denies" (p. 47). Every book, every fairly tale offers escape, freedom that reality denies. The book club, the women who are a part of the book club started by Nafisi is an affirmation of life despite the tyranny imposed by the regime. An expression of freedom in any form is an act of insubordination against the daily atrocities of life. The strongest message of hope is felt in Nafisi's (2003) words:

> Live all you can; it's a mistake not to. It doesn't matter what you do in particular so long as you have your life. If you haven't had that, what have you had? What one loses, one loses, make no mistake about that-I was either, at the right time, too stupid or too intelligent to have it, and now I am a case of reaction against the mistake. For it was a mistake. Live, live! (p. 39)

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The Effects of “Verb Ending Forms” on the Acquisition of the Japanese Plain (dictionary) Form by Thai Learners

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Abstract

Japanese verbs are classified into three groups: (1) “Group 1 or 5-dan” (-su, -ku, -gu, -u, -ru, -tsu, -mu, -bu, -nu); (2) “Group 2 or 1-dan” (-iru and -eru); and (3) “Irregular verbs” (suru and kuru). Although Japanese verbs do not have different forms to indicate gender or person, various pieces of information, such as negation, tense, aspect and politeness, are added to verbs via affixes. To make a sentence as mentioned above, Japanese learners are required to remember all the appropriate rules. Hence, it can be assumed that Japanese learners are under the burden of memorizing the relevant unique rules and irregularities.

The purpose of this study is to investigate a developmental sequence in the acquisition of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb form and examine the effects of “verb ending forms” on the acquisition of Japanese plain (dictionary) form by Thai learners. Data obtained from 39 participants through writing tests, are analyzed. Using a decision tree analysis, the results show that more advanced learners can answer the test questions more correctly than can basic learners. The results also show that, compared to other verb ending forms, learners receive lower scores in the particular verb ending forms of the “–su”, “-iru” “Irregular verbs”. This result supports the finding that learners are impacted by the “Verb Ending Forms” in the acquisition of the Japanese plain (dictionary) form. Learners are confused when they are to classify verbs types that end in “-su” and “suru,” so they make it easier by combining the two groups into one in a process of simplification. In addition, this confusion explains errors which also occur with the “-iru” and “kuru” types This study offers readers a thorough understanding of the acquisition of the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms and highlights the evidence which supports the assertion that verb ending forms affect language learning.

Keywords: *Thai learners, Verb ending forms, Japanese plain form, Writing test, Developmental sequence*

1. Introduction

Japanese verbs differ from English verbs. For example, Japanese verbs do not have different forms to indicate gender or person, nor do they include various pieces of information, such as negation, tense, aspect and politeness, which are added to Japanese verbs via affixes.

To make a sentence as outlined above, Japanese learners are required to remember inflectional endings. It has been observed that Japanese learners write or speak errors of various verb morphemes. The following two sentences are made by Thai learners. The plain (dictionary) form of *orimasu* (to get off) should be *oriru* instead of **oru;* and the plain (dictionary) form of *karimasu* (to borrow) should be *kariru* instead of **karu*.

Example 1 私はバスをおる。

Watashi wa basu wo *oru*.

(I get off the bus.)

Example 2 マナはマニーにペンをかる。

Mana wa Manii ni pen wo *karu*.

(Mana borrows a pen from Manii.)

As shown in examples 1 and 2, the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb form used at the end of the sentence indicates the use of the present or future tense. Moreover, the verb ending is used to show a conditional sentence such as in example 3.

Example 3 両親の顔を見ると、彼女は泣き始めた。

Ryooshin no kao wo *miru* to, kanojo wa nakihajimeta.

(When she saw her parents' face, she began to cry.)

Since it is used in many sentence structures, Japanese learners need to form Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms correctly. Moreover, Japanese verbs are classified into three groups:

(1) “Group 1 or 5-dan” (-su, -ku, -gu, -u, -ru, -tsu, -mu, -bu, -nu);

(2) “Group 2 or 1-dan” (-iru and -eru); and

(3) “irregular verbs” (suru and kuru)

As is noticed, there are several different Japanese regular verbs. Hence, it can be assumed that Japanese learners are under the burden of memorizing all the unique rules and irregularities since learners do not suddenly change from the state of non-acquisition to that of acquisition. They have to pass through a series of stages in acquiring the newly learnt structure. However, to this researcher’s knowledge, no research has been carried out on the process of L2 acquisition of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms.

In order to understand the developmental sequence of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms, this study investigated adult learners in Thailand. Writing data is examined to determine whether a common developmental sequence in the process of learning the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms exists.

2. Motivation

Motivation for this study came from the personal experience of the researcher observing Thai learners of Japanese who were attempting to form Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms. It was noted that the learners' constructions of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms diverged from the explicit grammatical instructions. Furthermore, learners' production of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms seemed to differ from "verb ending forms". However, to this researcher's knowledge, no research has been carried out on the L2 acquisition of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms. It is hoped that this study, by examining previously unknown aspects of Japanese acquisition by non-native learners, will contribute to a greater understanding of how skilled usage of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms is acquired.

3. Research Questions

Following Sakamoto (1993), Nagatomo (1997), and Komori and Shirai (2001) who investigated the developmental sequence of the Japanese conjugated te-form, there is a developmental sequence of the te-form. Although the results of the studies of these researchers are not the same, it can be assumed that there is a developmental sequence of the acquisition of Japanese verb forms. This study investigates whether or not there is a developmental learning sequence of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms. For this purpose, the following question was raised:

1. What is a developmental sequence in the acquisition of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms by Thai learners of Japanese?

4. Japanese verb forms

In the Japanese language, there are regular verbs which are classified as "Group 1 or 5-dan", "Group 2 or 1-dan", and "irregular verbs". While "Group 1 or 5-dan" includes the verbs that end in the form: -su, -ku, -gu, -u, -ru, -tsu, -mu, -bu, -nu; "Group 2 or 1-dan" includes the verbs that end in the form: -iru and –eru. These names derived from the conjugation patterns which have either 5-dan or 1-dan, as shown below in Table 1(Vance, 1987).

Table 1 Verb forms in Japanese (5-dan and 1-dan)

Verb forms	5-dan	1-dan
Indefinite	toranai	tabenai
Conjugated or –masu form	torimasu	tabemasu
Final	toru	taberu
Hypothetical	toreba	tabereba
Volitional	toroo	tabeyoo

For the 5-dan verb *toru*, it is clear that the vowel changes right before the suffix form. For example, –a to –o, such as tora- and tori, as in *toranai* and *torimasu*; whereas for the 1-dan verb *taberu*, the stem form before a suffix such as -nai, -masu does not change and has the same form *tabe-*.

"Irregular verbs" are those that fall outside the standard patterns of conjugation. In Japanese, there are two: *suru* (to do) and *kuru* (to come).

As you notice, the Japanese verb inflectional system is not unlike that of English. English verbs can be categorized as regular and irregular, but Japanese cannot because the regular verbs in Japanese can be categorized as 1-dan and 5-dan. Moreover, it also has two irregular verbs.

5. Previous Studies on the acquisition of Japanese verb forms

Since there has been no previous research examining the L2 acquisition of Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms, the researcher will report on the studies which discussed the developmental sequence of the Japanese conjugated or te-form. Previous L2 research, such as Sakamoto(1993), Nagatomo (1997), Komori and Shirai (2001), has reported that learners pass through developmental stages in acquiring the te-form.

Sakamoto (1993) examined 82 English native speakers studying Japanese as a second language by using a written test. The learners were given both the final (dictionary form) and conjugated form (masu-form) of each verb and asked to answer using the corresponding te-form. Sakamoto discovered that there were significant differences of error using the te-form construction amongst students of the low intermediate, intermediate, low advanced and advanced proficiency levels. In summary, he found that there are three stages of developmental sequence in te-form construction by English learners. These three stages are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Sakamoto's (1993) sequence of the te-form

Stages of acquisition	Verb types
Stage 1	-su, -tsu, -mu, -bu
↓	
Stage 2	-iru, -eru, -(w)u, -ru
↓	
Stage 3	-gu, -ku

Since "-su", "-tsu", "-mu" and "-bu" had the least errors in te-form construction, Sakamoto (1993) concluded that these are the easiest types to learn, whereas since verbs which end in "-gu" and "-ku" had the most errors, they are considered the most difficult verb types.

However, this result shows the developmental sequence in the learning of only ten verb ending forms because Sakamoto (1993) did not include the "-nu" type in "5-dan" and the "irregular verbs" ("suru" and "kuru") in his study.

The next study of the developmental stages in acquiring the te-form was conducted by Nagatomo (1997). He conducted a longitudinal (six-month) study of nine participants who were also English native speakers. In this study, the elicitation method was used to investigate accuracy in the construction of the te-form of 35 regular and irregular verb forms both in written and spoken Japanese. His data collection started immediately after the introduction of the te-form in class and continued once a month for six months. The three stages which Nagatomo (1997) found are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Nagatomo (1997)'s sequence of the te-form

Stages of acquisition	Verb types
Stage 1	-mu, -eru, suru, kuru, -su
↓	-tsu, -bu, -nu, -iru
↓	
Stage 2	-ru, -(w)u
↓	
Stage 3	-gu, -ku

As shown in Table 3, Nagatomo's results support those of Sakamoto. That is, the "-gu" and "-ku" types had the most errors and these verb types are considered to be the most difficult to acquire. Nagatomo used the concept of phonological difficulties to explain why "-gu" and "-ku" are the most difficult types. According to his assumption, verbs which end with "-gu" and "-ku" are the most difficult because the conjugation rules involve vowel insertion and consonant deletion (aruku → aru i te, oyogu → oyo i de) but verbs which end with "-mu" and "-bu" are easier because the conjugation rule required only partial assimilation. He argued that partial assimilation rules are unmarked and their acquisition precedes that of marked complete assimilation rules. For example, according to this rule, the te-form construction of verbs such as "yomu (to read)" and "tobu (to fly)" are of the "-mu" and "-bu" type. The learning of this type involves partial assimilation of the verbs for the te-form. In particular, the acquisition of "yonde" and "tonde" is captured earlier than that of verbs such as "utau (to sing)" and "yaru (to do)." These latter two are of the "-(w)u" and "-ru" type and involve complete assimilation of the verbs for the te-form - "utatte" and "yatte." Also, the formation of verbs such as "hanasu" (to talk), the "-su" type, is acquired earlier than that of verbs such as "kaku" (to write), the "-ku" type, or "oyogu" (to swim), the "-gu" type, because both of these latter types involve adding the vowel /i/ and deleting the consonant /k/ or /g/ to form the –te/-de of "kaite" or "oyoide."

On the other hand, Komori and Shirai (2001) conducted a four-month study of 30 native Chinese speakers who were being instructed in Japanese. They reported that their results were different from those of Sakamoto and Nagatomo. For example, among the three stages described by Sakamoto and Nagatomo, the scores of verbs which had been categorized in Group 2 (-ru and –(w)u) and Group3 (-gu and –ku) were higher than those of Group 1(-iru) in Komori and Shirai's study. Their results showed that verbs which end with "-mu" and "-bu" violated Nagatomo's explanation of the syntax rules. Komori and Shirai (2001) argued that the Chinese speakers made many errors related to sokuonbinka (assimilation). In verb types such as "-tsu", "-(w)u", "-ru", the sound change or assimilation occurs in the process of adding the "te". For example, "utsu" is "utte" and "tsukuru" is "tsukutte".

Based on the findings of a developmental sequence of the te-form, it is predicted that Thai learners will have difficulty acquiring the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb form as well.

Additionally, this study predicts that the Thai learners will also make a different style of error to form the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb form.

6. The study

This study was designed using cross-sectional approaches, investigating a group of subjects at two Japanese proficiency levels.

6.1 Participants

Sixty-two undergraduate students (47 females and 15 males) at the university in Bangkok, Thailand, all native Thai speakers, participated in this study. Their ages ranged from 19 years to 20 years and 9 months. None of them had lived in Japan and they had not studied Japanese before coming to university. The participants were volunteers and each received a pen as compensation for their involvement. The type of data to be collected and its use for this study were explained before the tests. The participants have been kept anonymous by the removal of identifying information.

The data were collected when they were studying Japanese 3 in their first semester at university. They had learned about the Japanese plain forms the previous semester. The textbook used by the participants in their class was “Minna no Nihongo” (*Japanese for Everyone*). Additionally, the researcher asked their teacher to ask the participants about their experience of learning Japanese outside the university and the textbooks they had used for self study. Because every learner answered that they had learnt Japanese only in their class and they had not used any book for further Japanese study, the researcher focused only on the verbs which appear in “Minna no Nihongo” (*Japanese for Everyone*). For example, because they had learnt up to lesson 20 of the textbook, the researcher used only the verbs from those 20 lessons to test them.

To access what had influenced the learners’ Japanese proficiency level, the researcher was given the student’s grades (A, B+, B, C+, C, and D) by their teacher. The researcher used these scores to divide learners into different proficiency groups. The students were divided into two groups. Advanced learners had a grade A only and basic learners had a grade C+, C, and D. The learners who had received a grade B+ and B were excluded from the study. Finally, the data of only 39 students (26 females and 13 males) was analyzed in this study.

6.2 Method

The data were collected in the classroom by using written tests. In the writing test, questions were given about the 3 verbs in each verb ending form, excluding the “-bu” type that consists of 2 verbs - the participants had learned only two verbs in “-bu” type ending form. In this study, the “-nu” type was not tested because the participants of this study had not yet learned it.

Each participant was given a list of 35 verbs (11 verb ending forms ×3 verbs, “-bu” verb ending forms ×2 verbs) with masu-forms and that verb’s meaning and directed to write down the Japanese plain (dictionary) form for each verb. Each verb is shown randomly. Table 4 shows the verbs used in the writing test.

Table 4 –verbs in the writing test

	Verb ending forms	Masu-form	plain (dictionary) form and meaning
5-dan	-u	waraimasu	warau(to laugh)
		naraimasu	narau(to learn)
		kaimasu	kau(to buy)
	-ru	kirimasu	kiru(to cut)
		tomarimasu	tomaru(to stay)
		noborimasu	noboru(to climb)
	-tsu	machimasu	matsu(to wait)
		mochimasu	motsu(to have)
		tachimasu	tatsu(to stand)
	-mu	yasumimasu	yasumu(to take a break)
		yomimasu	yomu(to read)
		nomimasu	nomu(to drink)
	-bu	asobimasu	asobu(to play)
		yobimasu	yobu(to call)
	-su	keshimasu	kesu(to turn off)
		naoshimasu	naosu(to repair)
		kaeshimasu	kaesu(to return)
	-ku	piano wo hikimasu	piano wo hiku(to play a piano)
		kakimasu	kaku(to write)
		hatarakimasu	hataraku(to work)
	-gu	isogimasu	isogu(to hurry)
		nugimasu	nugu(to take off)
		oyogimasu	oyogu(to swim)
1-dan	-iru	karimasu	kariru(to borrow)
		densha wo orimasu	densha wo oriru(to get off a train)
		shawaa wo abimasu	shawaa wo abiru(to take a

			shower)
	-eru	wasuremasu	wasureru(to forget)
		oshiemasu	oshieru(to teach, to tell)
		hajimemasu	hajimeru(to begin)
irregular verbs	suru	shimasu	suru(to do)
		yoyakushimasu	yoyakusuru(to make a reservation)
		shuurishimasu	shuurisuru(to repair)
	kuru	gakkou e kimasu	gakkou e kuru(to come a school)
		aruitekimasu	aruitekuru(to walk)
		kaettekimasu	kaettekuru(to come to the house or workplace)

The test was not timed. Each participant took about 20 minutes on average to complete the test. The researcher was present throughout the administration of the test to assist the participants where necessary.

6.3 Accurate score calculation

The researcher counted 1 point for the correct writing of all verbs in each particular verb ending group. E.g., if a student accurately wrote all the verbs in the –iru form but failed to correctly write one or two verbs in –ku form, the researcher counted 1 point for the –iru form but 0 points for the –ku form.

6.4 Decision Tree Analysis

The data were analyzed using the decision tree analysis method with the *Chi-squared automatic interaction detection* (CHAID) algorithm provided by SPSS Version 15.0, Classification Trees (SPSS, 2006). Decision tree analysis attempts to select a useful subset of predictors from a larger set of variables. The technique automatically detects significant interaction effects among independent (predictor) variables, by repeating Chi-square tests at each step for a categorical variable or F tests for continuous variables. It determines the pair of categories for each independent variable (predictor) that is least significantly different with respect to the dependent variable. In the tree-growing process, each parent node splits into child nodes only if some significant interaction is found among independent variables. Every step for splitting nodes uses Bonferroni's adjusted p values to avoid Type I Error, i.e., the error of rejecting null hypothesis when it is actually true (Tamaoka & Ikeda, 2010).

The present study applied the decision tree technique to predict [correct] or [incorrect] of the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb form by the two factors of ten verb ending forms (-su, -ku, -gu, -u, -ru, -tsu, -mu, -bu, -iru, -eru, suru and kuru) and two Japanese language proficiency levels (advanced learners, basic learners).

According to Tamaoka & Ikeda (2010), the results of the decision tree analysis are a hierarchy drawn in a dendrogram: stronger predictors go to the higher nodes while weaker predictors appear at the ends of the branches. Non-significant predictors are not included in the dendrogram. Branches grow when significant interactions are found in the data. Since the present study focused on the predictions of [correct] or [incorrect] of the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb forms by both two independents together, the decision tree analysis was highly appropriate for the purpose and requirements involved in this inquiry. Thus, the results of the decision tree analysis are reported and discussed in the following sections.

7. Results of Decision Tree

Table 5 shows the results of the basic learners group, with Table 6 showing the results of the advanced learners group.

Table 5 Acquisition sequence of Japanese plain verb form – basic learners -

Sequence	Verb Type	Ratio of correct answer (%)
1	-gu	94.12
	-mu	94.12
	-eru	94.12
2	-ku	88.24
	-u	88.24
	-bu	88.24
3	-ru	82.35
	-tsu	82.35
4	-kuru	70.59
5	-su	58.82
6	-suru	52.94
7	-iru	41.18

Table 6 Acquisition sequence of Japanese plain verb form – advanced learners -

Sequence	Verb Type	Ratio of correct answer (%)
1	-gu	100
	-mu	100
	-eru	100
	-ku	100
	-u	100
	-bu	100
	-ru	100
	-tsu	100

	-kuru	100
	-iru	100
2	-suru	95.45
3	-su	77.27

As can be noticed, there are differences between Japanese language proficiency levels and verb ending forms. For instance, Table 5 shows that the basic learners can correctly answer more than 80 percent of all verbs type, excluding the "-kuru", "-su", "-suru" and "-iru" type. Although the learners' Japanese level is not advanced, they can receive good scores in verbs which end in "-gu", "-mu", "-eru", "-ku", "-u", "-bu", "-ru" and "-tsu." However, the verb types of "-kuru", "-su", "-suru", "-iru" had a lot of errors in the formation of the Japanese plain form. It can be assumed that it is not easy to acquire accurately the plain form of "-kuru", "-su", "-suru", "-iru" in the basic level and these are the most difficult types to acquire.

Additionally, Table 6 shows the results of the advanced learners group. The advanced learners can accurately form almost all the Japanese plain verb forms, excluding the "-su" type. It can be assumed that when their Japanese Language Proficiency level is higher, they can correctly form the Japanese plain verb forms. The results from this study confirms that advanced learners understand Japanese plain vcrb form better than basic learners.

Figure 1 shows the results of using the Decision Tree Analysis:

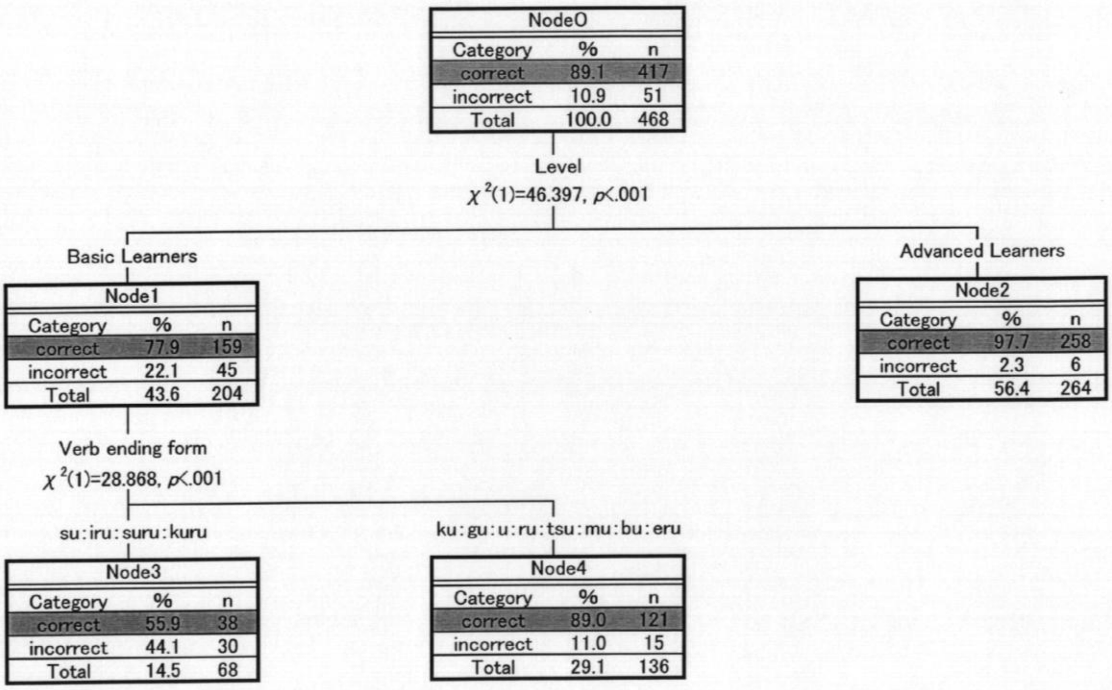

Figure 1 Dendrogram of decision tree

The results of the decision tree analysis are depicted in the dendrogram of Figure 1, clearly showing a hierarchy of the influential strength factors upon choice of [correct] or [incorrect] Japanese plain verb forms in a descending order of Japanese language proficiency level and verb ending form. The following sections discuss each of these factors.

A. Factor of Japanese Language Proficiency Level

The decision tree analysis highlights the interactive influences as shown in the dendrogram of Figure 1. Japanese language proficiency level was a significant influential factor for the acquisition of Japanese plain verb form [$\chi^2(1) = 46.397$, $p < .001$]. The results show that advanced learners can answer more correctly than basic learners.

B. Factor of Verb Ending Form

The decision tree analysis indicates that verb ending form was also identified as an influential factor in predicting [correct] or [incorrect] reporting of the Japanese plain form. As shown in the dendrogram, verbs which end with "-ku", "-gu", "-u", "-ru", "-tsu", "-mu", "-bu" and "-eru" were reported more correctly than verbs which end with "-su", "-iru", "-suru" and "-kuru" [$\chi^2(1) = 28.868$, $p < .001$]. The results show that not only Japanese language proficiency level, but also the effects of the verb ending forms themselves on the accurate acquisition of the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb form. As the decision tree indicates, there is no significant difference between verb ending forms for advanced learners.

8. Discussion

The results reported in the previous section provide clear evidence that there was a difference in ratio of the Japanese plain verb form's acquisition. It means that there is a developmental sequence in the acquisition of the Japanese plain (dictionary) form because learners could not process all the formation rules for the Japanese plain form at once. The ability to process the rules is a gradual and step by step process.

In the beginning, learners can form verbs which end with "-ku", "-gu", "-u", "-ru", "-tsu", "-mu", "-bu" and "-eru" more correctly than verbs which end with "-su", "-suru", "-kuru" and "-iru". For Thai basic learners, "-gu", "-mu" in 5-dan and "-eru" in 1-dan seem to be acquired earlier than some of the 5-dan such as "-su", and the irregular verbs. The verb type –iru in 1-dan was the most difficult verb form for the learners.

The average ratio of acquisition for advanced learners is much higher than for basic learners. For advanced learners, verbs in 5-dan, excluding "-su", and verbs in 1-dan, irregular verbs seem to be acquired more quickly by advanced Thai learners. It can be assumed that the Japanese plain form seems to be acquired by advanced learner better than by basic learners. As the decision tree indicates, there is no significant difference amongst verb ending forms for advanced learners. Excluding "-su", almost of all verb ending forms were correctly written. It can be assumed that when their Japanese ability is higher, learners can understand the rule of Japanese plain verb forms and can write them correctly.

From the results of the Decision Tree Analysis, the researcher proposes two stages in a developmental sequence in the formation of Japanese dictionary verb forms, as shown in Table 7.

Table 7 Developmental sequence in the formation of Japanese dictionary form

Stages of acquisition	Verb types
Stage 1	"-ku", "-gu", "-u", "-ru",
↓	"-tsu", "-mu", "-bu", "-eru"
↓	
Stage 2	"-su", "-iru", "-suru", "-kuru"

But why are "-su", "-suru", "-kuru" and "-iru" not easier to acquire for Thai learners? One possible reason is that the learners confuse these verb ending forms with the other verb ending forms. The following table show the errors which the learners made in the writing test.

Table 8 Error in the formation of Japanese dictionary form

	Correct Form	Error
1. keshimasu(to turn off)	"-su" type kesu	"-suru" type *kesuru
2. yoyakushimasu(to make a resevation)	"-suru" type yoyakusuru	"-su" type *yoyakusu
3. densha wo orimasu(to get off a train)	"-iru" type densha wo oriru	"-ru" type *densha wo oru
4. gakkou e kimasu(to come a school)	"-kuru" type gakkou e kuru	"-iru" type *gakkou e kiru

Perhaps one explanation is because the "-su" type and the "-suru" type show the same polite form (-masu form) and the "-ru" type and the "-iru" type show the same polite form (-masu form). E.g., ke<u>shimasu</u> ("-su" type) and yoyaku<u>shimasu</u> ("-suru" type). O<u>rimasu</u> ("-iru" type) and toma<u>rimasu</u> ("-ru" type). It can be assumed that learners confuse the verb which appeared in the polite form in writing test, so they make it easier for themselves to remember the rule by combining the two groups, the ("-su" type and "-suru" type), into one group as a product of simplification (Meisel, 1980).

In the case of the "-kuru" type, there are a lot of errors between the "-kuru" type and the "-iru" type. But why are learners confused by "-kuru" and "-iru"? The researcher assumes that learners use their knowledge of the "-iru" type to process the "-kuru" type. In Japanese, 3-mora verbs such as "mimasu" and "imasu" are almost all of the "-iru" type (such as, "mimasu" is "miru" and "imasu" is "iru"). Because there are various types of verb ending forms in Japanese, when learners see verbs which consists of 3 words, they may assume a rule that these verbs should all be of the "-iru" type. They try to make more easier rules in order to remember the more complex Japanese verb rules. However, this assumption needs to be tested empirically in order to draw any firm conclusions.

9. Conclusion

In this paper, the researcher reported the developmental sequence followed by Thai learners in the acquisition of the Japanese plain (dictionary) verb form. Based on this study, the researcher can logically conclude that there are significant difference in errors for the construction of the Japanese plain verb form among both basic learners and advanced learners. In addition, two stages of development are proposed in the accurate formation of the Japanese plain(dictionary) verbform : Stage 1) "-ku", "-gu", "-u", "-ru", "-tsu", "-mu", "-bu" and "-eru" ; Stage 2) "-su", "-iru", "-suru" and "-kuru". However, there are also other factors, such as the task type and the input from the textbook being used by the students that should be taken into account.

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Communicating intimate equality: Thailand and the recognition of same-sex love

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Abstract

Despite the growing public awareness of same-sex relations, Thai homosexual couples are yet to achieve legal recognition enjoyed by their heterosexual counterparts. The lack of historical and religious oppression against same-sex eroticisms is often cited as a sole cause of Thai homosexuals' indifferent attitude towards the issue of marital equality right. Rather than challenging social discrepancies of Thai heteronormative values, Thai homosexuals' public communication campaigns since 2007 adhere to a non-confrontational policy, emphasizing homosexuals' plea for social understanding of their sexuality. This paper investigates how Thai homosexual couples define their intimate relationships in relation to pervasive public communication campaigns for social acceptance, disseminated and initiated by mainstream homosexual rights groups. Based on in-depth interviews with 31 homosexual individuals engaging in longterm relationships for at leasr 1 year, this paper highlights Thai homosexuals' constant repositioning to conform to the ideal of romantic monogamy. This paper argues that Thai homosexuals' public communication for social recognition unwittingly excludes certain homosexuals whose relationships do not conform to the normative definition of romanticism.

Keywords: same-sex relations, marital equality right, public communication

Introduction

While the debates over the legalization of same-sex relationships are growing the world over (Chauncey, 2004, p. 165), it can be contented that this social discussion of legal recognition does not deliberately challenge traditional views of romanticism. (Warner, 1999, p. 113) The notion of romantic relationship is often understood as an emotional investment between two persons in love. This social interpretation of love as the affectionate bonding between two persons is socially popular thanks to years of public representation of monogamous marital institution, reproduced by cultural industries as well as heteronormative legal and social practices. Often taken for granted, couple's gender binary, is normalized and naturalized by heteronormative values as marriage is often taken as a social union between a man and a woman.

This rigid but often seemingly universal interpretation of marriage, often taken without doubts by religious fundamentalists as well as conservatives in many societies, has been challenged by lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) rights advocates to demystify the divinity of heterosexual marriage. One of their demands for social reform on equality is the legalization of gay/homosexual marriage.

There are 30 countries in the world that currently legalize same-sex relations. Despite the growing public awareness of same-sex relations in Thailand since 1965, Thai homosexual couples are yet to achieve the social recognition, legally enjoyed by their heterosexual counterparts. The lack of historical and religious oppression against same-sex eroticisms is often cited as a sole cause of Thai homosexuals' indifferent attitude towards the notion of marital equality right. Rather than challenging social discrepancies of Thai heteronormative values, Thai homosexuals' public communication campaigns since 2007 conforms to a non-confrontational policy emphasizing homosexuals' plea for social understanding of their sexuality.

This paper investigates how Thai homosexual couples define their intimate relationships in relation to pervasive public communication campaigns for social acceptance, disseminated and initiated by mainstream homosexual rights groups. This research is based on in-depth interviews with 31 Thai homosexuals who have been in romantic relationships for at least 1 year. The informants represent various demographic age groups, ranging from early twenty years old to late fifty years old. Their insights highlight their constant repositioning to conform to the ideal of romantic monogamy. This paper argues that Thai homosexuals' public communication for social recognition unwittingly excludes certain homosexuals whose relationships do not conform to the normative definition of romanticism.

Literature Review

Defining marriage equality

Having campaigned for social equality, international LGBT rights movements often regard the legalization of same-sex marriage as one of pivotal indications of social acceptance of same-sex romanticism. (Badgett, 2009) The propose to remove gender as a defining category of marital couples arguably liberates the notion of love from heteronormative restrictions which traditionally define marriage as a union between a man and a woman. However, human romantic relationships are anything but diverse. To accept that romantic relationship naturally involves emotional attachment between two persons to an extent conforms to social prescriptions of heteronormative marital union. Michael Warner (1999) questions this notion of romanticism as he emphasizes that this exclusivity of romantic relationship is inconsistent with the inclusivity of queer politics. In other words, LGBT campaign for marriage equality politically disregards historical struggles against social injustice and discrimination that sexual minorities have experienced. This social campaign, which treats the social recognition of monogamous romantic relationship as being included into the mainstream society, excludes other queers whose relationships do not conform to this form of relationship.

Aimed to explore Thai homosexuals' definitions of their relationships or how they communicate their understanding of intimate same-sex relationships, this research employ the notion of intimate or sexual citizenship, developped by Ken Plummer (1995, 2003), and David Bell & Jon Binnie (2000). Both Plummer, and Bell & Binnie suggest that LGBT's public campaigns for marital equality right demonstrate increasing obscurity of public and private distinctions as personal or intimate relationships have become publicly debated topics and probably defining criteria of modern citizenship. This intimate citizenship demonstrates *power relations* between individuals'private and public relationships as personal romanticism is legally subject to social sanctions. Socially sanctified marriage can therefore be seen as a point where power is being enacted (Foucault, 1980) and a point of reference through which homsexual individuals form their subjectivities. This non-conformist perspective regarding romanticism poses an interesting question whether the sought after same-sex marriage is genuine answer to social equality.

Thais' tolerance of homosexuality

Peter A. Jackson's extensive works on Thai male homosexuality point out the fact that the common misperception of Thailand as a gay paradise was caused by Thais' tolerance of homosexuality and the increasing visibility of transgenders and gay people in the public space. Homosexuality is still largely considered as unacceptable behaviour in Thailand. Yet, unlike the legal and religious prosecutions which gay women and men in the West have traditionally encountered, Thai homosexuals face rather implicit and non-interventionist sanctions i.e. gossiping, withholding approval of inappropriate behaviours and so forth (1999: 4).

Disregarding the social tolerance of homosexuality, Thai homosexuals are still subject to social prejudices and often socially collective pressure to conform to the heteronormative gender/sexual values. There are certain indications marking the gradual changing attitudes towards homosexuality. Crucially, there is a noticeable sign that not only Thai gay men but also Thai straight men and women have developed an awareness of their entitlement to human rights. These changes, to some extent, may be seen as the result of the Thai state's successful campaigns to modernize its citizens through the successive selective adoption of Western education and culture since the nineteenth century. However, compared to their Western counterparts, Thai homosexual men and women have yet to achieve the genuine social recognition of their same-sex relations. Despite the guarantee of equality and non-discriminatory treatments by the 1997 constitution and the successive 2007 constitution which extends the definition of sex to include a diverse range of sex, gender and sexuality, Thai gay men and women still do not legally exist.

Up until now, there are no laws supporting equal rights of Thai homosexuals, for example, civil partnerships, the right to the next of kin and so forth. Socially, homosexual behaviours are often criticised by Thai authoritative figures. Although Thai society is considered open for people with non-normative genders and sexualities to share the public space, these gender and sexual minorities are constantly subject to indirect social pressure to redefine their gender expressions and sexualities within the heteronormative frameworks in the public space. Megan J. Sinnott (2004)'s work on Thai female same-sex couples also indicates lesbian individuals' attempt to redefine their social identity such as ying rak ying (lit. women (who) love women), arguably to deflect negative sexual connotations attached with Thai terms, *tom* and *dee*.

Despite recent public campaigns for "life partnership" legislation in early 2013, Thai LGBT rights organizations are reluctant and, to an extent, self-restrained to challenge the heteronormative values. The petition for legal recognition of same-sex relationships mirrors that of heterosexual couples. Their strategic negotiation with mainstream society also epitomizes the contextual sensitivity or *kalathesa* (van Esterik, 2000) that requires the smooth transition without direct confrontation.

It is worth noting that Thai media coverage of the same-sex marriage ceremonies is itself an indicator that these events are not ordinary social events but are rather presented as weird or unusual news by the papers. However, unlike the civil same-sex partnerships or gay marriages in the West, Thai same-sex marriages are more like social events in which same-sex couples announce their romantic relationships not only to their families and friends, but also to their local communities and the general public. Their relationships are not, however, legally recognised unlike their heterosexual counterparts and do not entail any transferrable welfare benefits or the right of being the next of kin to the same-sex couples.

Methodology

This paper does not claim that the findings from the interviews with 31 gay men and women represent Thai homosexuals' attitudes of self-identification as being gay nor does it attempt to universalize same-sex couples' experience. Although many interviewees selected for this research share common grounds of being middle-class gay men and women and having been exposed to Western gay discourses as many of them have university degrees, the interviews do reveal that interviewees' conceptualisation of their homo-experience vary with social, educational, ethnic and religious backgrounds. Interviewees' narratives are significant in understanding the conceptualisation and the development of homosexual subjectivities in Thailand. The participation of 31 Thai gay men and women in this research to some extent strengthens the findings and provides rich data to future research in Thai gay studies.

Due to restriction of funding, time frame, this research emphasizes qualitative research principles paying attention to the construction of social realities, rather than the absolute truth of realities. Therefore, this research is designed to study the interdependence of participants and the public communication campaigns for social inclusivity, particularly on the issue of legalization of same-sex marriage.

Findings

Negotiating social acceptance

All research participants suggested that they had to negotiate the acceptable public images with the consideration of their respective families and Thai society. Some participants expressed their concerns over being socially disliked if gay people keep demanding too much and also indicated that gay people have to prove that they are equally valued members of the society through their educational and professional achievements.

24 out of 31 research participants indicated that the fact that they had secure financial status might have contributed to the social and family's tolerance of their same-sex relations. Since they fulfilled their moral obligation to uphold their family names even though their same-sex relations may be perceived as socially 'unnatural.'

Although homosexuality has been arguably tolerated in Thailand, its peripheral position in the hegemonic heterosexual standard neither provides the immunity from criticisms nor approval for certain behaviours regarded as non-normative. Many gay men and women have earned the tolerance of their homosexuality from their families through their struggles either academic or professional to prove to their parents that they can be successful. Many homosexuals, however, have no other choice and remain in the closet about their homosexuality or risk indirect sanctions from other people and sometimes their own family members.

Despite the fact that homosexuality has never been outlawed by the Thai State or condemned by Thai Buddhism, Thai gay men and women are still subject to conforming to social expectations of proper masculinity and femininity. Thai values of appropriateness and positive self-representation are substantial factors, making individuals develop a sense of self-awareness of *kalathesa* or contextual sensitivity to understand their status and place in the Thai hierarchical system, and to be able to avoid presenting socially unacceptable behaviours.

The Western notion of coming out as a gay man or woman may have been experienced differently in Thai contexts because of the prevailing taboo on talking about sex or sexuality in public, making coming out relatively inappropriate. This cultural aphasia regarding the discussion of sex and sexuality can also be said to make the identification with non-normative gender/sex categories such as gay problematic in Thai society where sex and sexuality remain sensitive subjects, often regarded as private.

The cultural taboo on discussion of sex and the notion of private (homo) sexuality can be said to engender relatively non-confrontational and subtle strategies of coming out, particularly to family members. While most informants speculate their respective parental acknowledgement of their homosexuality, they have never discussed it directly. Informants' incidental conversations with their respective parents, nevertheless, show their parents' de facto tolerance of their homosexuality.

Empirical interview data also point out that parental reactions to the revelation of non-normative gender expressions and/ or same-sex attraction of their sons and daughters vary from one family to another. While some families are prepared to concede to non-normative gender and sexual practices of informants, some families have exercised both discrete and explicit pressure to informants to conform to the heteronormative values. Despite their inability to fulfil their social expectations, informants have substantially shown their relentless efforts to prove their worthiness through their successes in education and profession, respectively.

The public image of being a good person can argued to help facilitate the participants into the heteronormative society as they have had proved that they are worthy to be accepted. However, when asking their opinions on the notion of coming out to the general public excluding their close friends and family members, most informants emphasize the pervasiveness of *kalathesa* and further state that they know how to behave especially in the formal milieu such as the work place. Therefore, they do not think their homosexuality would jeopardize their future career opportunities.

The research participants, however, do not view that they are leading double lifestyles although their expression of their homosexuality in public would violate the contextual sensitivity in the public space. On the contrary, they assert that knowing when, where and with whom to come out is just a part of everyday social etiquette.

In short, the notion of kalathesa or contextual sensitivity can be said to offer non-confrontational strategies for Thai gay men to negotiate their sexual subjectivation or space in the public domain, but the awareness of kalathesa by gay men also restricts the ways in which Thai gay men may choose to 'come out' under the significant pressure to maintain the appropriate masculine gender surface.

Marriage means equality?

Since 24 out of 31 research participants enjoy significant familial and social respectability thanks to their educational and professional achievements, they are in a position to disregard the lack of partners' rights legally bestowed on heterosexual couples. 15 participants who are from upper middle class or upper class backgrounds clearly stated that they did not think that the rights would have made any differences to their relationships since they and their partners had separate and independent financial sources. While other younger 9 participants who viewed themselves as middle class agreed to potential benefit of being in legalized same-sex relations. The 7 participants who can be categorized as working class due to their educational and professional backgrounds stressed their strong support for the legal and social recognition of same-sex relaitons.

Almost all participants agreed that the right to be the next of kin was utmost significant as serveral participants confessed that their relationships with their partners were still being shunned by their partners' families and their own families for some participants. This akward situation was relatively connected to the issue of coming out, having discussed earlier, as more than half of particpants never discussed about their sexuality or their relaitonships with their families for fear of violating the contextual sensibility norms.

The emerging issue from this research is the notion of inclusivity, particularly definitions and criteria of legalized or recognized same-sex relationships. 6 research participants are in non-normative forms of romantic relationships. 5 persons are in three-some relationships while the other one is in open-relationship. This raises the question whether the criteria for partnership is too restrictive or exclusive that they allow only two persons can legally enter this form of recognition. Interview data also show that their three-some relationships are not temporary. 3 research particpants have been in this relationship for 5 years. Their families witness this three-some relationship since they three have been living with one of their parents. These non-normative romantic relationships might not conform to the social expectation of partnership, but it cannot be denied their existence.

Conclusion

The major concern for social acceptance of Thai gay men and women is to maintain their positive image in relation to Thailand's contextual sensitivity. As the term gay is loaded with social misperception of non-normative gender expressions and sexual behaviours, Thai gay men and women often find the identification with the label gay culturally problematic or contextually improper. Instead of organising a public rally for social justice and equality like gay rights movements in the West, Thai gay men who participated in this research not only point out the negative stereotypes, associated with the identity gay, often reproduced by the press, but also underline the significance of keeping up with the social sensitivity to be included into the mainstream. This paper also questions whether the legalization of same-sex relaitons unwittingly conforms to heteronormative romanticism.

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What's in it for them? Adolescents and Multiplatform Internet use: a new Paradigm.

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Abstract

Through ethnographically styled in-depth case studies, representing a 'snapshot' of the online multiplatform site inhabited by four adolescents, this paper argues *that adolescents are co-constructing unique multiplatform internet spaces* combining online social networking and multiplayer computer games to develop *arenas in which to journey through their own 'rites of passage', from childhood into adulthood.*

With reference to our changing perceptions of space and time, it discusses the multiplatform field-site as a place of play, ritual and learning. Using multimodal social-semiotic analysis to '*listen to adolescent voice'* and answer the question: *'What's in it for them?'*
This argument emerged from a three month research project I undertook in the South West of England earlier this year.

Through re-defining the field-site, not by temporal parameters, but by the function it serves; by addressing the *'ritual use value'* of virtual participatory platforms, to discover what was 'meaningful' for the adolescents themselves; and by asking *'What exactly is engaging them, how and why?'* I began to observe a specific phenomenological activity in the *way* adolescents were interacting with internet technology not as an application of tools or resources but as a way of co-creating and using shared space. I also recorded how activity within this multiplatform space, although technologically mediated, was facilitated by unique, rhythms as individuals flowed between states of engagement, immersion and reflection.

This paper introduces a new theoretical paradigm, that of *'Syntagmatic Cathedral'* to describe the heterotopic multiplatform site which these adolescents co-created and inhabited; and the term *flow-wave* to describe their unique rhythms of activity within it.
With reference to my son's apparent obsession with (internet networked) 'screens' (particularly X-box live), my position as a parent was: *'Oh for goodness sake: it's not a life support machine!'* As a researcher I tried to detach from this 'adult discourse' and reposition myself, to 'listen to adolescent voice'.

Keywords: adolescents; computer games; SNS; internet culture

Introduction

Using multimodal data gathering techniques, including videoing and participant observation, I joined four young people in their chosen internet activities. In order to ascertain the most effective research methods to answer the question: *"What's in it for them?"* I undertook a one hour pilot study, continually asking one adolescent (C1): *'What are you doing?'* and '*Why are you doing that?'* I plotted his response in minutes over time and originally used the *'Circuit of Culture'* (De Gay 1991) as a framework for analysis. However I found merely breaking internet activity down into five intertwined 'nodal points' of *Production, Consumption, Regulation, Representation* and *Identity* inadequate for in-depth analysis, because this framework is designed to explore our relationships with specific media products rather than multiplatform multimodal syntagm.

The pilot study raised questions about method, position and authenticity of data collected. I queried whether repeatedly asking questions (every minute) might be *unnecessarily* intrusive, interrupt gameplay and affect authentic socialising behaviour. However this methodology produced measurable data recording the seamless flow between states of *immersion* within the game, *engagement* with the wider multimodal environment, and periods of *reflective contemplation.* When, at minute fifty, my case study announced assertively: *"I'm signing you in"* (to XboxLive), I was offered genuine ways to side-line my own agenda and genuinely give a platform to 'adolescent voice'.

Using a 'grounded' research approach proved fruitful because just one hour of data revealed a veritable cornucopia of interesting data, ripe for further analysis and discussion. Also during the pilot study I noticed how C1 was co-creating a multiplatform space predominantly with one particular friend, C2, and I became fascinated at how this extended the boundaries of my field-site.

Re-defining the field-site

I believe that, in order to better understand emerging inter-textual internet practices and address research questions raised within them, a reconfiguration of existing cultural and media studies frameworks is crucially needed. This paper therefore presents a call for a critical rethink of how we conceptualise multiplatform 'spaces'.

In each of my case studies the contextualising physical environment, hardware and software 'Apps' were easy to define: C1(age 15) and C2(14) used 'X-box' games consoles, networked microphone-headsets and smart-phones as platforms to access 'The Internet' from within their respective bedrooms; F2(13) simultaneously used his Netbook and desktop PC to access various internet texts while sitting at his family's kitchen breakfast bar; and F1(11) listened to digital audio media while '*playing*' '*educational*' multiplayer online games on her Netbook from the comfort of a living room sofa. All software 'Apps' fell within the two genres of computer games and social networking.

But I came to realise that, in order to elucidate anything meaningful from these case studies, I first needed to define the 'shape' of my field-site and theorised the multiplatform space as a *place of learning, a place of play* and *a place of ritual.*

In this paper I have not set out to define learning, rather to investigate the nature and values that adolescents themselves find in their autonomous interactions with various technological platforms. I reviewed *'Digital Games for education: when meanings play'* (de Castell, Jenson and Taylor's 2007) with interest. Using a 'Design Based Research' approach they originally set out to investigate *"educational….processes*" inherent in computer gameplay, but through continuous efforts to overcome representational and ludic programming restrictions realised that 'immersion' was taking place through playing but that none of these playable sequences 'appeared' to have 'educational' value. They noted how content and meaning was enacted through all aspects of narrative and game-play, and co-constructed by the player through the programming. In conclusion they called for *"….a paradigmatic change of view to reshape and re-think the study of digital games as info rich cultural texts".* Building on views that learning consists not only in assimilating information found in content but also in the process of social participation (Gee 2003), and re-iterating the profound observation that *"whether you particularly like or respect or understand"* (Ryle 1949) what a person is paying attention to in any given moment it is where their intelligence is most efficiently being deployed, I believe that in constructing unique multiplatform internet arenas adolescents are, whether they intend it or not, creating a site in which learning takes place and hope we can take a paradigmatic change of view to rethink the whole multiplatform arena as an 'info rich cultural text'.

> *"...the introduction of play theory into media and cultural studies…offers a potentially fruitful methodological shift for the whole field"* (Dovey and Kennedy; 2011: 23)

When asked to let me research their multi-platform internet use, all of the young people I observed, without exception, focused on sharing with me their favourite computer games. That for these young people 'games' were synonymous with 'internet use', became a salient revelation from my ethnographically styled research. Therefore theoretical frameworks around 'games' and 'play' became important lenses for contemplating and defining the contextualising field-site. As my point of departure was simultaneous multiplatform internet use, the study of game structure in terms of *ludology* and *narratology*, although useful discourses for analysis, became less pertinent than definitions of play, or the process of 'play', itself.

> "*If we want to better understand how players construct meaning while playing, we need ontological models that better explain player performance and the nature of play".* (Frasca 2004)

The notion of a *magic circle* (Huizinga 1955) has permeated cultural theory since originally used as one term amongst many to illustrate play as taking place in a bounded arena "*standing quite consciously outside 'ordinary' life"*. Along with Salen & Zimmerman (2004) and Frasca (2007), amongst others, I revisit it as a core concept in the theoretical framework for computer game analysis but paradoxically concur with Leander and McKim (2003) that notions of 'The Internet' as an entity somehow "*separate from everyday life"* are misconceived: agreeing instead with Miller and Slater (2000) that *"Internet technologies are being understood and assimilated somewhere in particular".* In addressing the multiplatform field-site as a space where meanings are made I look upon it, not as a polarised relationship between a person's physical environment and their entry into virtual computer gameplay, but an interplay of platforms in which each individual's contextualising cultural environment, social connections, shared knowledge and *technicities* (Dovey and Kennedy 2006) combine to create uniquely meaningful, lived experiences. Discussing the virtual field site as a place of ritual is predicated on understanding ritualised aspects of avatar identities created within constructed 'magic circles' of MMORPG's, and player's relationships with 'trophies' collected through the guided narrative of 'questing': that these aspects apply to all areas of the multiplatform internet space not just games. In developing my thesis I revisited Walter Benjamin's seminal paper "*The work art in the age of mechanical reproduction"* (1936) as a lens to theorise our evolving relationships with both virtual spaces and the objects within them: in this our age, not of mechanical reproduction but, of digital representation. Benjamin's concise manifesto style essay, laconic and pithy, gallops boldly through art history ideology raising a number of issues. I revisit it here in relation to configuring adolescent multiplatform use: therefore concentrating on relevant discourses around space, time, perception, aura and ritual use value, rather than his 20th century socio-political ideologies. Outlining historical transformations of art, through lithography, photography and graphics, and their convergence into film and sound-synchronised cinematography, Benjamin discusses effects of mechanical reproduction on human perception.

Throughout three decades of broadcast and non-broadcast production, form creating 2D and 3D computer graphics through experiences applying multimedia in education to my current research interests, I am continually drawn back into Benjamin's profoundly prophetic quotes concerning how convergence of synchronised audio and visual reproduction:

> *"… made predictable a situation which Paul Valery pointed up in this sentence 'Just as water, gas, and electricity are brought into our houses from far off to*

satisfy our need in response to a minimal effort, so we shall be supplied with visual or auditory images, which will appear and disappear at a simple movement of the hand, hardly more than a sign' (op.cit.,p.226)."

Neither Valery nor Benjamin could have contemplated the significance of this prediction as we charter revolutionary relationships with evolving perceptions and notions of space and time through our encounters with new multiple virtualities. Crucial to Benjamin's thesis is his almost profound assumption that an original Objects'D'art (although insentient) maintains an essential 'aura'. He introduces this concept as an object's notional 'authenticity', 'uniqueness', or 'authority', that which cannot be reproduced: both because any reproduction is bounded by specific ideological and semiotic lenses and because in reproduction it is re-situated, detached from its original provenance. His consistent lamentations that mechanical reproduction causes 'withering' and 'destruction' of 'aura' is confused by self-contradiction. For example his assertion that *"aura is tied to presence; there can be no replica of it"* is later weakened by argument that within the last vestiges of ritual use value, in the 'cult of remembrance', *"...for the last time the aura emanates from early photographs in the fleeting expression of a human face".* In stating: *"The presence of the original is the prerequisite to the concept of authenticity"*, in other words reproducing 'depreciates' essence, he is not discussing technical depreciation, for example a photocopy of a photocopy, which clearly lacks visual information. Even in this HD age we can see that ta digital representation is not the original person: lacking many facets of humanity, it is a weak copy of the original. In the same way that social-semiotic theorists view meanings as being made within the cultural connects of both an object's site of production (by the producer) *and* its site of reception (by audience), Benjamin suggests *"...in permitting the reproduction to meet the beholder...in his own particular situation, it reactivates the object reproduced."* I would argue that this does not necessarily negate its original aura (as Benjamin implies), but alters or compounds it. He also discussed the socio-political significance of a human actor being mediated, for the first time in history, through the mechanical reproduction. That because 'aura' emanates from 'presence' the film actor *"operates with his whole living person, yet forgoing* {his} *aura"*. I would argue that 'aura' is not relinquished totally but, dislocated by the asynchronicity of a technical shooting script, transposed through editing, and re-presented. Benjamin recalls Rudolf Arnheim's comment (1932) on 'film' as *"the latest trend . . . in treating the actor as a stage prop chosen for its characteristics and . . . inserted at the proper place"*.

As a computer animator I viewed CGI, avatars and virtual landscapes as original 'object D'art'. An avatar although virtual *is* the original (although it may be a representation of its human 'puppeteer'). Benjamin suggests two elements affecting the notion of an object's aura. Firstly that "e*ven the most perfect reproduction...is lacking in one element: its presence in time and space, its unique existence at the place where it happens to be"*; and secondly, alluding to an objects ritual use value, that 'authority' and 'authenticity' are jeopardized when its *"substantive* [or functional] *duration ceases to matter"*. Time & space and 'ritual use value' are both germane demarcations of field-site for socio-cultural ethnographers.

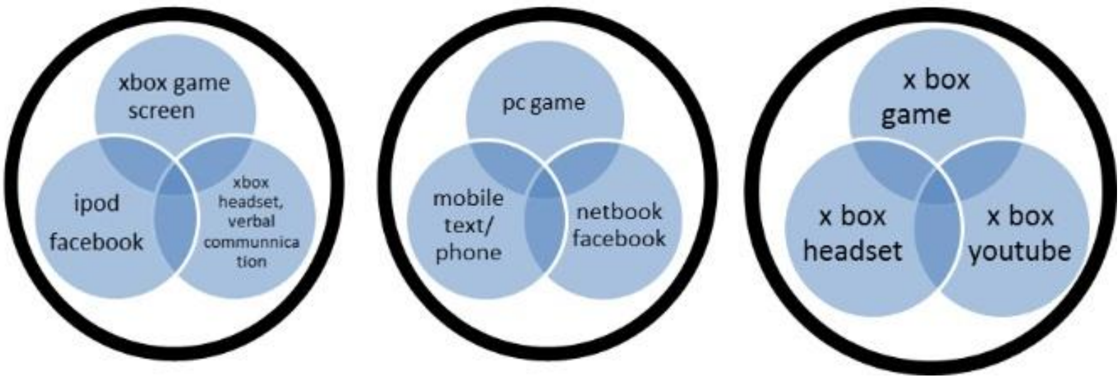
But what is our relationship when representations are virtual rather than mechanical? Objects are reproduced (their aura's re-activated) uniquely for us in virtual time and space every-time we switch on our computer screens, but do they cease to exist every-time we switch it off? Since Valery's prophetic comments above, we have moved fleetingly through a transitional age (the epoch from 'analogue' to 'digital' technology) into a new era encompassing multiple virtualities. One structural difference between the two ages is that the former involved our relationship with multimodal texts and virtual objects, through **one** screen at a time (e.g. **a** computer, **a** television, or **a** games console): our existence and that of a parallel virtual reality reflected as if in a mirror. At first these objects existed uniquely in landscapes only for us: reflecting our relationship with them, our site was then a dichotomous one. The question then became not one of mechanical reproduction but of digital representation. Even after the advent of *'The Internet',* when we navigated past 'on/off' borders into dimensions where landscape (and object) encompassing perception-warping dimensions of time and space continue to exist independently, our field-site remained a dichotomous one. For example in the case of MMORPG's where the landscape remained present in a time and space captured on a server *outside* our existence, our computer functions as 'portal' transporting us into a consistent mutually inhabited virtual playground but our presence both *in* it (as avatar) and *at* it (viewed through a single screen) ceased to exist once 'de–activated'. Even when our relationship with virtuality became 'cyborgian', existing at the "*simple movement of* {our} *hand"* through haptic interactive technologies (e.g. Xbox'Kinect') this was still the case, and it remained a question of digital representation rather than virtual existence. Benjamin discussed how optical and acoustic developments in the medium of film enriched our field of perception through a *mutual penetration of art and science*. Semantic and sentient relevance of cinematographic devices affect digital representations in virtual worlds, and technical innovations our *'immersion'* within them, consequentially altering our perceptions of time/space and impacting on notions of field-site. For example close-up, zoom shots, slow motion sequences, ellipsis and editing pace are all devices which expand and contract our spatial perceptions. One adolescent in my case studies evidenced the effects of this by responding assertively to my question *"Did that feel like a whole hour?"*: *"No it wasn't I think it was about 20 minutes"*. The question now is not one of virtual existence but of human perception. In a multiplatform site, where virtual objects, landscapes and identities never cease to exist in some form, in some time or space, our relationships with objects, sounds and images, are mediated through simultaneous use of multiple interconnected screens (e.g. a smartphone **and** a laptop **and** a games console). Our field-site, no longer dichotomous but duplicitous, leaks into a multi-dimensional environment defined not by its bounded landscape but by its socio-functional (ritual use) value.

With reference to Matters of perception Benjamin explained"*...the mode of human sense perception changes with humanity's entire mode of existence"* and raised four socially significant issues:

1. Defining our relationship with nature as a *"…unique phenomenon of a distance"* he suggested that, because 'cult value' is bounded by specific spatial perceptions of space & time, the age of mechanical reproduction separated art objects from ritual value and consequently functionally altered human perspective.
2. He expounded this notion suggesting that we 'receive' works of art from either of two mutually exclusive positions, the perspectives of 'Cult value' *or* 'Exhibition value'; and that a *"quantitative shift"* between these polar planes turned into a *"qualitative transformation"* in the way we create meaning from objects.
3. That our visual and emotional 'point of view' is mediated by the camera operator, who intrusively yet stealthily penetrates our perception; and
4. that *"…*{as}*…the reader gains access to authorship"*, through 'audience participation', our 'mode of existence' from passive receptive to inter-active alters our relational perceptions.

In 1936 Benjamin wrote *"For the last twenty years neither matter nor space nor time has been what it was from time immemorial…"* In 1967 Foucault reiterated how *"our notion of space alters with our perception".* Since then our interactive relationships with digital media have again, and again, affected our modes of perception. The shift from our dichotomous relationship with *'The Internet'*, engaging through a single screen, to a duplicitous one, within a simultaneous multiplatform site, marks a new era: a paradigm shift in '*humanities mode of existence'*. The reception of multimodal digital and virtual objects, through simultaneous multiple technological platforms, is having evolutionary significance and universal impact on our sensory perceptions and notions time/space. The adolescents in my research took this evolution for granted. For Benjamin the function of mechanically reproduced objects and landscapes, no longer ‘ceremonial instruments of magic’, lost their ritual use value. But I believe that we reclaim that essential, and inherent, relationship with objects through our secular use of landscape, props and (role)play; that this is exemplified and re-enacted through emerging relationships with technologically mediated, ‘commodified’ devices; and that our relationship with both multimodal digital representations and virtual objects is not defined through the ‘aura’ of each object, but through their ‘ritual use value’ as props within the multiplatform space. Using multimodal multiplatform internet space is not unique to adolescents. Adults and increasingly younger children also engage with multiple mediated technologies in our contemporary commodified landscape. But the ‘use value’ of this space is significantly different. Each adolescent, paradoxically through ‘collective experience’, co-constructs a uniquely personal multiplatform arena, developing senses of self and belonging (processes integral to transformation from childhood to adulthood). Thus demarcating the field-site not by specific technological platforms, nor as a geo-virtual location, nor as dispersed nodal points across times and spaces, but by its use value as a ‘rite of passage’.

Rituals attached to specific transitional periods remain humanly universal: functioning, as a form of socialisation, to re-enforce beliefs and values within communities; and all involving demarcated space, the use of ‘props’, special language, and following prescribed or scripted narrative(Van Gennep1909). Adolescence as a ‘*site* (or time) *of* (socio-cultural) *struggle’* is rich in signifying practices and symbolic meaning (Hall and Jefferson1975/2006) re-enacted by today’s adolescence not just through the platform of MMORPGs but throughout the whole multiplatform paradigm. Consequently the whole shape of adolescence has been transformed as *“…traditional blood ties are increasingly replaced, in threshold cyborg cultures, by technologically defined social bonds”*.* This is an emerging global phenomena.
*Tomas 2000:184; cited in *Games Cultures* Dovey and Kennedy 2006
Referring to Winnicot’s notions of play, Dovey and Kennedy (2006) discussed both liminal and liminoid qualities of MMORPGs framing them as *transitional phenomena.* I would argue that the whole *Gesamtkunstwerke* of adolescent multiplatform internet constructs (not only games) function as *transitional arenas.* The term ‘magic circle’ is so evocative in describing this transformative arena, but for defining a multiplatform field-site lacking because it denotes an arena with a single, albeit permeable, circumference. The multiplatform field-site could be viewed as a Venn diagram in which the central area could be theorised as a ‘magic circle’ of virtual immersion; its elliptical offshoots areas of engagement (spanning both virtual and physical sites); and a circumference of the whole an area of inner reflection/ outward contemplation.



However this model lacks an interconnected web view of the 'online' multiplatform field-site or *"…nodal points in the diffuse networks of global and local relations that constitute the context of life."*(Olwig and Hastrup 1997).Therefore I suggest a new model, *'The Syntagmatic Cathedral',* as a term to describe these unique multiplatform arenas because they are both meeting places and sites of transition. In this new model, more appropriately illustrated as a 3D structure rather than a 2D plan, the central area, site of meaning making, is an immersive 'magic sphere'; the semiotic cuboid structure incorporates multiple technological platforms between which engaged narrative journeys are enacted; and the wider alcoves represent areas of broader, cross border (virtual and physical), areas for reflection and contemplation. Early church architecture was based on the Roman 'Basilica' or meeting place. Adolescent communities of interest, like congregations, share in creating use value from their assemblies. The interconnecting corridors of multiplatform narratives transect like branching structures of a Cathedral's 'crossing' (the architectural construct where the transept intersects the nave). In the multidimensional *magic sphere,* as a site of meaning making each adolescent's unique performance functions as an *integration code* in the same way that the multimodal principle of 'editing' *"acts as an 'integration code' for synchronising semiotic elements through a common rhythm"* (Van Leuwen 1985).Just as game narrative is *"…directly linked to the player's location within and movement through the space…"* (Tepikke by Dovey & Kennedy 2011) each adolescent's 'rite of passage' is performed through their location and integrative movements through 'The Syntagmatic Cathedral'. The multiplatform space, as used by these adolescents, represents a new paradigm where meanings are woven, across virtual and non-virtual borders, through narrative journeys, linking various technological platforms. The 'crossing' forms a multi-faceted hub from a complex matrix of *'sitings'* (Leander McKim 2003): linking various times and spaces, virtual and physical worlds, shared 'playgrounds' and active socio-cultural constructs (formed through 'known' friends, avatars, commercial programming, simultaneous production/ consumption, 'creativity', gameplay, skill acquisitions, learning and socialising. In this way it is a space defined, through a complexity of adolescent practices, by its actual use value rather than divisive, segregating or delineating polar categories such as virtual/real; external/internal; useful/playful; public/private, etc.

Within *The Syntagmatic Cathedral* ritualised objects, or 'prop's include both physical, such as headsets, game controller, computer keyboard; and virtual, such as avatar 'clothing', costume, armour, weapons, communications and symbolic icons (with attached programmed properties). The uses of these props, language and narratives within the adolescent 'Syntagmatic cathedral' were "*motivated by the interest of the sign maker"* (Burn, Carr 2008). Special language includes computer coding, digital literacies, and new emerging abbreviated lexicon. Prescribed or scripted narrative is present in the forms of 'gameplay' such as 'capture the flag'; through asynchronistic text message communications (such as pre-arranged meeting times in specific 'Apps' or virtual maps). Most significantly I recorded how this narrative was performed, in my case studies, through repetitive *flow-waves* between textual immersion and cognitive engagements: weaving connections between various inter-textual platform *sitings* through the central hub, or 'crossing'. These *flow-waves* of immersion and engagement sometimes continued uninterrupted for many hours. Each narrative session, or journey, was punctuated by short periods of focussed reflection and longer periods of environmental 'distractions' before being returned into.

With reference to notions of *'Heterotopic Spaces'* (Foucault 1967) the adolescent multiplaform *Syntagmatic Cathedral* is a site *"not entirely de sanctified*, simultaneously heterotopic and heterogenous, an *'other'* space which *"in order to be perceived…has to pass through this virtual point which is over there".* As a 'sacred ', 'forbidden' or 'privileged' arena it acts as a 'crisis heterotopia' fashioned by adolescents for their own use perhaps in response to institutionalised constructs of 'heterotopias of deviation'. As a re-appropriation of internet technologies, adolescents change the functional use of multiplatform spaces. As a real site "*defined by its proximity between points",* it enables or facilitates various functions by juxtaposing, countering, compensating, contesting and reflecting its relationship with "*all the sites that surround it".* Permission is required for entry into ritual heterotopias where others may be excluded: I was explicitly 'invited' to join my case studies in this space and mentored in acceptable narratives, behaviours and use of new emerging language. FOUCAULT stated "*that Heterotopia's begin to function at full capacity when men arrive at a sort of absolute break with their traditional time";* that they are heterochronic in that they develop evolutionary changes in the chronological time leading to evolutionary changes in form, size, shape and function. As a specific behavioural zeitgeist phenomena functioning as a space within a 'snapshot of time' and in relation to all other current socio-cultural spaces the 'Syntagmatic Cathedral' represents a heterochronic evolutionary phenomena: a "*break with their traditional time".* Foucault asked *"What meaning does a Heterotopia have?"*

1. **So, what *is* in it for them?**

Cultural and media analysis historically calls upon Sauserre's semiotic theory (1880s/ 1890s), developed by Barthes (1960s): the socio-cultural significance of language structures and visual codes. In order to elucidate meaning from my research I called upon inter-textual analysis and multimodal social semiotic frameworks of Halliday, Kress and Van Leuwen, Burn and Carr. Halliday (1978/1985) analysed language as a form of social behaviour and described how its building blocks, lexicon (vocabulary) and syntax (grammar) combine to fulfil three communicative functions: *representation*; *interaction* and *organisation*. In other words media texts describe and represent the world, enabling communication about it, and contextualising meanings. Kress & van Leuwen applied this theory to visual images explaining how pictures and texts, acting as vocabulary, are combined through compositional conventions, or 'rules' which act as 'grammar', to create meaning. Later, in *Multimodal Discourse*, Kress and van Leuwen (2001) moved away from traditional film theory (how each mode fulfils a specific semiotic task) to understand better how meaning is made through *practices* and *resources* inherent in multimodality…reiterating Benjamin's tenet that an object's meaning is found in its traditional *use value*. Later still Andrew Burn (2007) applied Halliday's framework (1985) and Genette's theories of *narratology* (1980), to analyse fluctuating pronouns within his case study field-notes. Through this textual and multimodal social semiotic analysis he revealed how written text, moving images, and audio combine to develop the relationship between players and their virtual embodiment as avatars; and that semiotic coherence, 'sense' or meaning-making, is fulfilled through player engagement.

During my field observation, when F2 unexpectedly took a screenshot of his avatar riding through the air on a dragon, I discovered the importance of understanding a socio-linguistic dimension to semiotics. Given complex cultural mythologies surrounding dragons I could project many meanings onto this image, but despite musing for hours would not have decoded its significance, as a 'trophy' for F2, had I not directly asked "*What are you doing? Why are you doing that?"* and applied Burn's textual approach to analysing research data. I discovered *What's in it for them?* By applying the motivational topology of Burn and Carr (2007) who, by investigating what gamers were doing and why, discovered three overlapping motivations: *representational*, *ludic* and *communal*. Ludic achievements bleed into the 'communal' through the kudos and social capital of displaying ‘technicities’. It was this communal/ socialising aspect which my case studies actively valued above all else.

2. Conclusion

However the real significance of this research project lay in elucidating the paradigmatic shift in our perception/‘mode of human’ existence; developing a new theoretical framework…‘The Syntagmatic Cathedral’…to define the adolescent multiplatform field-site; and in revealing how activity within this space, although technologically mediated, was enacted through each individual’s unique rhythm of engagement, immersion and reflection. I termed these rhythmical flows, across the times and spaces, inherent in multi-tasking multi-platform internet screens, *‘flow-waves’,* alluding to both:

1. Douglas and Hargadon’s description of a state which *“…hovers on the continuum between…{the two}… drawing on the characteristics of both simultaneously” (2000:6);*
2. and the term *‘deep flow’ ,* describing a highly motivated, intensely pleasurable, euphoric yet focussed, interactive absorption which is simultaneously cognitively challenging and emotionally rewarding; and which Csikszentmihalyi (1996, 1997) described as an optimal ‘learning’ environment.

In conclusion my theoretical argument…*that adolescents are constructing themselves unique multiplatform internet spaces as…arenas…to journey through ‘rites of passage’, from childhood into adulthood*…is based on case study observations…of their ability to make sense of a plethora of multimodal syntagm from simultaneous SNS, ‘gameworlds’, audio, music, instant messaging texts, and symbolic and cultural cues (which left my brain ‘lagging’, recovering from cacophonic semiotic overload); and also a richer analysis and deeper understanding of the multiplatform arenas each are constructing.

But the significance of this paper lies in the potential of applying ‘The Syntagmatic Cathedral’ and *‘flow waves’* as models for further research about emerging trends in learning and communication.

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Language Learning Strategies Used by Thailand's Technical College Students

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to investigate language learning strategies used by the first-year students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, Thailand and to compare the use of students' language learning strategies according to their gender and fields of study. The samples were 278 first-year students attending 3 study programs at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI) in the 2011 academic year. Data were collected by the Oxford's Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 which was translated into Thai and has a reliability coefficient (α) at .94. Statistical analyses used were Descriptive Statistics, Independent-Samples T-Test, and One-Way ANOVA. Results revealed that the strategy use of 278 first-year students at TNI were moderate strategy users with compensation category as the most frequently used strategies followed by metacognitive, memory, social, affective, and cognitive respectively. Findings also found that gender influenced the use of students' language learning strategies. Males used the overall language learning strategies more often than females. However, fields of study did not show the significant differences on the use of students' language learning strategies. The implications of the findings are discussed along with suggestions for further research.

Keywords: first-year students, fields of study, gender, language learning strategies

Rationale of the study

Over decades, English has acquired the status of an international language. With a large number of users throughout the world approximately 1.5 billion people (Graddol, 1997), English is obviously accepted as one of the most influentially powerful languages, or regarded as a world language. In Thailand, where the use of English is recognized as EFL or English as a Foreign Language, Thai researchers (Chumpavan, 2000; Kaotsombat, 2003) agree with its importance, and the development of English skills in Thai learners is an essential mission. They have agreed that being English proficient learners can benefit them to survive and succeed both in academic areas and in the workplace.

However, being English competent users is complicated. According to Ellis (1994), he proposes five major aspects of successful language learning. He states that good language learners, first of all, must concern a language form or grammatical structure. Second, they must concern for communication and are willing to find opportunities to engage in a real communicative situation. Third, they need to be active learners who are willing to participate in any learning tasks and are not frightened to introduce new topics for conversations. Fourth, they are aware of their learning process. In other words, they need to manage their own learning by locating their goals and selecting their own preferred learning styles. Last, they are flexible strategy users who can choose learning strategies suiting particular types of tasks. For this reason, language learning strategies are necessary for Thai learners.

To attain all these aspects among Thai learners is quite rough and more difficult because they have some limitation. Firstly, their English abilities are limited to their area of interests. Furthermore, Fredrickson's (2003) report on the English proficiency of Thai learners, it indicated that most Thai learners were "modest" English users on the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) scale. Similarly to most Thai learners, students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI) are not competent English users and are not able to achieve the standard level of English achievement tests. Thus, English teachers need to assist their students to improve and enhance their abilities and confidence in using English.

Teaching and training Thai learners with the appropriate sets of language learning strategies is vital to develop them to be more English proficient users (O' Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Cohen, 1998). The language proficiency of each learner depends upon the frequency and patterns of strategies that he or she employed in each task (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). In addition, Oxford (1990) defines language learning strategies as effective tools helping learners to learn a language more effectively, independently, and enjoyably through a variety type of tasks. She explains that training learners with relevant learning strategies enables them to understand and improve their language learning, and it enables them to master a target language proficiently. Besides, there have been numerous studies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Green & Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997; Wharton, 2000; Vidal, 2002; Shmais, 2003; Takeuchi, 2003; Nisbet, Tindall, & Arroyo, 2005; Riazi & Rahimi, 2005; Xuan, 2005) that show the connections between strategy use and language proficiency. The findings from these studies indicated that language learning strategies could influence performance in language learning, and using different strategies led to different learning performance. Moreover, the results found that the proficient language learners used language learning strategies more greatly and frequently than did the less proficient learners. Nonetheless, Oxford (1989) and Lightbrown and Spada (1999) argue that there are other factors affecting language learning such as intelligence, aptitude, personality, motivation and attitudes, learner preferences (age, gender, nationality origin), learner's belief, period of second language study, learning styles, and language teaching methods. There have been several studies examining the factors that contribute to success in learning a language such as age (Oxford, 1989), gender (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Sheorey, 1999), number of years of language study (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989), level of course (Green & Oxford, 1995; Wharton, 2000; Griffiths, 2003; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007), and motivation (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Wharton, 2000). Amongst these variables, language learning strategies have become as a primarily significant factor in language learning (Skehan, 1989). Consequently, before teaching and training learners the appropriate language learning strategies, it is essential that language teachers need to identify the strategy types that the learners use while using and communicating a foreign language in order to help them improve their language proficiency efficiently.

Research Questions

The purposes of this study were to investigate language learning strategies used by the first-year students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI), Thailand and to compare the use of students' language learning strategies according to their gender and fields of study. The research questions are following:

1. What kinds of language learning strategies do the first-year students at TNI report using?
2. Does learner gender influence TNI's first-year students' use of language learning strategies?
3. Does TNI's first-year students' use of language learning strategies differ according to their fields of study?

Framework of the Study

The present study aimed to investigate language learning strategies used by the first-year students attending 3 study programs: Engineering, Information Technology, and Business Administration programs at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI), Thailand; and to compare the use of students' language learning strategies according to their gender and fields of study. In addition, the study employed Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies as a main scheme for identifying students' language learning strategies. Griffiths (2003) states that Oxford's (1990) classification is more detailed, understandable, and systematic than any other researchers' classifications, and this classification links individual strategies and strategy groups with four language skills, and it promotes teaching and learning improvement, as well as, fostering learners with the sense of learner autonomy (Vidal, 2002).

Research Methodology

Population

The population in this study was a total of 993 first-year students attending 3 study programs: Engineering, Information Technology, and Business Administration during the second semester in the academic year of 2011 at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI), Thailand. They were native Thai students both males and females whose ages ranged from 17 to 22 years of age, and they were required to study one English compulsory course in their first semester at the institute.

Sample

To determine the sample size, simple random sampling was used through R.V. Krejecie and D.W. Morgan's (1970) sampling table. The sample of this study were 278 first-year students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI), Thailand consisting of 140 males and 138 females.

Research Instruments

The instruments in this study were two sets of questionnaires: Background Characteristics and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 (ESL/EFL).

1. **Background Characteristics**
   To understand the background and demographic information of the participants, the researcher designed four questions to gather the data regarding the gender, age, major, and English grade.

2. **The Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL)**
   The Strategy Inventory of Language Learning or SILL is a self-rating questionnaire which was designed by Oxford in 1986 with the aim of assessing the frequency of use of language learning strategies by students at the Defense Language Institute in Monterey, California (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). There were two revised versions of SILL: the 80-item version 5.1 questionnaire designed for foreign language learners who are native speakers of English; and the 50-item version 7.0 questionnaire designed for other learners who are non native speakers of English but study English as the second or foreign language. Therefore, the SILL version 7.0 comprised of 50 items, or ESL/EFL SILL was selected for this study because the participants were native Thais who studied English as a foreign language. Besides, the ESL/EFL SILL has been currently recognized as the most detailed comprehensive, reliable and widely used instrument for identifying the preferences of strategy use of all language learners throughout the world (Green & Oxford, 1995; Foong & Goh, 1997; Bremner, 1999). In this study, SILL Thai version

translated by Kaotsombut (2003) was selected as an instrument with its high reliability at .94 to avoid the misunderstanding of the questionnaire.

Moreover, the SILL version 7.0 used a choice of five Likert-scale responses to each strategy ranging from 1 to 5, that is, 1 = never or almost never true of me, 2 = generally not true of me, 3 = somewhat true of me, 4 = generally true of me, and 5 = always or almost always true of me. All 50 items were categorized into six categories according to Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies consisting of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data, the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) for Microsoft Windows 11.5 was used. Descriptive statistics including frequencies, means, standard deviations were implemented to investigate the participants' demographic data and the frequency use of language learning strategies of the participants. Then Independent-Samples T-test, One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Scheffe post-hoc test were used to determine whether any significant relationships existed among respondents in the use of language learning strategies regarding their gender and fields of study. In addition, the .05 level of statistical significance was set at all statistical tests in the present study.

Results

1. **What kinds of language learning strategies do the first-year students at TNI report using?**

Descriptive statistics was employed to investigate the frequency use of language learning strategies of the first-year students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI), Thailand. Table 1 illustrates that the mean of frequency of overall strategy use was 3.46, which was considered as a moderate level ranged from 1 to 5. The most frequently used strategies was compensation strategies (M = 3.64) and followed by metacognitive strategies (M = 3.59), memory strategies (M = 3.41), social strategies (M = 3.39), affective strategies (M = 3.38) and cognitive strategies (M = 3.36).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistic Results on the Frequency of Strategy Use among 278 First-Year Students at TNI

Rank Order	Six Categories of Language Learning Strategies	*M*	*SD*	Frequency of Use	Level of Use
1	Compensation strategies	3.64	.65	Usually	High
2	Metacognitive strategies	3.59	.66	Usually	High
3	Memory strategies	3.41	.63	Sometimes	Medium
4	Social strategies	3.39	.75	Sometimes	Medium
5	Affective strategies	3.38	.71	Sometimes	Medium

6	Cognitive strategies	3.36	.73	Sometimes	Medium
	Overall Strategy Use on Average	**3.46**	**.68**	**Sometimes**	**Medium**

2. Does learner gender influence TNI's first-year students' use of language learning strategies?

Independent-Sample T-test was performed to examine the relationships between gender difference and the use of language learning strategies. The results of the t-test analysis are illustrated in Table 2. Based on the t-test analysis, significant differences were found between male and female learners in memory strategies solely (t = 0.25*, p<.05) while there were no differences in other groups of language learning strategies. Furthermore, the mean of frequency of male learners in overall strategy use was 3.50, and the mean of frequency of female learners was 3.42. Therefore, male learners used the overall language learning strategies more than female learners.

Table 2: Summary of Variation in Language Learning Strategy Use by Gender

Language Learning Strategies	*n* Male	*n* Female	*M* Male	*M* Female	*SD* Male	*SD* Female	*t*	*p*
Memory	140	138	3.50	3.33	.67	.58	2.250	**0.25***
Cognitive	140	138	3.44	3.28	.83	.62	1.788	.075
Compensation	140	138	3.66	3.62	.68	.62	.569	.570
Metacognitive	140	138	3.57	3.61	.68	.64	-.575	.565
Affective	140	138	3.39	3.37	.78	.63	.187	.852
Social	140	138	3.44	3.34	.81	.68	1.148	.252
Overall Strategy Use	**140**	**138**	**3.50**	**3.42**	**.74**	**.62**	**.894**	**.427**

p > .05

3. Does TNI's first-year students' use of language learning strategies differ according to their fields of study?

Descriptive Statistics was used to examine the use of language learning strategies regarding the study program differences among the first-year students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI), Thailand. As shown in Table 3, the means of the students who were studying in Engineering program used the overall strategy at 3.53 (N = 99), followed by the students who were studying in Business Administration program at 3.43 (N = 105), and finally the students who were studying in Information Technology program used the overall strategy at 3.40 (N = 74).

Table 3: Summary of Descriptive Statistic for Using Language Learning Strategies Regarding Fields of Study

	Engineering			Information Technology			Business Administration		
Language Learning Strategies	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Memory	99	3.49	.65	74	3.35	.66	105	3.38	.58
Cognitive	99	3.43	.75	74	3.30	.61	105	3.33	.80
Compensation	99	3.67	.67	74	3.67	.67	105	3.59	.62
Metacognitive	99	3.63	.70	74	3.57	.65	105	3.57	.64.
Affective	99	3.44	.73	74	3.29	.68	105	3.38	.71
Social	99	3.53	.80	74	3.22	.73	105	3.38	.69
Overall Strategy Use	**99**	**3.53**	**.71**	**74**	**3.40**	**.66**	**105**	**3.43**	**.56**

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was further employed to investigate the relationships between study program differences and the use of language learning strategies. If significant differences existed, Scheffe post hoc analysis was used to determine which study programs were significantly different in the use of language learning strategies. The result of one-way ANOVA and Scheffe post hoc analysis are presented in Table 4 and 5. As shown in Table 4 and 5, there were significant differences existed between Engineering program and Information Technology program with respect to social strategies (F = 3.834*, p < .05) where as there were no significant differences in other study programs and other groups of language learning strategies.

Table 4 – 5: Summary of One-way ANOVA and Scheffe Post Hoc for Using Language Learning Strategies Regarding Field of Study

Table 4: Results on One-way ANOVA

		SS	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*P*	*Scheffe Post-Hoc*
Memory Strategies	Between Groups	1.010	2	.505	1.259	.286	
	Within Groups	110.290	275	.401			
	Total	111.300	277				
Cognitive Strategies	Between Groups	.874	2	.437	.801	.450	
	Within Groups	150.069	275	.546			
	Total	150.943	277				
Compensation Strategies	Between Groups	.384	2	.192	.447	.640	
	Within Groups	118.007	275	.429			

	Total	118.391	277			
Metacognitve Strategies	Between Groups	.226	2	.113	.252	.778
	Within Groups	123.284	275	.448		
	Total	123.510	277			
Affective Strategies	Between Groups	.932	2	.466	.913	.403
	Within Groups	140.405	275	.511		
	Total	141.337	277			
Social Strategies	Between Groups	4.256	2	2.128	**3.834**	**.023**
	Within Groups	152.601	275	.555		
	Total	156.857	277			

p < .05

Table 5: Results on Post Hoc Test (Scheffe)
Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Language Learning Strategies

Dependent Variable	(I) faculty	(J) faculty	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Social Strategies	Engineering	Information Technology	**.3157***	.11447	**.023**	.0340	.5975
		Business Administration	.1578	.10436	.320	-.0991	.4146
	Information Technology	Engineering	**-.3157***	.11447	**.023**	-.5975	-.0340
		Business Administration	-.1580	.11307	.378	-.4362	.1203
	Business Administration	Engineering	-.1578	.10436	.320	-.4146	.0991
		Information Technology	.1580	.11307	.378	-.1203	.4362

Discussion

1. **What kinds of language learning strategies do the first-year students at TNI report using?**

The results from the data analysis revealed that the first-year students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology (TNI), Thailand were medium strategy users (*M* = 3.46). This finding is consistent with the results obtained in other Asian contexts including Oh (1992), Park (1997) and Ok (2003) in Korea, Wharton (2000) in Singapore, Peacock and Ho (2003) in Hong Kong, Shmais (2003) in Palestine, and Raizi and Rahimi (2005) in Iran which found that the participants used language learning strategies at a medium level. Moreover, among six language learning categories, compensation strategies were reported as the most frequent used by the first-year students (M = 3.64). This corresponds with Kaotsombut (2003) in Thailand, Ok (2003) in Korea, and Peacock and Ho (2003) in Hong Kong in that compensation strategies were used most frequently among the learners. Learners used compensation strategies when they lacked appropriate vocabulary and grammatical knowledge while producing a target language. With these strategies, they could overcome that limitation and continue using the language.

2. **Does learner gender influence TNI's first-year students' use of language learning strategies?**

The results indicated that significant differences were found between male and female learners in memory strategies solely whereas there were no differences in other categories of language learning strategies. Thus, it can be concluded that gender influenced slightly on the use of students' language learning strategies. In addition, the result showed that male learners used the overall language learning strategies more than female learners. This is different from the previous research studies (Green & Oxford, 1995; Sheorey, 1999; Hsueh, 2006; Lin, 2007) in that female learners significantly used more language learning strategies than male learners. For this reason, the relationship between the use of learners' language learning strategies and their gender has not reached consistence.

3. **Does TNI's first-year students' use of language learning strategies differ according to their fields of study?**

The results indicated that fields of study did not show the significant differences in the use of students' language learning strategies except for social strategies between Engineering students and Information Technology students. This findings has been linked to their different personalities and learning styles. Moreover, students studying in 3 different programs: Engineering, Information Technology, and Business Administration used overall language learning strategies similarly. Therefore, fields of study slightly relate to the use of students' language learning strategies. In other words, they do not influence much on strategy usage of the students.

Recommendations for Pedagogical Implications

Since language learning strategies are effective tools facilitating learners to succeed in language learning, language teachers need to know which strategies that most learners prefer using and which ones are suitable and helpful for them when they learn a target language. To discover those, teachers should employ several methods such as interviews, diaries, think-aloud protocols, or questionnaires to identify the learners' strategy use (Oxford, 1990). Then teachers will use this information to design and organize teaching methodology, materials, and learning tasks suiting the learners' learning styles. Furthermore, teachers should give the clear objectives why they need to train learners these strategies and how these strategies can help them learn a target language so that they can understand and have the positive motivation to learn and practice using the strategies. Besides, teachers should integrate language learning strategies into the lessons and learning tasks relating to learners' communicative needs and the real world usage so that learners will intend to study, practice, and improve their language skills enthusiastically.

Recommendations for Further Research

There have been numerous research studies on factors contributing to success in language learning such as age, gender, number of years of language study, level of course, and motivation; however, there are little research conducting on the relationship between language learning strategies and fields of study. Thus, further research should be conducted on this issue or other interesting factors, for example, learners' family and cultural backgrounds or English learning experience.

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A Study of Brand Names and Information on Product Labels of Community Products in Songkhla[10]

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate brand names and information on product labels of community products in Songkhla. The study focused on language characteristics: language source, syllables, word formation, and meaning. Furthermore, information on product labels such as product name, trade name, volume, or manufacturing date was examined. Persuasive strategies used on product labels were also analysed. The study also examined how brand names and information on the product labels reflected ways of life and folk wisdom, and explored how the manufacturers perceived their brand identities and how they wanted to improve their product labels as well as the obstacles in producing product labels. This study will give some suggestions how to improve product labels. Data was collected from community product labels in Sating Pra District, Songkhla. Sating Pra community has been known for its tight-knitted community which has integrated local wisdom with modern innovation in product manufacturing. 43 product labels were chosen from 12 businesses operated in 2011. Linguistic theories and local wisdom studies were employed to analyse the data. From the study, two types of names were found in the product branding: a product name and a trade name. The product name gave information about the product type and attributes. The trade name gave information about the manufacturer. The product names and trade names found in the study reflected local ways of life through the names of raw materials used to make the products and the local dialects which appeared in the brand. Persuasive strategies, such as the high quality of ingredients used in the product, or information about health benefits were found on product labels. On the label, brand name, name of manufacturer, place of manufacture, and telephone number were commonly found while information such as folk knowledge related to the product was optional. Most manufacturers were keen to improve the look of the product labels but higher cost, which resulted in more expensive retail price, was a big consideration. Helps from professional bodies in improving product labels were needed.

Keywords: community product, product name, trade name, brand name, product description on the label, Songkhla

1. Introduction

Thai locally made products have been branded by OTOP since 2001. OTOP, which stands for One Tambon (sub-district) One Product, is an entrepreneurship stimulus programme aiming to empower local communities and generate income to the locals by using local produces and adding the value of the local products. The government encourages local communities around Thailand to form a group and develop a group product. The products are inspected and quality controlled and then one superior product will be chosen and issued with OTOP certification

[10] This research was funded by Thaksin University.

mark as a ‘starred OTOP product’. The OTOP programme has stimulated local self-reliance and community cohesion (Communities Development Department, 2002).

There are also locally made products which are not branded by OTOP. These products are not OTOP quality controlled by the Community Development department, but are produced and distributed within the community or to nearby communities or in a local products centre. The labels of starred OTOP products require certain details and format while the product labels of other local products may vary and certain information may not be specified.

In business, brand name is vital. Brand name presents the product’s identity, nationality, quality, and reliability (Ellwood, 2002). Brand name also reflects cultural characteristics of the manufacturer. Brand identity can be distinguished by the use of certain words or phrases (Worapiyut, 2007). Brand name is composed of product name and trade name (Boonpaisarnsatit, 2005: 24). Diamond Yellow Oil, for example, consists of ‘Diamond’ as a trade name and ‘Yellow Oil’ as a product name. If the product has good quality, the trade name ‘Diamond’ will be remembered and when the consumers would like to use yellow oil, the trade name ‘Diamond’ will occur in their minds. As the product has been used and accepted by the consumers, ‘Diamond’ product will distinguish its uniqueness from others.

Manufacturers do not seem to pay much intention in creating brand names for community products. It is observed that there are a number of locally made products without product labels while those with product labels come with a printed sticker label or a printed paper label. The label design is simple with a single colour printing such as blue or red on white paper. The product name simply describes a product type, for example, sugar coated toddy palm jelly or toddy palm crisps. Consumer behaviour observation suggests that consumers tend to read to the product name to find out what type of product it is and may then be interested in other information if available (Panjad, 2007 : 60).

A community product name is usually made up of words describing the product itself. “Tamarind Dried Shrimp Chilli Paste”, for example, describes a type of product as “Chilli Paste” with a major ingredient of “Dried Shrimp”, and a minor ingredient of “Tamarind”. A community product manufacturer may not have thought about creating a trade name for their products unlike products from a big manufacturer sold nationwide which tend to have a short and easy-to-remember trade name such as Brands: Essence of Chicken, Colgate Toothpaste. Therefore, names of community products, both product names and trade names, should be investigated to be able to develop community product branding to an international standard.

OTOP programme encourages the community to utilise their local wisdom to produce and develop the uniqueness of the product which is harmonious with local culture and ways of life. (Niyomrat, 2008). Community products, therefore, reflects diversity of communities, their knowledge, and difference in ways of life. Product names are related to the local culture and lifestyles. The ingredients of the product indicate the raw materials available in the community. A handicraft product may be influenced by local arts. Description of local wisdom on the product label can educate the consumers and persuade them to buy the product.

Sating Pra District, Songkhla is a historic town where ruins of town walls and moats were sighted. The town was originally called “JatingPra” and was changed to Sating Pra in 1961. The town is situated on a strip of flat land with seas on both sides; the Siam Gulf on the east and Songkhla Lake on the west. The north of Sating Pra is Ranod District and the South is Singhanakorn District. There are 11 villages in Sating Pra District administration, namely, TambonJatingPra, TambonGradang-nga, TambonSanamchai, TambonDeeluang, TambonChompon, TambonKlongree, TambonKookut, TambonTahin, TambonWatjan, TambonBordaeng, and TambonBordan.

Sating Pra is an agricultural community. Most people are farmers. Their economic crops are rice, coconuts, mangos, and toddy palms. There is no large agricultural manufacturing plant in the area. The community agricultural industry depends on family businesses such as toddy palm juice manufacturing, agricultural products processing, or rice mill. Sating Pra is rich in local wisdom and it has abundant supply of natural resources. As a result, Sating Pra's locally made products have superior quality which fit in very well with the OTOP programme (Office of Sathing Pra District Office, n.d.). Sating Pra is also known for its vast area of toddy palms. Toddy palm, therefore, is a major resource for the district local products including toddy palm crisps, sugar coated toddy palm jelly, toddy palm sugar cubes, toddy palm handicraft products such as palm straw hats or palm straw handbags, and glutinous rice cake.

Sating Pra is a well-established community. The ways of life of the local people are in harmony with nature. People have been earning a living from agricultural produces. The community has passed on their local knowledge from generation to generation. Local knowledge has been used in developing and reinventing the products. Therefore, Sating Pra can offer the consumers with wide range of distinctive products.

Definition of terms

Community product manufacturer is a group of manufacturers who lives in Sating Pra District, Songkhla. They set up a group to develop a locally unique product using local raw materials and local wisdom.

Community product is a product made by a group of community manufacturers. Community products used in this study must have product labels. They include both products with OTOP certification mark and products which are not in the OTOP programme.

2. Objectives

This study aims to investigate community products in five aspects as follows;

2.1 to study the community product names
- 1) brand names
  - word origin
  - number of syllables
  - word formation
- 2) origin and meaning of brand names

2.2 to study product description on the label
- 1) types of information on the label including type of product, trade name or trademark, manufacturer address, volume, directions of use, advice or warning, manufacturing date, price, and other information such as nutrition value or award winning
- 2) persuasive language strategies

2.3 to study the connection between brand names, product label description, ways of life, and local wisdom

2.4 to research and analyse the manufacturers' opinions and needs concerning product branding and difficulties they experienced in branding their products

2.5 to give suggestions how to create trade names and product description on the labels

3. Methodology

3.1 scope of study

1) geographical scope

This study focused on the community products in Sating Pra District, Songkha. Some product samples were given by the Office of Community Development, Sating Pra District, Songkhla. Some were from Sanam Chai Community Product Centre in Sating Pra District. Although Sating Pra consists of 11 villages, community products identified by this study were from 6 villages namely TambonJatingPra, TambonDeeluang, TambonSanamchai, TambonTahin, TambonChompon, TambonKookut.

2) sample

Product labels and interviews with manufacturers were collected from 11 manufacturing groups operated in Sating Pra District in 2011. Only products with labels were used in the study. Community products with no labels were excluded.

3.2 Data Collection

The researcher firstly contacted the Office of Community Development, Sating Pra District, Songkhla to ask for some community product samples. Then appointments with manufacturing group representatives were made for an interview and for more current product samples. In the interview, a questionnaire was used. A questionnaire was adapted from research studies on trade names and approved by experts. The interview included information about the product name, trade name, description on the label, local wisdom utilised in the development of the product, persuasive strategy, and the manufacturers' interpretation of their brand. The data was then analysed and the conclusion and suggestions of the study was presented to the group representatives.

3.3 Data Analysis

The Royal Institute of Thailand Dictionary 1999 (The Royal Institute of Thailand, 1999) and Southern Dialect Dictionary 1982 (Thaksin Khadi Suksa Institute, 1982). were used to analyse word origins. Word formation analysis was based on Sngkaman's (1995), Bauer's (1983), Francis' (1985) and Yule's (1985) studies. Meaning analysis and interpretation was based on Boonpaisarnsatit's (2005), Ogden & Armstrong's (1923), Dirven &Verspoor's (1998), Hoffman's (1993) and Chanabun's (2011) theories.

Analysis of product description on the labels employed the criteria for product labels issued by the Office of Consumer Protection Board (2010) to compare with the information on community product labels.

Persuasive language strategies analysis was based on Rumakhom's (2003) concept. Na Thalang's (2000) and Pongpaiboon's (1997) studies on knowledge and folk wisdom were used to analyse the relationship between product brand name, product information, and folk wisdom. The analysis of manufacturers' interpretation of their own brands and brand development needs was based on the interview.

4. Results and Discussions

4.1 brand naming process

Brand name is composed of product name and trade name. Product name is a word or phrase which indicates type, characteristic, and feature of the product (Boonpaisarnsatit, 2005: 24). Product name gives information about the product's feature or characteristics. Trade name is a business name (Intellectual Property Rights Coordination Centre, (n.d.). Consumers are able remember trade name and identify the manufacturer of the product (Boonpaisarnsatit, 2005: 67). Brand naming process for community products are divided in two categories.

4.1.1 language feature of the brand names

1) word origin

Product name

Community product names consist of words derived from seven origins, namely, Thai, Southern Thai dialect, Northern Thai dialect, Pali-Sanskrit, Malay, English, French, and Portuguese. Names with Thai origins are mostly found, for example, KanomNga Dam (black sesame dessert), Look Tarn Grop (toddy palm crisps), Jao Tarn Chuam (sugar coated toddy palm jelly). Examples of names with Southern dialect origin are HuaKrok (cashew nuts), Nam Puang (sugar). Kao Tan (deep fried glutinous rice cake) is an example of a name with Northern dialect origin.Names from Pali- Sanskrit are Med Ma Muang Him Ma Parn. Him Ma Parn is derived from Pali-Sanskrit. Budu is a Malay word which means a thick fermented fish sauce. Sa Bu (soap) is derived from Portuguese and Ga Fair (coffee) is derived from French as in a sugar product (Nam Tarn Pong Chong Ga Fair).

Trade name

Words used in creating trade names are derived from five origins, namely, 1) Thai such as Ban Suan Tarn (toddy palm garden home) 2) Southern Thai dialect such as Liang Kao (bunch of rice) 3) Pali-Sanskrit such as Tra Mae Arun (Mrs.Arun's brand) – Arun is from Pali-Sanskrit 4) Khmer such as Soot Mae Tanorm (Mrs.Tanorm's recipe) and 5) Persian such as the word Tra, which means brand. Some products have names from one origin, for example, KanomTuaNga Kao (white sesame and nut dessert) which is composed with all Thai words. Some names are composed of words from more than one origin (further discussion in 4.1.2) such as Nam Puang Pong (caster sugar). Nam Puang (sugar) is derived from Southern dialect while Pong (powder) is Thai.

2) number of syllables

Product names tend to have between 2 to 8 syllables.

- *two-syllable name* such as Kao Tan (deep fried rice cake)
- *three- syllable name* such as Look Tarn Grop (toddy palm crisps)
- *four-syllable name* such as Look Tarn Loy Gaew (toddy palm fruit in syrup)
- *five-syllable name* such as Ka Nom TuaNga Dam (black sesame and nut dessert)
- *six- syllable name* such as Nam Tarn Pong Chong Ga Fair (sugar used in coffee)
- *seven- syllable name* such as Med Ma Muang Him Ma Parn (cashew nuts)
- *eight- syllable name* such as Ma Led Ma Muang Him Ma Parn (cashew nuts)

Most products have 3- 5 syllable names. Products with 6-8 syllable names are quite rare.

Trade names are composed of 2-5syllables

- *two-syllable name* such as Nong Eed
- *three-syllable name* such as Tra Liang Kao
- *four-syllable name* such as Tra Mae Arun
- *five-syllable name* such as Tra Look Tarn Ta Nod

While product names tend to consist of more syllables to be able to describe the all the features of the product, trade names tend to be much shorter because they tend to be a person's name or a proper name and no description is needed.

3) word formation

Word formation of a product name

Community product names are created from two types of word formation.

- *Compounding* which is a formation of two or more words to create a new word (Sungkaman, 1995: 16), for example,

  Look Tarn Grop is a compound word from the words Look + Tarn + Grop
  Kanom La Grop is a compound word from the wordsKanom+La+Grop

- *Derivation* which is a processing of forming a new word by adding a bound phoneme into an existing word in front of (prefix), in the middle (infix), or at the end of (suffix) the existing word (Ibid, 1995: 58).Only suffixes were found on the product names in this study, which are Mao and Tan. Moa and Tan were added to the word Kao (rice) to form the words Kao Moa (glutinous rice flakes) and Kao Tan (deep fried glutinous rice cake). The words Mao and Tan are never used on their own.

Word formation of community product names are not complicated . Most names have Thai and Thai dialect origins.There is no use of inflexion.The names may have several syllable s, but new syllables are added to the word to give more details of the product features (further discussion on meaning section)

Word formation of a trade name

Community product trade names are created from two types of word formation.

- *Compounding* such as Tra Mae Arun, NongEed, Barn Suan Tan
- *Segmenting* such as the word “Luang” in a trade name “ JaoLuang” is from the word Tam Bon “Dee Luang”. Dee is segmented and added to the word Jao.

4.1.2 Word origin and meaning of community product brand names

1) Product names’ word structure and meaning

- Product names which begin with words for raw materials
- Product names which begin with words for type of products

Product names which begin with words for raw materials

Product names which begin with words for raw materials are in simple referent names and complex referent names. A simple referent name has one meaning while a complex referent name begins with a word for raw materials with other components (Boonpaisarnsatit, 2005)

1) *Simple referent names* were used to give the information about the raw material such as HuaKrok or Maled Ma Muang Him Ma Parn (cashew nuts)

2) *Complex referent names* can be classified in two groups;

 2.1) Complex referent names with two components are formed by:

 - *raw material + type of product* such as Med Ma Muang Him Ma Parn (chashew nut) + Pan (sheet)
 - *raw material + main characteristic of the product* such as Luk Tarn (toddy palm fruit)+Grop (crisp). Although the product itself is quite chewy, but it looks like a crispy jelly. Therefore, the word Grop is used to identify both the look rather than the taste of the product.
 - *raw material + manufacturing process* such as Jao Tarn (toddy palm fruit)+Chuam (in syrup).

2.2) Complex referent names with three components are formed by:

- *raw material + manufacturing process + minor raw material* such as Kao Mao (glutinous rice flakes) + Ob (steamed) + Nam Puang (honey)
- *raw material + objective of the product + benefit of the product*, for example, Din (soil)+ Mai (plants)+ Suay(beautiful). The name indicates that the raw material used in this product is soil or compost and it is used for plants to make it grow beautifully.

Product names which begin with words for type of products

Product names in this catogory give a general meaning of a product type and they are both in simple referent names and complex referent names.

1) *Simple referent names* such as Budu (thick fermented fish sauce) or Nam Pla (fish sauce)

2) *Complex referent names with two components* are formed by:

- *type of product + raw material* such as Nam Tan (sugar) + Ta Nod (toddy palm)
- *type of product + feature* such as Nam Puang (sugar) + Pong (powder)
- *type of product + product proper name*, for example, Kanom Go. Kanom (dessert) is a product type while Go is a proper name. From the interview with the manufacturing representative, the word Go is actually derived from the word "Goh", which means attach. The word Goh was used to describe the feature of two pieces of dessert being sandwiched. KanomGoh has been used in a ceremony such as a wedding ceremony. It symbolises a long marriage life which is sandwiched like the two pieces of dessert. The pronunciation of the word Goh has been changed through generations and is currently known as Kanom Go.

3) *Complex referent names with three components* are formed by:

- *type of product + major raw material + minor raw material* such as Kanom (dessert) + Tua (nut) + Nga Kao (white sesame)
- *type of product + feature + directions of use* such as Nam Tan (sugar) + Pong (powder) + Chong Ga Fair (make coffee)
- *type of product + product proper name + feature* such as Kanom (dessert) + Go (proper name) + Mai MeeSai (no filling)
- *type of product + product proper name + characteristic* such as Kanom (dessert) + La (proper name) + Grop (crispy). La is a Southern Thai spun nest dessert.
- *type of product +characteristic + raw material* such as Sabu (soap) + Hom (fragrant) + Look Tarn (toddy palm)
- *type of product + objective of the product + minor raw material used for the objective of the product* such as Nam Bu Du (thick fermented fish sauce) + Kao Yum (mixed rice) + Sa MunPrai (herbs). Nam Bu Du is a name of this product which is further explained that it is used with Kao Yum and Sa MunPrai is a minor raw material in Kao Yum, but not an ingredient in Nam Bu Du.

4) *Complexreferent names with four components* are formed by:

- *type of product + proper name + feature + minor raw material* such as Kanom (dessert) + Go (proper name) + Sai (filling) + Tua (nut)

2) Trade names' word structure and meaning are created by

2.1) *Proper name* by using name of a person or a place with the following structure

- *word for seniority and kinship + name of a person* such as Nong (sister) + Eed
- *the word "Tra" (brand) + word for seniority and kinship + name of a person* such as Tra + Mae (mother) + Arun
- *the word "Soot" (recipe) + word for seniority and kinship + name of a person* such as Soot + Mae (mother) + Arun
- *name of a person + type of product* for example Preecha (name of a person) + Pan Mai (plant nursery), which is a plant propagated from Preecha plant nursery.

2.2) *Common names* which are names in general use

- *word for raw material + origin of the raw material* such as Nod (toddy palm) + Ting (from Ting shorten for Sating Pra)
- *word for characteristic of the product + segment of name of place* such as JaoLuang. Jao means a person in a superior position and Luang is segmented from Tam Bon Dee Luang, where the product is manufactured. Luang (The Royal Institute of Thailand, 2552) can also mean good or prosperous. According to the manufacturer, the word Luang is used to identify the place of manufacturing as well as to infer prosperity of the product.
- *the word Tra (brand) + raw material* such as Tra + Look Tan Ta Nod (toddy palm)
- *the word Tra (brand) + local material* such as Tra + Liang Kao (a bunch of rice). Tra Liang Kao is a trade name for a toddy palm sugar powder product. Although rice (Liang Kao) is not a raw material used in this product, but rice is locally grown in the area and a bunch of rice symbolises the productiveness and prosperity.
- *the word Tra + a word with symbolic meaning + characteristic* such as Tra + Dao (star) + Rai(scatter) which means stars in the sky. In product quality control, stars have been used to rank the quality of the product. 5-star ranking indicates the best quality. Therefore, the word Dao (star) is used in the trade name to indicate good quality. Rai is shorten from RiangRai. It indicates a large amount of stars meaning high quality. The manufacturer of the product also added that the word Rai is pronounced as Lai in Southern Thai dialect. Lai or Ta Lai means clusters (of toddy palm fruits). In this case, it indicates the use of toddy palm as a raw material of the product.
- *word Geographical feature 1 + geographical feature 2 + raw material* such as Baan (house or village) + Suan (garden or plantation) + Taan (toody palm)

It can be noted that word origin and meaning structure of community product brand names conveys both di rect and indirect meaning . Some words indicate the identity of the local community. Some are used because of their positive meaning, illiteration, or symbolic meaning.

4.2 Product description on the label

Two aspects of product description will be discussed in this study

4.2.1 Elements of product description on the label

The criteria for product labels issued by the Office of Consumer Protection Board (2010) were employed to analyse the elements of product description of community products. Product description on the labels of community products can be divided into two categories;

1) Description which is found in every product

- Type of product. This is to help the consumer who may not be familiar with the local product know what it is.
- Name of the manufacturer. This is sometimes used instead of the brand name.
- Telephone number.It is considered the most convenient way of communication if the consumer would like to place an order.

2) Description which may or may not be found on the label

- Trade name or trademark. Some manufacturing groups may not consider having a trade name, but use the name of their manufacturing groups instead.
- Place of manufacturing. Some manufacturers who do not take part in OTOP programme tend to put only the telephone number, but not the address.
- Volume or weight. Most community manufacturing groups tend to simplify their packaging process by estimating the volume of the product or counting a number of pieces of the goods. Sugar seems to be the only product with the weight information.
- Ingredients or raw materials. The description is presented in a proportion of percentage.
- Directions of use. Manufacturers tend to indicate directions of use for personal care products like soap, but there is no direction of use for food products.
- Manufacturing date/ Expiry date. Because the manufacturer and the retailers are usually people in the same community, the information about the manufacturing date of the product is passed on verbally and informally. It is, therefore, assumed that it is unnecessary to indicate.
- Retail price. The manufacturer allows the retailers to set the retail price. Therefore price is not indicated on the label.
- Medicinal or health benefit of the product. As the product is made from local resources, the consumer may not be aware of the health benefit of the ingredient such as toddy palm. It is, therefore, explained in the product description.
- Food and Medicine certified logo or Halal logo is found only on the products which have been quality controlled and approved by the authority
- OTOP logo for the products in OTOP programme
- Logo of a funder who supports the community group to start the business or develop the product. Logos of both a former funder and current funder are put on the label as a way to thank and to show credibility of the group.
- Information about local ways of life and folk wisdom helps promoting local identity such as toddy palm handicraft

The analysis of the product labels found that most manufacturers prefer to give only essential information as required by the Office of Consumer Protection Board. Other information may not be necessary as the product is known to and trusted by the consumers who are also local.

4.2.2 Persuasive language strategies

Product description can persuade the consumer to buy the product. The community product manufacturers informed that benefit of the product or distinctive characteristic of the product can draw the consumer's attention to the product. It's also said that the description of ways of life or folk wisdom can add the value to the product.

An analysis of the persuasive strategies used on the community product description by using Rumakom's (2003) model found that

- Information about benefit, health or medicinal benefit, or distinctive characteristic of the product allow consumers to see the result of the consumption such as healthy dessert, clean, fragrant, and crispy
- Quality approved by authority such as OTOP or star ranking can reassure the consumers of the quality of the product.
- Fine or organic ingredients such as 100% natural, no preservative, no artificial colour, organic can also persuade the consumer to buy.
- The relationship between the product and the social or cultural aspect of the communitycan be highlighted as a way to preserve the local identity.
- A slogan is used as a symbol of the product as it is memorable. A province slogan many also used to relate the identity of the product to the identity of the province

4.3 A relationship between a brand name, description on the label, local ways of life and local wisdom.

Local wisdom is tightly knitted with the way of life of the people in the community because "local wisdom is a practice and a way developed by a group of community which is introduced from deep understanding of local environment then it is handed down verbally from generation to generation." (Syahputra, 2010: 99). As ways of life have passed on from generation to generation, local wisdom has also passed on to the next generation. There are several types of local wisdom such as surviving skills, public management, creativity (Pongpaiboon, 1997), and handicrafts (Na Thalang, 2000). This study found that community product labels reflected local ways of life and local wisdom in different aspects. It was found that local wisdom for surviving skills such as food and nutrition, the use of local raw materials to cook, and preserve food, the use of organic food were utilised. Description such clean, safe, 100% natural, organic, healthy can be found on the label description. Handicraft products from toddy palm straws show the use of handicraft local wisdom. Local wisdom in creativity can be seen from the development of toddy palm soap product. It was invented from the idea that the ripe fibrous outer layer of the palm fruit can be used as soap and it moisturises skin. Several products such as toddy palm straw handicraft products by the Nod Ting group inserted the description about their ways of life and local wisdom on the product labels.

4.4 The manufacturers' opinions and needs concerning product branding and difficulties they experienced in branding their products

Most manufacturers were satisfied with their product labels in relation to the cost. Most product labels are square sticker labels with white background and a single colour print. Red, orange, green, and blue are the most popular colours. The simple design of the labels keeps the cost down and does not affect the retail price. Although the manufacturers wanted to use multi coloured sticker labels with a fancy design, the higher cost would affect the competitive price in the market. Spelling mistakes were found in several products. This indicates that the master copy might not be proofread before being handed in the printing shop. The manufacturers informed that there was support and funding from the government to help them producing good quality product labels and to promote the products in a festival or an expo, but the government did not continue the support. Therefore, the groups have to use labels with a simple design to keep the cost down.

4.5 suggestions how to create trade names and product description on the labels

Branding the community products can be done in two ways. For the products with the highlight on local identity, it is recommended that brand names should be in dialect and related local raw materials. For the products which aim to expand the market nationwide, brand names in standard Thai is recommended because it is easy to remember. It is also suggested that the name should be short and the word should be easy to pronounce (Chan&Huang 1997). The trade names of the community product investigated in this study seem to fit in with the recommendation. However the product names seem to be too long with several syllables and can be difficult to pronounce as they are in dialect. Accuracy of the language use on the product labels can decrease the credibility of the products. Labels should not have any spelling mistakes. In the case of community products, the constraint of funding means that the branding is not considered essential until it is proved that the product is viable. The product labels should include information about the characteristics of the product, benefits, or product identity. The label description required by the Office of Consumer Protection Board may not be application to nature of the products.

5. Conclusion

The study of community product brand names and description on the product labels has presented the relationship between the products and Sating Pra community identity. It is shown that the community values their ways of life and local wisdom. The branding of the products has reflected this value. Description of local ways of life and local wisdom found on the labels is not only used to persuade the consumers to buy the products, but it also helps promote the local identity. The cost of label printing has a strong impact on the design of the labels. Community products have a small profit margin so extra costs added to the manufacturing cost are a serious concern. Branding and label design desperately needs support from the public or private sector to make the products more professional and more competitive in the wider market. However, most manufacturers were satisfied with their businesses. They informed that the community product business helps them earn a living and gives them a chance to live in their community with interactions with neighbours. They can live in harmony with nature. They can have a relaxing life style and they are proud to be able to preserve and promote local identity to the younger generation.

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The Use of Film Clips to Enhance the English Communicative Skills of Thai Eighth Grade Students.

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Abstract

This was an experimental study examining the use of film clips to enhance the English communicative skills of Thai eighth grade students. The aim of study also investigated the attitudes of the students towards their English lessons before and after learning through film clip instruction. The participants of the experiment were 60 students, randomly selected from eleven classes at Cha-uat School in Nakhon Srithammarat province. The selected classes were randomly divided into an experimental group and a control group. The communicative skills tests were used to collect data from the participants and were administered to the experimental and control groups before and after film clip instruction, as a pre-test and post-test. After the pre-test, the questionnaires were distributed to students in the experimental group. They were taught with film clip lesson plans for eight weeks, a total of 17 sessions. Meanwhile, the control group was taught by regular instruction. After the experiment, the questionnaire was distributed again in order to investigate the attitudes of the students toward film clip instruction. The data collected from the communicative skills test and questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results indicated that the communicative skills of the experimental students were significantly higher than those of the students in the control group at a level of 0.05. Additionally, the attitudes of the students toward film clip instruction after the experiment indicated a high level of satisfaction.

Keywords: Film clip instruction, the use of film clips, communicative skills

Background of the Study

English is used to communicate worldwide as a second or foreign language, and also as an official language in some countries. In Thailand, English is extensively used to communicate with people from all over the world. In addition, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) community has made English its official language (Government Public Relations Department, 2011). In response to the importance of English in the region, the Thai Ministry of Education (MOE) wants students to speak English confidently and at the same level as other ASEAN countries (Government Public Relations Department, 2011). The MOE recognized the importance of the communicative approach and introduced it in 1980 (Supervisory Unit Department of General Education, 1997). According to many educators, the communicative approach helps students to improve their level of English communicative proficiency, so it should be employed in Thai schools (Ministry of Education, 2006). The goal of teaching language is to develop four English communicative skills (Widdowson, 1990; Nunan 1999). Richards and Roger (2001) point out that the communicative approach encourages students to communicate in the target language. Johnson (2001) adds that it also requires teachers to perform different roles such as a facilitator, informant, controller and guide.

This approach increases opportunities for the students to interact with their teachers. It also enables students to engage in speaking, listening, reading and writing and get involved in real communication (Harmer, 2007a). However, the use of the communicative approach in Thai schools seems to be more theoretical than practical (Weerawong, 2004).

There are many researchers who claim that Thai students encounter problems when communicating in English (Angwattansakul, 1999; Punthumasen, 2007; Weerawong, 2004). In Thai classrooms, the focus is on the grammar translation approach, rather than communicative language teaching. One of the main problems experienced by Thai students is that they do not often have the opportunity to speak or listen. Harmer (2007a) argues that language teaching should not have an emphasis on grammar. Instead, teachers should focus on the purpose of language use. Mounford (1986) adds that 90% of Thai teachers teach English in Thai, in order to explain grammar and reading comprehension. The grammar translation method is used because Thai teachers are not native English speakers. It could be seen as a challenge to the established system to eliminate the grammar translation method for Thai teachers, as they have to develop their own listening and speaking skills (Mauleon, & Lee, 2008). For these reasons, the communicative approach may not be implemented in some Thai schools. Furthermore, Sutabutr, (1986) cited in Coleman, (1996) explained some teachers believe that teaching English in Thai makes students more comfortable and helps them understand the target language better. The teachers may also feel more relaxed using their native language. This position is supported by Sukamoson (1998, cited in Puntakerngamorn, 1999) and Wongsothorn et. al., (1996) who argued that classes should continue to emphasize traditional techniques, such as rote learning, repetition, translation and drilling. Similarly, Weerawong (2004) claimed that exam performance is valued over actual use of the target language. As a result, some students still struggle to use English while teachers are unable to implement the communicative approach. This approach has not been properly integrated into the English language classroom in Thailand. Thai teachers have large classes and heavy teaching loads, and have little time to create communicative activities (Supervisory Unit Department of General Education, 1997). As a result, English lessons are not as challenging as they should be and secondary school students lack opportunities to communicate in English (Biyeam, 1997, cited in Wiriyachitra, 2002). The students lack confidence in their English communication skills because their teachers do not emphasize the importance of communication skills. The students cannot use their English because of their insufficient vocabulary. Furthermore, the teaching materials required to teach communication skills are not available to English teachers (Kethongkum, 2005; Phuphanpet, 2004 & Promshoit, 2010).

In addition, Wong's study (1997) indicated that Thai students are quiet and unwilling to express their emotions. They prefer learning English in Thai. They do not respond individually, but in a chorus (Punthakerngamorn, 1999). Thai schools may also lack well-trained teachers with communicative language teaching experience. Thailand also lacks English Foreign Language (EFL) teachers (Weerawong, 2004). Punthumasen, (2007) and Supervisory Unit Department of General Education (1997) added that Thai schools rarely use teaching resources for English printed media, internet, and movies. These limitations are particularly serious in remote areas. Punthumasen (2007) claims that the environment inside and outside classrooms fails to promote the communicative English skills of the students. All of these factors may explain why students are unable to communicate well in English, despite the emphasis on the communicative approach by the MOE (Punthumasen, 2007; Weerawong, 2004). It is obvious that English language teaching and learning are an uphill task for the MOE. Moreover, Thailand is preparing to join ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015. Thailand could be at a disadvantage due to problems with English communication. Therefore, the English skills of Thai students must be improved before joining the AEC (Nation Multimedia Group, 2012).

With these problems in mind, this research focuses on using authentic materials to improve the English communicative proficiency of Thai learners. Authentic materials refer to teaching resources that are not deliberately produced for language teaching, such as newspaper articles, movie advertisements, maps, and comic books (Harmer, 2007a, 2007b; Martinez, 2002; Nunan, 1989 as cited in Macdonald, Badger &White, 2000). This research focuses on the use of film clips in teaching English communicative skills. Moore (2006) pointed out that instructional media can range from traditional teaching tools to newer forms such as video or film clips. Moving pictures in videos enhance the learning and understanding of conversations (Hapeshi & Jones, 1992; Feber, Meiers, Ruschin & Seyferth, 1991). Stempleski and Tomalin (1990) claimed that the combination of sound and moving images enhanced language comprehension. The use of video or film clips in classrooms is an effective tool because it exposes students to real life scenarios and background cultural information (Chin, 2004; Harmer, 2007). To summarize, the academic use of videos or film clips helps students learn English and promotes communicative skills. Film clips are tools which allow students to experience authentic English. This research experiments with film clip instruction by using video teaching techniques to enhance the communicative skills of eighth grade students at Cha-uat School in Nakhon Sri Thammarat province.

Objectives of the Study

The study explores the communicative skills of eighth grade students and their attitudes towards film clips for English instruction. The main objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To examine the effectiveness of film clip instruction to enhance communicative skills of eighth grade students.
2. To examine the attitudes of the students towards English lesson after film clip instruction.

Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study are as follows:

1. On the post-test of the Communicative Test, the mean score of the participants exposed to film clip instruction will be significantly higher than the participants taught through the regular instruction.
2. On the post-test questionnaire, the attitudes and the mean scores of the participants exposed to film clip instruction will be significantly higher than they were on the pre-test questionnaire.

Variables of the Study

The independent variables in this study were to teach English communicative skills based on film clip instruction and the regular instruction. The dependent variables in this study were the English communicative test scores of students who were taught through film clip instruction and those who were not taught through film clip instruction.

Population and sample groups

The population of the study comprised 410 Thai students in eighth grade, who were studying English as their foreign language in the first semester of the 2012 academic year at Cha-Aut school in Nakhon Sri Thammarat province. The students came from two classes that were randomly selected among ten classes. The students in the selected classes were randomly assigned into the control and experimental groups.

Instrumentation

The research instrument used to collect data were the pre-test and post-test of English communicative skills, and the pre-and-post-questionnaire on the attitudes of the students to learning English through film clips instruction. The next section is concerned with the details of the instrument.

English Communicative Skills Tests

The tests were designed and constructed to test communicative skills. The same test was used for the pre-and-post-test. An eighth grade English curriculum, theoretical materials on teaching through film clips and testing techniques were adapted to construct and design the communicative tests. The tests were divided into two parts. The first part focused on reading and listening skills. The reading and listening comprehension tests consisted of twenty multiple choice questions. The second part focused on speaking and writing skills. The speaking test was concerned with reporting information and describing pictures, while the writing test was concerned with describing pictures and creating a story.

Analytic Scoring Sheet

The assessment and evaluation of speaking and writing were based on an analytic rubric adapted from (Heaton, 1990). Student performance was evaluated by the researcher and two assistants (English school teachers). The analytic scoring was used as criteria to measure their speaking and writing performance in both the experimental and control groups. The analytic scoring of speaking section consisted of four categories including content, fluency, grammar and vocabulary. The analytic scoring of writing section also consisted of four categories including fluency, grammar, vocabulary and spelling. The rating scale used for the description of analytic scoring was from 1 to 5 marks.

The Questionnaires Regarding the Attitudes of Students towards Learning English through Film Clip Instruction

A questionnaire was constructed in order to explore the attitudes of the students regarding learning English through film clips. The questionnaire was created in Thai with two parts. The first part consisted of ten questions used to measure the attitudes of the students towards the film clips and their impact on their communicative skills. The questions were based on the Likert's rating scale which consists of five levels (5 = Highest satisfaction, 4 = High satisfaction, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Low satisfaction, 1 = Lowest satisfaction). The mean scores of the questionnaires were rated as 4.51 to 5.00 = highest satisfaction, 3.51 to 4.50 = high satisfaction, 2.51 to 3.50= neutral, 1.51 to 2.50 = low satisfaction and1.00 to 1.50 and lowest satisfaction. The students rated each statement in accordance with their opinions. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions. This provided students opportunities to comment on their experience of learning English.

Film Clip Lesson Plans

The students in the experimental group were taught English through film clip lesson plans by the researcher. The group control was taught English through regular lesson plans by English teacher from Cha-uat school. The researcher constructed five lesson plans. Each lesson plan consisted of two or three periods, each period was 50 minutes long. The research took 15 periods including the pre- and-post-test. The lesson plans were based on four video teaching techniques: *sound on/*

vision on, sound off/ vision on, freeze frame and split viewing. Each lesson plan consisted of three video teaching stages: pre-viewing, viewing and post-viewing. In the pre-viewing stage, questions about the films were provided for students to predict events, key vocabulary was re-taught and pictures were displayed in order to ask students questions about them. The viewing stage involved an activity for learners to collect useful information and to practice their English skills. The students were assigned tasks following four techniques in each lesson. The post-viewing stage consisted of practicing specific language skills, mainly speaking and writing. During this stage, the learners produced language they had learned and adapted it to new situations in their daily lives.

Findings

English Communicative Skills

The first objective of the study was to examine the effectiveness of film clip instruction to enhance the communicative skills of the eighth grade students. The pre-test and post-test scores of the communicative skills tests of both the experimental and control group were calculated using descriptive statistics and standard deviations. The mean scores of both groups were then compared to determine whether or not there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the participants in both the experimental and control group by using an independent t-test. The results indicated that there was a significant difference at the level of .05, in terms of the overall means of the pre-test and post-test results of the students in both groups. Table 1 shows the results of the overall means of the students.

Table 1
The Difference in the Mean Scores of the English Communicative Skills Pre-test and Post-test of the Students in the Experimental Group and Control Group

Students	N	Pre-test Scores		Post-test scores			
		M	*S.D.*	*M*	*S.D.*	t	Sig.
Experimental group	30	14.53	2.70	18.37	3.86	2.041	.047*
Control group	30	16.63	2.44	16.67	2.42		

.* Significant at the 0.05 level (Sig<0.05)

As indicated in Table 1, the data revealed that the mean scores of the English communicative skills pre-test of the experimental group (M=14.53) was lower than the control group (M=16.63). The mean scores of the English communicative skills post-test of experimental group (M=18.37) was higher than the control group (M=16.67). The post-test mean scores of the experimental group and control group revealed that there was significant difference at a level of 0.047, lower than the previous level of 0.05. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental group and control group at a level of 0.05. Figure 1 shows a bar graph of mean score of the experimental group and control group.

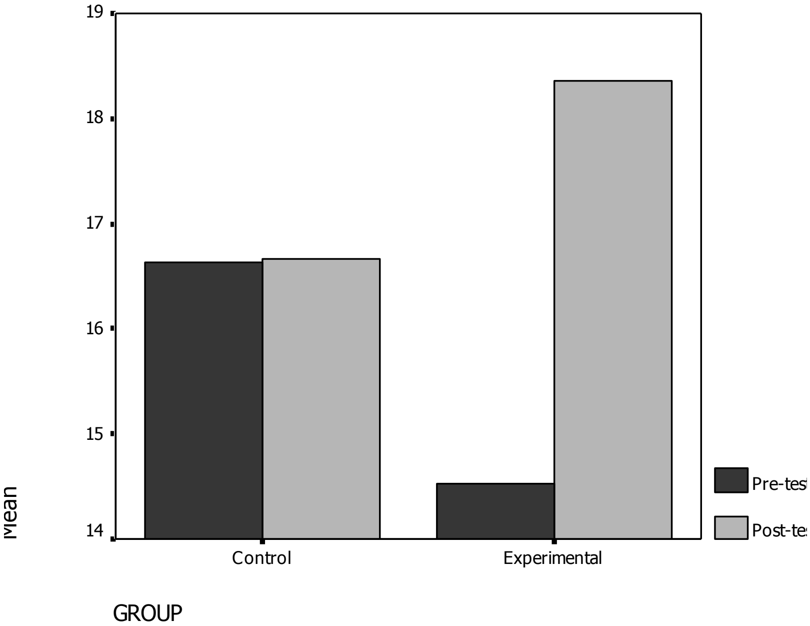

Figure 1. Comparison of the English Communicative Skills Pretest and Posttest Mean Scores of the Students in the Experimental Group and Control Group

The Attitudes of the Students towards Film Clip Instruction

The Checklist Questionnaire (Part A)

The total mean scores of the attitudes of the students before learning English through film clip instruction were at a high level of satisfaction with a mean score of 4.13. The results indicated that students had a positive attitude towards learning English through film clip instruction. The students had the highest level of satisfaction in learning English through film clip because it was a new and interesting concept for them (M=4.53). The second highest mean score was 4.40. The students responded that they would like to learn English through film clip instruction again in their regular classes.

After the students learned English through film clip instruction, their attitudes were at a high level of satisfaction with a mean score of 4.16. The results indicated that the students experienced a high satisfaction attitude towards learning English through film clip instruction. The students had a high level of satisfaction with every item, and the highest mean score was 4.43. The scores indicated that after the students learned English through film clip instruction, they became more interested in learning English. The second highest mean score was 4.40. The students responded that they had fun while learning English through film clip instruction and that they followed the lesson more closely.

The Open-Ended questions (Part B)

Before learning English through film clip instruction, the results from Item 1 indicated that 83.33 percent of students liked learning English through film clip instruction because they had fun and gained more knowledge of the English language. In other words, they did not find film clip instruction boring. The students could apply the language to real life situations and practice spoken English more than they could in other classes. Only 16.67 percent of students thought that learning English through regular instruction was better than film clip instruction. According to Item 2, 40 percent of students thought that they would be able to adopt the language for use in real life situations. However, 23.33 percent of students thought they would get opportunities to practice their English skills, use the language correctly and would gain valuable experience from film clip instruction, and a percentage of 16.67 students believed that they would learn new vocabulary. Most significantly, 93.33 percent of the students claimed that they would like to learn English through film clip instruction because it would be more interesting, different and fun for them. They also stated that they would like to be able to speak English more correctly. However, a percentage of 6.67 students preferred regular instruction to film clip instruction as they felt it was more interesting. In addition, 80.00 percent of the students did not provide any comments. However, 6.67 percent of the students wanted to play vocabulary games in class. A percentage of 3.33 of students would like to watch variety of film clips, cartoons and learning English through film clip instruction twice a week. The results of the post-questionnaire revealed in Item 1 that 93.33 percent of students enjoyed learning English through film clip instruction because they enjoyed gaining knowledge of English, and were able to apply it to real-life situations. On the other hand, 6.67 percent of the students did not enjoy the film clips. On Item 2 of the post-questionnaire, 60.00 percent of the students agreed that they got an opportunity to practice their English skills and use the language correctly, while 23.33 percent of students agreed that they learned new vocabulary words, and 16.67 percent of students agreed that they learned English communicative skills that could be used in real life. Regarding Item 3 of the post-questionnaire, 93.33 percent of students preferred learning English through film clip instruction because they enjoyed learning English this way. The students agreed that it was less boring and more relaxed than regular instruction. They also agreed that they learned more English through film clip instruction and also had more opportunities to practice their English skills. While only 6.67 percent of students claimed they did not like learning English through film clip instruction, 60.00 percent of students made no comments regarding Item 4. While 3.33 percent of the students would have preferred to watch more film clips, 6.67 percent of students said that the lesson should have incorporated more games and activities. While 6.67 percent of the students commented that it was fairly difficult and that it should be easier, 6.67 percent of students said that the teacher should play the movie after class, 6.67 percent of students said that the film clip should have provided more cartoon animation, and10 percent of students think that the language used in the film clip instruction was easy to understand.

Discussion

The discussion regarding the findings focused on the achievements of the students in terms of learning English through film clip instruction, as well as their attitudes towards film clip instruction.

Student Achievement and Learning English through Film Clip Instruction

The first objective of this study was to examine the effectiveness of film clip instruction to develop the English communicative skills of Thai eighth grade students. According to the results, there was a significant difference at a level of 0.05 on the overall mean scores on the pre-and post-tests of the students in the experimental and control group. It was also found that film clip instruction could enhance the English communicative skills of Thai eighth grade students. A variety of factors contributed to the effectiveness of film clip instruction in enhancing the English communicative skills of the students.

As a result, the pre-test mean scores of the control group was higher than the experimental group as students in the control group had higher English proficiency than students in the experimental group. However, the data from the study showed that the mean scores of the English communicative skills post-test of the experimental group (M=18.37) was higher than the control group (M=16.67). This result indicated that the communicative skills of the students taught through film clip instruction was significantly higher than those taught through regular instruction. These results were consistent with the findings of Petcharatmunee (2005), Gainer (2005), and Fiorito and Torrie (2009) argued that the use of film clip instruction enhanced the communicative skills of the students. Based on the differences between the mean scores on the English communicative skills pre-test and post-test, the results indicated that this was because the students participated in varieties of communicative activities, for instance, reading, listening comprehension, describing pictures and creating stories from the pictures, and Harmer (2007b) and Newby et al (2006) recommend the use of pictures to allow students guess what people are doing for the purposes of creative writing. Stempleski and Tomalin (2001) added that films can also enhance writing skills. Moreover, Porcel, (2009) and Stemple and Tomalin (1990) agreed that using video clips as authentic materials, combined with video teaching techniques, can motivate students to create a new story or rewrite the script. Students can also learn new expressions and can practice reading with transcripts while the films are playing. Additionally, students also have opportunities to practice and work in groups and in pairs. Nunan (2003) claimed that getting students to work in pairs and in groups motivated them to communicate in the target language. Consequently, based on open-ended questions, 60 percent of students agreed that they enjoyed learning English through film clip instruction because they learned the correct use of language and had opportunities to practice their English skills and. Therefore, many experts agree that film clip instruction enhances the communicative skills of students (Harmer, 2007b; Tomalin, 2001; Teeler & Gray, 2000; Fiorito & Torrie, 2009; Stempleski & Tomalin, 2001).

According to the open-ended question in comment section, before learning English through film clip instruction, only 23.33 percent of students thought they would get opportunities to practice their English skills and use the language correctly as a result of learning English through film clip instruction. However, after students had learned English through film clip instruction, only 60.00 percent of students agreed that they had the opportunity to practice their English skills and use the language correctly. Clearly, film clip instruction successfully provided students with opportunities to practice their communicative skills. Harmer (2007b) argued that the more opportunities that the students have to listen, the more skilful they will become at listening, understanding pronunciation and speaking appropriately. Porcel (2009) also supports the argument that film clip instruction also helps students to familiarize themselves with the natural rhythm and flow of the English language. This helps them improve their intonation and pronunciation, as well as boosting their confidence about their communicative skills in English. Furthermore, seven students required a greater variety of activities, including more games and cartoons. Chin (2004) and Stempleski & Tomalin (1990) agreed that film clip instruction could enable students to experience the target language in real life situations. It can also motivate students and prepare them for communication in the target language. Similarly, Brinton (2001) argued that authentic materials can help students to bridge the gap between the language classroom and language used in the outside world.

The attitudes of the students towards film clip instruction

The second objective addressed in this study was to investigate the attitudes of the students regarding film clip instruction before and after the experiment. The findings in the pre-questionnaire indicated that the level of satisfaction among the students with learning English through film clip instruction was highly positive (M=4.13). In comparison, the level of satisfaction on the post-questionnaire was also rated as highly positive (M= 4.16). These findings indicated that the students found their purpose in terms of learning English through film clip instruction and encouraged the students to learn more English.

According to Chambers (1999), attitude is an important aspect of language learning as positive attitudes towards the target language contribute to learning. Similarly, positive attitudes encourage students to learn English (Ellis, 2000). Brown (2000) also argues that second language learners benefit from positive attitudes, whereas negative attitudes may reduce motivation and lead to failure to attain language proficiency. From the results, it was found that the students were satisfied with all aspects of film clip instruction. According to the post-questionnaire, the students enjoyed learning English through film clip instruction and that afterwards they were more interested in learning English. They enjoyed learning English and wanted to attend more English lessons. Learning English through film clip instruction also gave them opportunities to practice their listening, reading, speaking and writing skills. There was only one item in terms of attitude that the students had a neutral mean score that the students learned and remembered vocabulary more effectively when learning English through film clip instruction.

Many researchers have agreed that film clip instruction is an effective tool to manipulate the attitudes of the students towards language learning (Chin, 2004; Harmer, 2007b; Porcel, 2009a Stempleski and Tomalin, 2001). According to the results, the open-ended question which asked whether or not the students still enjoyed learning English through film clip instruction, the students responded positively, claiming that they enjoyed it, gained new knowledge of English, and were able to apply the language for use in real-life situations. The level of satisfaction among students rose from 83.33 percent on the pre-questionnaire to 93.33 percent in the post-questionnaire. In addition 16.67 percent of students did not like learning English through film clip instruction, but the negative attitudes of the students dropped to a level of 6.67 percent after attending the class.

The Implications of the Study

The results of the study indicated that film clip instruction could successfully enhance the communicative skills of the students. Although the study was successful, there were some implications that the researcher would have liked the teacher to consider. When teaching the vocabulary concerned with activities in the lesson plan, the teacher should recheck whether or not the students are familiar with the key vocabulary. There may be low proficiency students who do not understand the sample sentences and vocabulary. In addition, when the students read stories to report the class, the teacher should walk around the class to monitor students who might need assistance. However, the teacher should not provide too much help to any group. The teacher should also explain the vocabulary on the board, so the other groups can also identify the words. Before proceeding to use video teaching techniques, such as split viewing, the teacher should prepare appropriate space for a student Watcher and a student Listener, so they will not get more information more than the teacher intends them to. Moreover, the teacher should check electronic devices every time before teaching to confirm that it works perfectly, including video formats and video players. Additionally, both the teacher and the students became frustrated if there were technical difficulties with the equipment.

The Limitations of the Study

There were two major limitations of this study, which the researcher observed while carrying out the experiment. The first limitation was time. As the researcher was not a teacher at the school and the study needed to be conducted within 6 weeks, time was very limited. If there had not been such severe restrictions in terms of time, the results of experiment might have been different. The second limitation was the factor of extracurricular activities which caused frequent absences. As a result, the researchers taught them after class to make up for the classes they missed and this delayed them from taking the post-test. If they had attended the course more regularly and had taken the post-test immediately after instruction, the results might have been different.

Recommendations for Further Studies

The recommendations for further studies are as follows:

1. The research should be expanded to study the results of the use of film clip instruction to other levels, e.g. upper secondary school or university students.
2. Research should be conducted to determine which skills that university students have the highest mean scores on, both before and after the experiment.
3. The research should compare the progress of the communicative skills of English Program and non-English Program students to determine whether or not the results are different.
4. After the last class using film clip instruction, the researcher should explore the learning progress of the students during the experiment, apart from the pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test.

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Pragmatics and Humors: A Case Study of Phoebe Buffay's Verbal Acts in *Friends*

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Abstract

This paper aims to study communicative humorous turns engaged in one of the popular American sitcoms *Friends*. Phoebe Buffay, one of the six feature characters, is particularly highlighted not only because of her eccentricity but also of her telepathic endowment which provides limitless source of jokes and of unexpected turn-taking mechanism. Humorous turns, non-verbal acts excluded, will be judged by "canned laughter" throughout the series and those of Phoebe will be extracted from the television script from all episodes in the first season so as to demonstrate how humors can shape up Phoebe's comical personality. Culpeper's (1996) Impoliteness and Grice's (1981) Cooperative Principle (CP) will be applied to analyze and enlighten how Phoebe particularly uses her verbal arts towards the audience. This paper discovers that Phoebe's humorous turns are significantly employed through violation of Grice's maxims in CP and through impoliteness strategies, maximizing face threatening act (FTA), such as bald on record and irony. To conclude, jokes are common in American sitcoms; however, Phoebe's humorous turns in *Friends* are intriguing as it creates striking as well as surprising elements throughout the first season. Phoebe's verbal acts are doubtlessly tailor-made to reinforce unforeseen communicative patterns that make her persona idiosyncratic among the others.

Introduction

Friends is one of the celebrated American sitcoms produced by Warner Brothers production and it was piloted from 1994 to its last season in 2004. This sitcom recounts the relationship among six friends (Monica, Chandler, Ross, Rachel, Joey and Phoebe) who live and spend their lives together, mostly in Monica's apartment, whilst sharing their experiences through humors and laughter. According to Shu (2007), Phoebe Buffay, played by Lisa Kudrow, is the strangest character among the group because she is eccentric, telepathic and unpredictable. Of the entire group, she is the first who receives Emmy Award nomination among the others. The relationship between humors and communicative turns has been studied by numerous linguists. For instance, according to Holmes (2002), interlocutors' humors would occur among informal communication so as to enhance friendship and social ties. At the outset, in order to be successful in communication among interlocutors, Grice (1975) points out speakers should follow cooperative maxims; the maxim of quantity, the maxim of quality, the maxim of relation, and the maxim of manner. Humors can occur by violation of these maxims in dialogues and communicative turns as Raskin and Attardo (1997) mentions that humorous turns will take a vital part to initiate laughter among human beings, colleagues and friends. Thus, this research will focus on how Phoebe's verbal acts create humors through pragmatic strategies to explain how laughter occurs in such situations.

Literature Review

A. Pragmatic Theories:

Cooperative Principle

Grice (1975) introduces Cooperative Principle as to "make your contribution such as is required" (p.124) and proposes four conversational maxims as follows:

Table 1: Grice's Maxims

Maxims	Description
Quantity	Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purpose of the exchange
Quality	Do not say what you believe to be false Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence
Relation	Be relevant
Manner	Avoid obscurity of expression Avoid ambiguity. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity) Be orderly

Grice also points out there are various occasions when people fail to observe the maxims due to insincerity of the speakers, unclear speech or, simultaneously, the speaker's lack of auditory perception; therefore, they flout or violate the maxims. According to Wu and Chen (2009), the number of rhetorical strategies is deemed as flouting or violating Grice's maxims: metaphors, hyperbole, euphemism, sarcasm are subject to violate those maxims in different aspects according to situations and utterances. In American sitcoms, people can easily detect flouting or violation of these maxims through canned laughter so that they can focus on verbal, along with non-verbal, acts to consider on how jokes particularly occur.

Impoliteness

When the maxims are violated, face threatening act (FTA henceforth) affects people's face wants: either positive or negative. In *Friends*, FTA is commonly used for absurdity; for they are deliberately designed to create laugh and jokes for the audience and people find that it is plausible to use FTA among close friends, spending their lives together for ten years, as they will not be disturbed when being verbally attacked. Culpeper (1996) enhances Brown and Levinson's (1975) politeness strategies in the way that FTA will be maximized on purpose to bring about entertaining elements throughout plays, movies or television shows as follows:

Table 2: Impoliteness Strategies

Impoliteness	Description
Bald on record	FTA is performed in a direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way
Positive	ignore the other, exclude the other from an activity, be disinterested, unconcerned, unsympathetic
Negative	frighten, condescend, scorn, ridicule, belittle, invade the other's space
Sarcasm or mock politeness (irony)	insincere, using politeness for impoliteness.
Off-record	implicature but in such a way that one attributable intention clearly out-weighs any others
Withhold	the absence of politeness work

Even so, impoliteness can only happen when the speaker communicates face-attack intentionally, or the hearer perceives and/or constructs behavior as intentionally face-attacking or a combination among the interlocutors. Impoliteness can be seen as utterances proving that they share close tie and diminish distance among close friends.

B. Humor Theories:

Superiority Theories

It is believed that superiority is among the oldest theories which can be tracked down to Plato. According to Hobbs (1651), people laugh at the stupidity, inferiority or misfortunes of the other interlocutors so as to boost their egos and to feel superior among them. Laughter is an "expression of sudden glory and a realization of being superior" to someone else. In addition, laughing upon others can solidify social ties within friends and colleagues because it is a universal memorandum affirmed that they belong to such a group, not rather than the ridiculed group. This theory also addresses caricature among ethnographical groups by applying "butt of humor" whilst minorities are ridiculed or satirized in metropolitan culture and traditions.

Incongruity Theories

Incongruity is a conflict between what is expected and what occurs in a humorous turn; therefore, it deals with inappropriateness of utterances in such time and place. Goldstein and McGhee (1972) points out that it is a situation that deviates from norm or social values; for instance, elders act childishly or men behave girly. Ross (1998) clarifies that incongruity evoke when humorous situations are associated to puns, lexis, phonology, graphology, spoonerism, morphology and syntax.

Relief Theories

It is believed that emotional tension can be relieved when humorous turns or jokes occur in order to release tension and to bring relaxation. According to Spencer (1860), the surge of excessive energy can be dispelled through laughter; for instance, the laughter will automatically burst out in the film of Stephen King's *Misery* (1991) when we expect the psychic nurse "Annie" slowly coming through the door, whilst knob turning, where "Paul" was frightened of her appearance, turning out to be an adorable brown pig running into the room. The false terror is one of the premises that people create tension and seek out ways to alleviate. Some people, as Shade (1996) points out, also use jokes to ridicule more powerful group of people in order to release tension of powerlessness that they feel while contributing to interaction among them.

Semantic Script Theories

Semantic script, or schemata, refers to human's cognition and it is illustrated by Raskin (1985) that verbal acts can lead to humors that are triggered by semantic opposition between the scripts. A joke will happen when there are two opposed verbal scripts induced by a semantic script switch trigger. A script-based humor is thus the result from the "compatibility of the text with two opposed scripts" (pp. 293-347).

Methods

As Phoebe Buffay is defined as "eccentric" among other main characters, this study will focus on Pheobe's communicative turns contributing to her ad hoc characterization. The first season of *Friends* is transcribed and specifically highlighted on Phoebe's humorous turns. All of Phoebe's turns will be analyzed through the framework of CP and Culpeper's impoliteness. There are 24 episodes in total and the punch lines, whether they are funny or not, will be judged on "canned laughter".

Analysis of the Violation of the Cooperative Principle

Of all the communicative turns, the maxim of CP violated by Phoebe can be calculated by percentage.

Table 3: Violation of Cooperative Principle, distributed by percentage

Violation of CP	**Percentage**
Maxim of Quantity	11.38%
Maxim of Quality	47.30%
Maxim of Relation	16.17%
Maxim of Manner	25.15%

The table shows that Grice's maxim of quality is mostly violated by 47.30%. It is followed by violation the maxim of manner by 25.15%. Within each maxim, there are various sorts of strategies that Phoebe particularly employs in the utterances; each will be clarified in the following sections by demonstrating some of the critical excerpts.

Violating the Maxim of Quality

Hyperbole

The maxim of quality addresses that interlocutors have to make their conversational contribution to the truth. Buffay mostly employs hyperbole, or exaggeration, in her humorous turns and that refers to the way she overstates the truth in order to offer peculiarity of someone or something in situations uttered. In sitcom, it is not difficult to judge the utterances are non-factual because canned laughter will guide the audience afterward.

Extract 1: Episode 3

Situation: All friends gathering in Monica's living room, then Rachel asked Phoebe what she wanted for her birthday.

Rachel: So Pheebs, what do you want for your birthday?

Phoebe: Well, what I really want is for my mom to be alive and enjoy it with me.

This dialogue revolved around the question of Phoebe's upcoming birthday and Rachel generally asked if Phoebe required something in particular. Phoebe's response was absurd because, at the outset, it was intangible, in terms of "birthday gift" schema. Moreover, the information that she provided to Rachel was unfeasible because her mother had already passed away and the audience were aware of this since the first episode. By all means, it violates the maxim of quality as Phoebe's information is outlandish and overstated.

Irony

Irony occurs when the speaker expresses utterance which is different from the literal meaning and what the hearer perceives will offer implicature that affects the interpretation of that utterance.

Extract 2: Episode 14

Situation: In the coffee shop, the group ridicules their shortcomings one by one.

Ross: You know, there's nothing wrong with speaking correctly.

Rachel: "Indeed there isn't"... I should really get back to work.

Phoebe: Yeah, 'cause otherwise someone might get what they actually ordered.

Rachel: Ohh-ho-hooohhh. The hair comes out, and the gloves come on.

In this scene, the group was discussing their flaws. Ross, a college professor of Paleontology, usually used language in terms of academic rhetorics. Thus, Joey started by mocking Ross's strong American accent and Rachel reiterated this point by emphasizing "t" sound at the end of "isn't". Phoebe, however, threatened Rachel's positive face want by saying the utterance which was opposite to Rachel's typical characteristics. The group, as well as the audience, knew that Rachel was a terrible waitress and that customers usually did not "get what they actually ordered". In due course, what Phoebe uttered in that situation implied that Rachel was not a good waitress and that the customers would not get what they ordered.

Violating the Maxim of Quantity

Interlocutors should not make their contributions more or less informative than they are required in situations uttered. Throughout the first season, Buffay usually offered less information than her friends had required.

Extract 3: Episode 12
Situation: Rachel was finding her lost ring in Monica's living room and she had no idea where she had worn it for the last time
Chandler and Joey: Oh! Yeah!
Joey: Alright, when'd'ya have it on last?
Phoebe: Doy! Probably right before she lost it!

The situation was that Rachel lost her ring and had no idea how she lost the ring. Although we soon discovered that the ring was slipped and embedded in a bowl of lasagna, Buffay gave little information when Joey asked if Rachel remembered when she wore the ring for the last time. Buffay's answer thus violates Grice's maxim of quantity.

Violating the Maxim of Relation

Grice's maxim of relation requires the interlocutors to be relevant to the context in the situations uttered. In the first season of "Friends", there are two strategies which are used by Buffay to violate the maxim of relation: irrelevant utterance and topic change.

Irrelevance

Buffay uses unrelated response so as to express her diverted attention from the situations uttered.

Extract 4: Episode 16
Situation: Rachel was talking with a guy outside the coffee shop while Phoebe and Ross observing them inside.
Phoebe: Okay, they're just talking...
Ross: Yeah, well, does he look upset? Does he look like he was just told to shove anything?
Phoebe: No, no actually, he's smiling.. and... Oh my God, don't do that!!
Ross: What? What? What?!
Phoebe: That man across the street just kicked that pigeon!

Ross surreptitiously had a crush on Rachel and he was curious about her love affair. When Ross saw Rachel talking to her then-boyfriend outside the coffee shop, Ross subsequently asked Phoebe to report him what Rachel was doing outside by the glass window. Ross felt panic when Phoebe said "don't do that" as Rachel might do something romantically with her boyfriend, Phoebe suddenly was sympathetic to "pigeon". Ross, as well as the audience, can link Buffay's utterance to what she is reporting; however the maxim of relation is immediately violated when she paid attention to the bird.

Topic Shift

Topic shift occurs when the speaker diverts attention from the current situation with no clues, making the hearer bedazzled and stunned.

Extract 5: Episode 5

Situation: Ross entering Monica's apartment with a monkey on his shoulder
Ross: 'That' would be Marcel. You wanna say hi?
Monica: No, no, I don't.
Rachel: Oh, he is precious! Where did you get him?
Ross: My friend Bethel rescued him from some lab.
Phoebe: That is so cruel! Why? Why would a parent name their child Bethel?

While Ross was introducing "Marcel" the monkey that he helped and decided to raise by himself, Phoebe accordingly gave her opinion about cruelty, but not on the issue of scientific experiment on animals but on the hideous name "Bethel" that she felt strongly against. Their communicative strategies contribute to Grice's maxims from the beginning but Phoebe's humorous turn eventually violates the maxim of relation.

Violating the Maxim of Manner

Grice's maxim of manner points out interlocutors should response the utterances briefly, orderly and unambiguously. Ambiguity is mainly employed by Buffay and suggests that Buffay's frame of reference is vague and the audience may be confused by her humorous turns. There are two major strategies of violation the maxims: lexical ambiguity and situational ambiguity.

Lexical ambiguity

According to Ross (1998), lexical ambiguity occurs when a word can be defined more than one literal meaning or leading to miscommunication.

Extract 6: Episode 7

Situation: Phoebe entering Monica's apartment and speaking to Rachel about jewel)
Phoebe: (entering) Hi, sorry I'm late, I couldn't find my bearings.
Rachel: Oh, you-you mean your earrings?
Phoebe: What'd I say ?

Phoebe did not clarify what she meant by "bearings", leading to Rachel's miscommunication and confusion. When she addressed "bearings" to Rachel, the sound of it allows Rachel to think of other lexical possibilities that related to that context by saying "earrings". The punch line was triggered when Phoebe still did not define that ambiguous word.

Situational ambiguity

Situational ambiguity refers to the utterance where hearers cannot make a clear situational reference to what the speaker utters.

Extract 7: Episode 3

Situation: Rachel running around the couch in the coffee shop, delighted by the first monthly pay check
Rachel: Look-look-look-look-look, my first pay check! Look at the window, there's my name! Hi, me!

Phoebe: I remember the day I got my first pay check. There was a cave in one of the mines, and eight people were killed.
Monica: Wow, you worked in a mine?
Phoebe: I worked in a *Dairy Queen*, why?

Rachel received the paycheck after she worked in the coffee shop as a waitress. While Phoebe heard Rachel mentioning the paycheck, she subsequently recounted the moment she got her first one by referring to the incident where a tragedy occurred. Up to this point, her friends, as well as the audience, perceive that she must have worked in the mine seeing the incident directly; however, Phoebe revealed that she worked in “Dairy Queen” and she actually did not work in the mine. We soon discover that the mine incident is not related to her workplace, but only happens simultaneously while she worked in the other place. Situational ambiguity emphasizes and demonstrates Raskin’s (1985) semantic script theory of humor because of the scripts, or deixis, between Phoebe and the others were different in such communicative turns.

Analysis of Impoliteness

Throughout the first season, Phoebe uses bald on record impoliteness strategy mostly. Positive and negative impoliteness strategies are second to that.

Bald on Record

Bald on record impoliteness happens when the speakers do FTA directly and unambiguously towards the hearers.

Extract 8: Episode 5
Joey: Ok, you know what blows my mind? Women can see breasts any time they want. You just look down and there they are. How you get any work done is beyond me.
Phoebe: Oh, ok, you know what I don't get? The way guys can do so many mean things, and then not even care.

During the discussion among friends whether men or women were better, it became more intense when they addressed an issue of sexual preferences. After the group of women (Monica, Rachel and Phoebe) said that men (Ross, Chandler and Joey) are better because they could stand urinating, Joey defended his side by illustrating how women could look at their breasts whenever they wanted. Phoebe, in contrast, directly attacked the men’s positive face want that they could be unresponsive and rude. Phoebe’s utterance is direct and clear and aims to threaten the men group.

Positive Impoliteness

Positive impoliteness is used by the speaker to ignore the other and to exclude the other from an activity. The tone of the speaker’s utterance appears disinterested, unconcerned and unsympathetic towards the hearer.

Extract 9: Episode 7
Rachel: Oh. (they knock at the next door, Mr. Heckles answers) Hi. We just found this cat and we're looking for the owner.
Mr. Heckles: Er, yeah, it's mine.
Phoebe: (trying to hold back the struggling cat) He seems to hate you. Are you sure?

When Phoebe and Rachel seek out the cat's owner, they tracked down to the apartment of Mr. Heckles, who was aloof and cynical, and asked if he knew the cat. Due to Phoebe's suspicion about him, she excluded Mr. Heckles by becoming disinterested in his utterance and consequently attacked his positive face want by using the word "hate" in due course. Besides, the positive impoliteness strategy is enhanced by canned laughter as well as the neutral face of Mr. Heckles who had never expressed other emotional faces throughout the series.

Negative Impoliteness

Negative impoliteness occurs when the speaker attempts to frighten, condescend, scorn, ridicule, belittle, or impede the hearer's space. This strategy is rarely used throughout the series by main characters, perhaps by censorship of the television network, but some are tailor-made through Phoebe's humorous turns.

Extract 10: Episode 8
Phoebe: Ooh, wait.. wait, I see a woman.
Monica: Please tell me it's his mother.
Phoebe: Definitely not his mother.
Monica: Oh, no...
Phoebe: Oh, wait, she's walking across the floor.. she's walking.. she's walking.. she's going for the pizza… (Yelling) Hey, that's not for you, bitch!

The group ordered a pizza by telephone, but it turned out that it was sent to other person by mistake. However, that person turned out to be the man that Monica, Rachel and Phoebe secretly had a crush on. While Phoebe observed him through binoculars, she reported what was happening in the man's apartment. Negative politeness strategy is used when she saw the man's girlfriend coming for the pizza that they primarily ordered and she swiftly yelled at her as "bitch": a word used for scorning or frightening the hearer. Although the word does not convey directly towards the man's girlfriend, the audience perceive the joke as good as that the assault directly falls upon the girl's negative face want.

Sarcasm/Mock Politeness

This strategy occurs when the speaker appears hypocritical by using politeness strategy to mock the hearer.

Extract 11, Episode 10
Situation: Phoebe was singing in the coffee shop while David and his scientist friend were chatting loudly at one of the tables.
Phoebe: Well, c'mon, if it's important enough to discuss while I'm playing, then I assume it's important enough for everyone else to hear .
Chandler: (Quietly, to the others) That guy's going home with a note!
David: Noth- I was- I was just saying to my-
Phoebe: Could you speak up please?

Before this scene, Phoebe, who worked as a lousy singer/guitarist in "Central Perk" the coffee shop, was singing her songs before the live audience. The conversation revolved around the first meeting between Phoebe and David, who became her boyfriend the subsequent episode, when her singing was interrupted by his small talk with his friend. To warn David, politeness strategy was intentionally used by Phoebe to mock David who acted impolitely and talked aloud while she was on the stage. Beside canned laughter, we can depict sarcastic tone or mock politeness through Phoebe's lexical choice (e.g. "important enough" and "please"). Nonetheless, mock politeness is the strategy used by Phoebe the least when compared to the others.

Table 3: Percentage of CP violation and of Impoliteness strategies

Violation/Flouting Grice's Maxims		Impoliteness	
Type	**%**	**Type**	**%**
Quantity	11.38	Bald-on-Record	33.42
Quality	47.30	Positive	18.75
Relation	16.17	Negative	18.75
Manner	25.15	Off-record	17.75
		Sarcasm	11.32

Conclusion

Table 3 reveals that the maxims of quality and manners are violated mostly and Phoebe commonly uses "exaggeration" strategy so as to violate the maxim of quality. In terms of characterization through linguistic perspective, the results reflect on her ostensible eccentricity, throughout the series, because Phoebe particularly employs out-of-context "irrelevance" and "ambiguity" in a number of utterances. In addition, Phoebe's punch lines were foregrounded by violating Grice's maxims of quality and manner. One of the fundamental issues the audiences perceive while watching *Friends* is that friendship must be based on faithfulness and frankness, which is linguistically proven by Phoebe's eminence of bald on record percentage through impoliteness strategies. To illustrate, without redress of utterances, bald on record shows that Phoebe usually expresses resentment with authentic emotions to her friends. When she had a secret, she would talk straightforwardly and spell out what of her personal opinion to her close friends. Of the most important, this study is only a beginning attempt to study humors in realm of linguistics and language to explain how it can grasp the essence of individual characterization by communicative turns. As mentioned, this study draws attention on Grice's CP and impoliteness strategies which can only be applied to verbal language and the researcher is aware that it is out of question to analyze non-verbal acts, such as facial expression, gesture, settings, silence, intonation and etc., reckoned a crucial element in humors. It is intriguing to do a further investigation on non-verbal acts that contribute to Phoebe's traits for more comprehension of jokes and language.

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The President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono's Political Communication Styles

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Abstract

The success of a leader, including a president determined by his skill in communicating both verbally and non-verbally. In the context of the communication as head of state by the president can be categorized as political communication and is closely associated with leadership communication. The President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono in the second period of his tenure as the President of the Republic of Indonesia has a lot of political communication both with the ministers presidential aide as well as its people. The president SBY Communications quite steal the show as research material, this is because during his reign many events going on interesting and controversial, both positive and negative seen from point of view of the people of Indonesia. The theory behind the study is the three communication styles by Christopher L. Heffner. According to Heffner, it is Passive, Assertive and Aggressive seen from verbal and non-verbal communication.

The research is descriptive qualitative approach, the study explains extensively about communication styles of the President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono during the two periods of his tenure. The research method uses two types of methods: a case study method and the method of semiotics. Through the early stages of data analysis based on interviews with the informants and both verbal and nonverbal meaning, it was explained that the President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono uses assertive communication style.

Keywords: style of communication, political communication, verbal and non-verbal.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of problem

As head of state, a president is no doubt become public attention. All his behavior and communication is always being the center of public attention, and cause both positive and negative reactions.

The success of a leader, including a president determined by his skill in communicating both verbally and non-verbally. In the context of the communication as head of state by the president can be categorized as political communication and is closely associated with leadership communication.

Political communication between the president and the people would have a certain objectives, such as gaining support for the policies to be carried out, to restore confidence in the government, reducing conflict, forming a self-image and its government, and so forth. The point of political communication in this presidential communications can contribute to the achievement of the communicator's objectives. Presidential political communication tool can also be used for self-image.

If the president communication responded positively by audiences, then surely the president will have a good image, and vice versa, if the president's communications responded negatively by the audiences the president will absolutely get a bad image as well. This is in line with the theory of political communication of empathy, namely: "the political communication measured from the success of communicator (the subject of the communication) projected over the other person's perspective. Political communication can be successful if the communicator can instill self-image in the minds of the public mood, or in short, to build the empathy in the society ".(Berlo, 1960 and Daniel Lerner, 1978)

In political communication, there are two strategies do political communicators, namely; First, open communication and its explicit ideology. Second, the messages hidden in the issue of political ideology or activity visible. (Firmanzah, 2008: 333). Thus political communication means communicating something that is symbolic, because the political messages laden with implied meanings. Called symbolic communication due emphasis connotations of each word, objects, and images that appear.

President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono in the second period of his tenure as the President of the Republic of Indonesia has been doing many political communications both ministers presidential aide as well as its people. The president SBY Communications quite steal the show as research material, this is because during his reign many events going on interesting and controversial, both positive and negative seen from point of view of the people of Indonesia.

Communication which carried must have a certain objectives, but at least the main objective is the establishment of a good image of the self-image as head of state as well as the image of the party that shelter. A leader needs self-image because it fits with the concept in organizational communication saying that: "the development of an organization, whether good or bad, depending on the leader. Organization would be better if led by a leader who has a good self-image. Conversely, if the leader has a poor self-image, it will display the image of a bad organization "(Hartono, 2011). If related to a president's communication, it is intended to a state organization he leads, as well as a shelter party.

The SBY communication style is quite interesting for further study, it is because of his leadership during the two periods experienced the ups and downs in imaging. The first period SBY imagery was pretty good while the image of SBY's second term has declined, especially after emerging corruption cases involving high-ranking Democrats, the party that once led.

Based on these facts, the study wanted to know the communication style of President SBY during the two periods of government. Communication styles that will be examined include verbal and non-verbal communication in a variety of contexts and situations.

1.2 Problem Statements

Based on the background of the problem in advance, then the formulation of the problem is the focus of research, it is: "How is the communication style of the president Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono?"

1.3 Objectives of Study

This study aimed to describe the style of President SBY political communication both verbally and non-verbally during the two periods of his reign.

The expected benefits of this research are to enrich the study of science communication, especially political communication, a leadership communication relating to the self-image of a head of state. Also knowing the political communication styles of the President Susilo Bambang

Yudhoyono, Indonesia in particular so people can understand the intent and the purpose of the communication which is peformed by the president.

2.0 THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Communications

In terminology, Communication is the process of delivering the statements or messages from one person to another. It may means that communication is a human involved. Humans as social beings need other human beings to interact. In the interaction between one human with another human requires communication. Communication between humans (Human Communication) is often also referred to as social communication. (Effendi, 1992:4).

Some expert's say the definition of communication is: Everett M. Rogers: "Communication is a process where ideas were transferred from the source to one or more recipients with a view to change their behavior."

Shannon & Weaver stated that: "Communication is a form of human interaction that each influences the other, intentionally or unintentionally. Not limited to verbal forms of communication using the language, but also in terms of facial expressions, painting, art, and technology "(in Cangara, 1998:20).

Ruben & Stewart (1998:16) stated that human communication is "the process of involving individuals in a relationship between individuals, groups, organizations and communities respond to and create messages to adapt to the environment with each other.

It can be concluded that the general definition of communication is a process of construction, delivery, and processing of messages that occur within a person and or between two or more specific purposes.

Related to the study that each of the actions and behavior of a president can be considered as a process of communication that contains the symbols of both verbal and nonverbal.

2.2 Forms of Communication

Based on the form of communication can be classified as verbal communication and non-verbal communication.

2.2.1. Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication

Verbal communication by Arni Muhammad (1992: 95) is "communication that uses symbols or words that say either orally or in writing. Verbal communication is defined as communication using spoken or written language.

Verbal communication is communication that uses words, either spoken or written. Communication is the most widely used in human relations. (M. Harja, 2003: 22). According to Alo Liliweri (1994: 89) "Non-verbal communication is often called by a communication without words (because not a word)." Non-verbal communication usually use body movements such as hand gestures, head movements, body posture, facial expressions, eye gaze, and others.

Meanwhile, according to Deddy Mulyana (2006) in a simple way, non-verbal message is "all cues that are not words." A mostly non-verbal cue are also not universal, but is bound by culture, so the non-verbal communication must be learned not innate.

Forms of Non-Verbal Communication

Code of non-verbal communication can be grouped in several forms such as:
1. *Kinesics,* Is a non-verbal code indicated by body movements. Body movements can be divided into:
   a. Facial, Using face to determine the specific meaning.
   b. Gestures, Movement as a member of the body such as the eyes and hands to communicate their meaning.
   c. Postural, With regard to the entire body. Posture may imply: *Immediacy*, *Power*, *and Responsiveness.*

2. Artifactual message, Expressed through the way they dress and the way of dealing with cosmetics.

3. Proksemik Message Delivered through the spacing and space. Generally by adjusting the distance we express our solidarity with others.
4. Paralinguistic Message, Non-verbal messages that relate to how to pronounce the verbal message.

5. Touches and smells message, Skin touches receiver is capable of receiving and distinguish different emotions conveyed by the people through touch. (Grace and Kresnowati, 2008: 61-62).

2.3 Communication Styles

Understanding the communication style is the use of language to convey ideas in a certain way. According to Aristotle's rhetoric, especially in communication style is also influenced by the choice of words, the use of imagery, and proper word. (West & Turner, 2008: 13).

The style of communication is how we communicate, communication patterns verbally and non verbally include how to give and receive information in a particular situation. If the message is "what" and the communicator is "Who", the style of communication is the "how" (Saphiere et.al 2005: 5). Another understanding of communication styles according to saphiere Dianne Hofner et al. is: "How do we express ourselves, reflect the values and beliefs, where these values and beliefs are determined by culture and personality" (Saphiere, 2005: 6).

It can be concluded that the individual communication styles differ due to differences in culture and personality of each individual. The style of communication is both verbal and non-verbal communication.

According to Christopher communication style can be divided into three, namely: passive style, aggressive style, and assertive style.

Communication Styles by Christopher L. Heffner, M.S.

	Passive	**Assertive**	**Aggressive**
Definition	Communication style in which you put the rights of others before your own, minimizing your own self worth	Communication style in which you stand up for your rights while maintaining respect for the rights of others	Communication style in which you stand up for your rights but you violate the rights of others
Implications to Others	my feelings are not important I don't matter I think I'm inferior	we are both important we both matter I think we are equal	your feelings are not important you don't matter I think I'm superior
Verbal Styles	apologetic overly soft or tentative voice	I statements firm voice	you statements loud voice
Non-Verbal Styles	looking down or away stooped posture, excessive head nodding	looking direct relaxed posture, smooth and relaxed movements	staring, narrow eyes tense, clenched fists, rigid posture, pointing fingers
Potential Consequences	lowered self esteem anger at self false feelings of inferiority disrespect from others pitied by others	higher self esteem self respect respect from others respect of others	guilt anger from others lowered self esteem disrespect from others feared by others

Source:http://www.miami.edu/development-raining/Resources/PMParticipantfinalManual0305.pdf

2.4 Political Communication

Some definitions of political communication according to the experts, namely:

Fagen (1966), describes "Communicatory activity considered political by virtue of its consequences, actual, and potential, that it has for the functioning of political systems".

Meadow (1980) makes the definition of political communication "Political communication refers to any exchange of symbols or messages that to a significant extent have been shaped by or have consequences for the political system" (in Masayu, 2011).

Political communication is communication (activity) considered political by virtue of its consequences (actual or potential) which regulate human conduct under the condition of conflict (Dan Nimmo, 1982).

Political Communication by Susanto 1985 is: "communication which is directed to achieve some effect in so much, so that the issues dealt with by this type of communication activity, can bind all citizens through a shared set of sanctions." (In Muhtadi, 2008: 30).

A government can last long if leaders intensifly the political communication which are deliberately directed to the community through a process of accommodation and confrontation.

2. 6 Image

The image can be defined as the impression generated by public knowledge based on facts about the product or company (Henslowe, 2000: 2).

The image is the main goal, and it's the reputation and accomplishments to be achieved for the realm of public relations (PR). Understanding the image itself is abstract and can not be measured systematically, but the form could be felt from the results of good or bad judgment (Ruslan, 2005: 75). Usually the image is rooted in the foundation of the “values of trust” which is in concrete given individually, and represents the views or perceptions (Ruslan, 2005, p.76). The process of trusteeship and accumulation that has been given by these individuals will be sooner or later experience the process to form a broader public opinion, which is often called the image (Ruslan, 2005: 76)

Frank Jeffkins suggests, there are several types of images that are often encountered, namely:

1. Mirror Image
This image is attached to the inside or the members of the organization, usually the leader of the external perception of the organization. In other words, the image of the shadow is the image shared by people in the people opinion outside the organization. The image is often not appropriate, or evens just an illusion, as a result of insufficient information, knowledge or understanding owned by the internal organization regarding the opinions or views of external parties.

2. Current Image
The opposite of a shadow image, the image that occur (current image) is an image or view attached to outside parties about an organization. However, as well as the shadow image, the image is not always valid, even rarely matches the reality because of the sheer form of experience or knowledge from the outsiders beyond those typically inadequate concerned.

3. Wish image
Image of hope is a desired image by management; the image is also not the same as the actual image. Usually images are expected to be better or more fun than the existing image. The image of hope is often called the image of desire that is like what you want and achieved by the management of the institution / company, or the products displayed more famous (good awareness), pleasant and acceptable to the positive impression given (take and give) by the public or the general public.

4. Corporate Image
Corporate image is the image of an organization as a whole, so it is not the image of the product and service. This image type is associated with the figure of the company as its main purpose, how to create the positive image of the company (corporate image), better known and accepted by the public, may be about the history, excellent service quality, success in marketing, and to the responsibilities associated with social (social care) and so on. In this case the PR or public relations make a serious effort or even partially responsible for maintaining the company's image, in order to influence the share price remained high value (liquid) to stock market competition.

5. Multiple Image
Any company or organization must have a lot of units and employees (members). Each unit and individual has its own behavior, thus intentionally or not, and consciously or not, they certainly bring an image that is not necessarily the same as the overall image of the organization or company. As a result, the amount of the image that a company has can be said as many as the number of employees they have.

6. Performance Image
Image appearance is more directed to the subject, it is about the performance or appearance (performance image) of the professionals in the company concerned. For example, in providing a variety of forms and service quality, welcome the telephone calls, guests and customers as well as the public, should be all-round fun and gives the impression of which is always good. Perhaps the appearance of an image problem overlooked or trivialized many people. For example, in the case of directly lifting a ringing phone is considered as an act of interruptions, including the recipient's phone calls did not identify the name of your personal or company concerned is an act of hostile and unethical.

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Types of research

The research approach is descriptive qualitative, the study explains extensively about President SBY's communication styles during the two periods of his tenure. The research characteristic uses a qualitative approach as follows: According to Glesne & Peshkin (1992), qualitative research tends to use text data that is subjective. Reality learned constructed in accordance with the participants 'social value' (study subjects), and therefore the meaning of reality according to the participants' understanding. Qualitative research has a complex tangle of variable and difficult to measure. Meanwhile, according to Prasetya Irawan, qualitative research "is intersubjective truth" instead of the truth that is built from the fabric of many factors working together, such as culture and unique properties of human individuals" (Irawan, 2006: 4).

Qualitative approach used in this study when one attempts to interpret reality and try to build theories based on what had happened. A qualitative approach emphasizes the meaning, reasoning, the definition of a particular situation (in certain contexts), the research matters relating to everyday life. Qualitative approach, moreover, concerned with the process than the final result, therefore the sequence of events can vary depending on many conditions and symptoms were found. The purpose of research is usually associated with things that are practical. This method is suitable to answer the questions of what, where and why or how.

For the purposes of analysis, this research uses a case study method and the method of semiotics. According to Bogdan and Bikien (1982) case study is a detailed examination of one setting or one subject or a document repository or a specific event, in this study the focus is on the individual, namely the President. While the method used to interpret the semiotics both verbally and non verbal of the President's communication styles.

3.2. Data Collection Techniques

In this study the authors used two data sources, namely primary data and secondary data.

1. Primary Data

In collecting the data, the authors observe the primary data, which is recorded SBY speech by reading it and explore it every narrative and take some pictures or photos that are considered important. Also will conduct interviews with several parties to strengthen the results of this study. Interviews were conducted in-depth interviews (depth interviews) is to collect the data or information by direct face to face with an informant in order to gain a complete and in-depth data. In this in-depth interview, the interviewer has no control over the relative response of informants, informants freely give researchers the answer because it has duties that informants are willing to give a complete answer, this is how the way to arrange an informal interview.

2. Secondary Data

Secondary data collection is done by searching the various references in the form of books, literature, material from the internet, the materials contained in the media, both print and electronic, as well as various documents that refer to similar studies that have been done before .

3.3 Validity of data

A validity technique of the data in this study is the use of triangulation. Triangulation of data trying to verify the data that has been collected and attempted to verify specific data with data obtained from other sources.

The definition of triangulation according to Moleong is "Engineering validity examination of data by utilizing something else out data for checking purposes or as a comparison to the data" (1994:178).

The method used in this study is the triangulation of data by using triangulation of sources. Triangulation means to compare and check the sources behind the degree of confidence in the information obtained through time and different tools in qualitative methods (Moleong, 1994:178). It can be achieved by:

a. Comparing data from observations with data from interviews
b. Comparing what people say publicly with what privately said
c. Comparing what people say about the situation of research with what is being said all the time
d. Comparing the state of the perspective of someone with different opinions and views of people like the citizen

4.0 Findings and discussions

Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono is Indonesia's first president elected directly by the people. Yudhoyono was elected as a president two times in a row. In the two periods of his tenure SBY image has change, in the first period, SBY has a good image but unfortunately his image is reduced in the second period. This is because many cases of corruption that afflicts the people closest to the officials of the Democratic party, that in fact the party he founded.

To obtain an overview of communication styles of the President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono will be reviewed from verbal communication and non-verbal as well as some speech footage and his statement on several occasions.

Verbally based on observation, library research and interviews with several informants, it is resulted that SBY in political communication tends to use high context communication style, this is in line with his character as Javanese. According to Edward T. hall (1976) a person's communication style can be seen from many aspects, one of which is the aspect of context. In terms of culture, human culture globally divided into two categories: high-context cultures (high-context culture) and low context (low-context culture). Indonesia especially Java adheres to a high context culture, resulting in a high context communication anyway.

According to Hofsteede, in high context communication typically use a communicator winged language, which can only be understood if the communicant understand the culture of the communicator. SBY in several speeches tend to use the phrase a.k.a. winged spin or not directly to the point. This often leads to a wrong interpretation of the audience, with the community at large, or to the ministers under its umbrella, as well as his political opponents. Because a lot of people either Java itself especially outside Java who sometimes do not understand the culture of the communicator in this SBY communication style.

In communicating with staff, either his staffs or his ministers, the President's communication style is Assertive. The Assertive style according to Robert Kreitner and Angelo Kinicki, the characteristics of assertive communicators in communicating is urgent without attacking, let others influence the results, expressive and elevate yourself without attacking others. SBY in communication tend to combine Java and him as he was as a military. For those people who closest to him in this case Democrat members who had interviewed by the researcher says that: SBY was never rude to give a command or warning, but from his non-verbal assertiveness can be seen as a military man.

In SBY's non-verbal communication will be analyzed based on the pieces of a picture taken from the speech of SBY. On several occasions SBY more frequent in non-verbal style of Kinesics which is the communication that is indicated by body movements, body movements are often shown by the gesture of SBY limb movements such as eyes and hands to communicate their meaning.

figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

This gesture can generally be interpreted to emphasize something in the context of the conversation is done. Pointing the finger can also be interpreted as a particular person or object, in some of it could also be to blame others.

In figure 1, the SBY non-verbal communication means that what is actually being done in accordance with the prevailing system of hand forming the letter O means that everything is OK or do a perfect job (perfect). While the finger pointing down command hinted that must be implemented by all parties.

In Figure 2 and 3 show friendliness and firmness that characterize SBY, friendly look of the smile, though significant, pointing to assert. While the look of the firm's face and hands are pointing up, which means a firm stance that all policies adopted must be obeyed, because as a president in charge of the entire people of Indonesia.

From these findings were obtained, seems that President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono as a Java and military in political communication possesses an assertive communication style. In addition, in various poses on a non verbal SBY often uses code of nonverbal gesture, especially the index finger. Finger in the philosophy of Java has various meanings, namely: pride meaningful Thumb, index finger indicating a good path, the middle finger means to mediate in any trouble, ring finger symbolizes loyalty and belief, the little finger means to reconcile all a misunderstanding.

SBY more frequent use of the index finger (see picture), which means he is the leader of the Indonesian State and heterogeneous multi-ethnic society must be able to provide guidance towards truth and peace, the finger is also menas that SBY always had commanded firmly as a reflection of a military man, assertive but not arrogant, because of high context cultures as Indonesia and ethnic Javanese, which is not plainly show anger or frustration. He chose assertive communication style, aided by a polite nonverbal communication.

The Image of President SBY

President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono is known as a president who is strongly maintaining self-image. According to the survey of institutions Survey Indonesia (LSI), SBY dubbed homo politicus, the political being conscious keep his image in the eyes of society. The results of a poll conducted by the KOMPAS before the election also showed similar results. Any questions concerning the proposed SBY answered directly to the public with a view of the personality, behavior, physical ability to lead and the figure of SBY. SBY's popularity is reflected in the imaging community regarding his actions were completely polite (Garin Nugroho, 2010: 25).

Referring to the concept of the image of Frank Jeffkins about the types of images, one of them is the appearance image, then the SBY appearance both physical and communication are extremely maintaining the image of himself. SBY always dressed neatly in terms of fashion, supported premises form tall burly (suggesting gallant). He was always straight with a smile face giving the impression of calm, his eyes sharp but not fierce. In a speech he communicates clearly and systematically so easy to understand. In anger though SBY trying not explosive but sharp enough to matter.

While referring to the kind of shadow image (mirror image), the SBY image associated with the image of the organization, in this case is the Democratic party that shelter. Democrats current image faded with the emergence of many corruption cases involving members and managers. Because SBY is the one who established the Democrats, when the image of Democratic Party decreased, its resulting in fall of SBY image.

Picture 1
Adapted from Soegianto Hartono (2011)

Soegianto explain the concept of a leader in terms of corporate leaders, but it can also be adopted to explain the self-image of head of state or president, as the State is basically an organization as well. Self-image of a president can be seen from two main viewpoints, body image (image appearance) and self-image (character). A President must have a healthy body, dressed in clean, tidy and polite. Always cheerful and vibrant. A president must also have good characters like;

a. Integrity
b. Affection
c. Responsibility
d. Confidence
e. Patient
f. Discipline
g. Being able to control himself

Character is more important than appearance, because in leading it is necessary to communicate with all the ministers as well as subordinates, to his people, and to his political opponents. SBY's self-image if it is associated with the model both appearance and characters have reflected a positive image.

5.0 Conclusion

From the results analysis and findings of the research that has been done, the conclusions are:

1. SBY Non-verbal movements are often done by kinesics gesture categories namely parts of body movements such as eyes, hands, and fingers. Almost every speech of SBY always use both fingers and pointing up and down, which means the member orders and instructions to subordinates and all the people of Indonesia.
2. Referring to the self-image comprising leaders from the appearance and character, SBY already reflect a positive image.
3. Based on the overall analysis of the political communication style, SBY communication style tends to be assertive communication style; the style of the communicator makes direct statements which are accompanied by a variety of considerations such as feelings, ideas and expectations that look of gesture, a smile, directness and assertiveness.

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A Comparative Study on Students' Learning Difficulties and Learning Progresses of ED5012 English Proficiency Course at Graduate School of Education, Assumption University

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Abstract

This study aimed to firstly identify the ED5012 English Proficiency Course students' demographic factors including studying programs, ages, nationalities and current employment statuses; then to survey the top 10 learning difficulties in ED5012 English Proficiency course; to compare the students' learning progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in this course, and lastly to determine the differences of students' learning progresses according to their demographic factors at Graduate School of Education(GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand.

The study used descriptive statistics, including frequency, percentage, and one way ANONA to deal with the data. 48 students who learned ED5012 English Proficiency course during 2010-2012 at Graduate School of Education, Assumption University were used as the sample for this study.

Analyzing of the collected data, the study reported the demographics of the students of ED5012 English Proficiency course in GSoE; ranked the top 10 learning difficulties of the course; determined the differences of students' learning progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in this course; but the study found no significant differences of students' learning progresses according to their programs, ages, and nationalities, but there was a significant difference of learning progresses among students with different employment statuses.

Keywords: Students Learning Difficulties; Learning Progress; ED5012 English Proficiency course, Graduate School of Education (GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand

Introduction

As the oldest and biggest international university, Assumption University has been providing education to the youth of the Thai and other nations since 1969. About 19,870 students including a fairly large complement of foreign students drawn from 75 countries of the world are studying in Assumption University (AU).Since AU employs English as the only and official medium of instruction for all the programs, students' English proficiency skills to a great extent decide and influence students' learning achievements and effectiveness. Learning at Graduate School level, Good English communication skills and knowledge become more necessary and important.

In Graduate School of Education (GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand, ED5012 English Proficiency Course is a course to help students acquire better skills in English and put into practice and expand richer vocabulary. As beneficial as it can be, the sequel of learning also contributes to preparing the students to take a standardized English test. To keep up with the standard of the English learning and testing system, a variety of well-selected materials based on the TOEFL will be employed to fulfill the course objectives.

After the students have completed the course learning activities, the students should be able to perform the following tasks:

1. To increase and enhance students' overall proficiency in the English language which is necessary for success in their programs.
2. To enhance their specific communication skills in speaking and reading relative to their academic progress.
3. To stimulate a continuing interest in reading and writing.
4. To promptly prepare students to take English standardized test like TOEFL through in-class instruction and practice and by their own ongoing and consistent self-study using ESL resource materials.

Students, who apply programs at Graduate School of Education (GSoE), will be arranged to take an entrance examination. As a part of the entrance examination, English will be tested in the paper. Those who failed in the English test will be forced to take ED5012 English Proficiency Course in the school and pass the course as to fulfill the graduation requirement. Therefore, ED5012 English Proficiency Course for all the non-native speaking students is very important; it will decide and influence their progress of study and graduation.

Research Questions:

1. What are the students' demographic factors of ED5012 English Proficiency Course, including their studying program, age, nationality, and current employment status?
2. What are the top 10 learning difficulties in ED5012 English Proficiency course?
3. Are there any differences of the students' learning progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in ED5012 English Proficiency course?
4. What are the differences of students' learning progresses according to their demographic factors at Graduate School of Education (GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand?

Research Objectives:

1. To identify the ED5012 English Proficiency Course students' demographic factors including studying program, nationality, age, and current employment status.
2. To survey the top 10 learning difficulties in ED5012 English Proficiency course.
3. To compare the students' learning progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in ED5012 English Proficiency course.
4. To determine the differences of students' learning progresses according to their demographic factors at Graduate School of Education (GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand.

Conceptual Framework

Based on the research objectives, the conceptual framework was provided to give a clear picture of how each objective was developed and related to the others. As Figure 1 showed, all the research objectives were in fact connected and the findings for each objective would be served as the feedbacks to guide the course for further improvement.

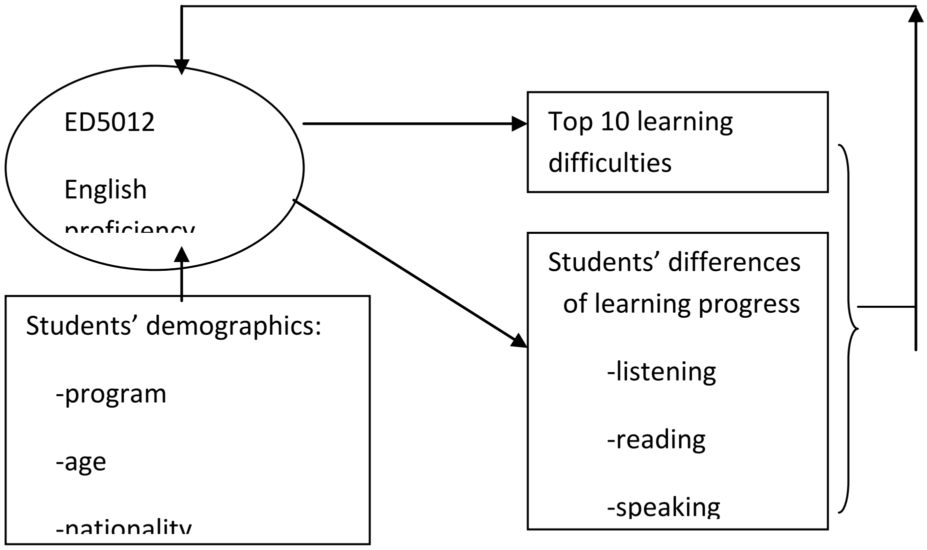

Figure 1 Conceptual Framework of this Study

Research Methodology

This study used descriptive statistics, including frequency, percentage, and one way ANONA to deal with the data. Total 48 students who learned ED5012 English Proficiency course during 2010-2012 at Graduate School of Education, Assumption University were used as the sample for the study. The questionnaires were delivered to those 48 students in the following way: by emails and hardcopies. Finally, all 48 students returned the questionnaire and valid rate reached 100%.

Findings & Results

Findings and results for each objective were listed as follows:

Research Objective 1: *To identify the ED5012 English Proficiency Course students' demographic factors including studying program, nationality, age, and current employment status.*

Table 1: Report of ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students' Demographics: Studying program

Program	M.Ed(CI)	M.Ed (EA)	Ph.D (EL)	Total
f	29	17	2	48
%	60.4	35.4	4.2	100

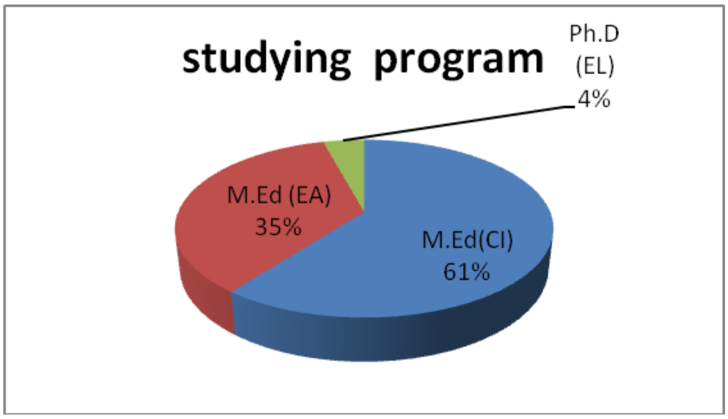

Figure 2: Programs of ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students

Table 1 and Figure 2 showed what programs the ED5012 students were belonging to, both revealed that: most ED5012 English Proficiency Course students are the master's program students. 60.4% of them were from the Master's program of Curriculum and Instruction; 35.4% of them were the Master's program of Education Administration. And only 4.2% students were studying for the Ph. D of Educational Leadership program.

Table 2: Report of ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students' Demographics: Age

Age	20-30 years old	31-40 years old	41-50 years old	Total
f	32	10	6	48
%	66.7	20.8	12.5	100

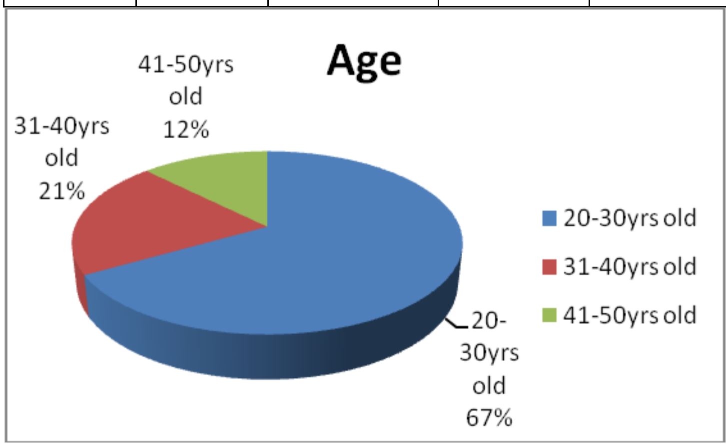

Figure 3: Ages of ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students

Table 2 and Figure 3 showed the age group of the ED5012 students, as the result, most ED5012 English Proficiency Course students (87.5%)were younger than 40 years old, among them 66.7% of the students were between 20-31years old; 20.8 %of them were between 31-40 years old; And only 12.5% students were above 41, but all of them were younger than 50 years old.

Table 3: Report of ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students' Demographics: Nationality

Nationality	Myanmar	China	Thai	South Korea	Cambodia	Vietnam	Iran	Indonesia	Taiwan	Philippines	Total
f	13	11	11	5	2	2	1	1	1	1	48
%	27.1	22.9	22.9	10.3	4.2	4.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	100

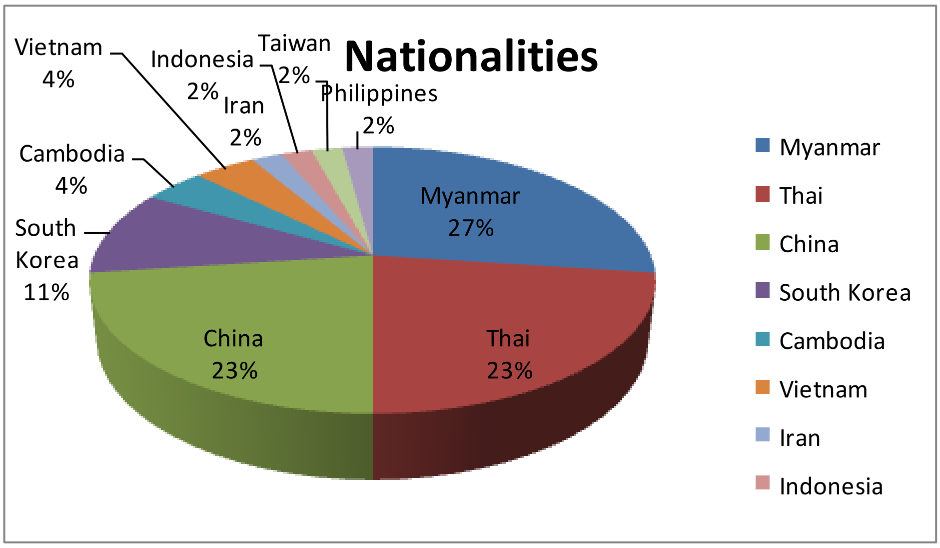

Figure 4: Nationalities of ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students

From Table 3 and Figure 4, the multi-cultrual and highly internationalized student body was proved. Just in ED5012 English Proficiency Course, there were students from 10 different nations already. As the statistics showed, most of the students were from Myanmar (27.1%), Thailand(22.9%), China(22.9%), and South Korea(10.3%), then from Cambodia(4.2%) and Vietnam(4.2%), and Iran(2.1%), Indonesia(2.1%), Taiwan(2.1%) and Philipines(2.1%).

Table 4: Report of ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students' Demographics: Current Employment Status

Current Employment	Fulltime student	Part-time job	Full-time in an educational organizations	Fulltime but not in an educational organizations	Total
f	18	5	21	4	48
%	37.5	10.4	43.8	8.3	100

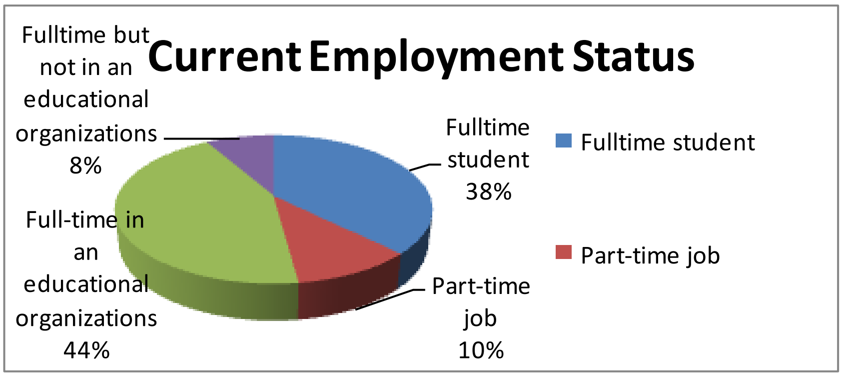

Figure 5: Current Employment Status of ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students

Table 4 and Figure 5 showed the emloyment statuses of the ED5012 students. It revealed that 62.5% of ED5012 English Proficiency Course students were working, 43.8% of them were woking fulltimely in educational organazitions, 8.3% of them were working fulltimely in other areas, 10.4% of them were working parttimely; and only 37.5% students were fulltime students, in fact most of these 37.5% students were scholarship students.

Research Objective 2: *To survey the top 10 learning difficulties in ED5012 English Proficiency course.*

Table 5: Top 10 Learning Difficulties in ED5012 English Proficiency course at Graduate School of Education, Assumption University, Thailand

Top 10 Learning Difficulties	f
1. Making inferences in reading	40
2. Writing appropriate, long, but clear enough sentence	40
3. Reading the long and difficult passages	38
4. Skimming and Scanning	36
5. Paraphrasing	34
6. Summarizing	34
7. Making connections	33
8. Taking notes	28
9.Answering Contrast question	27
10. Listening for tone and attitude	23
Total	48

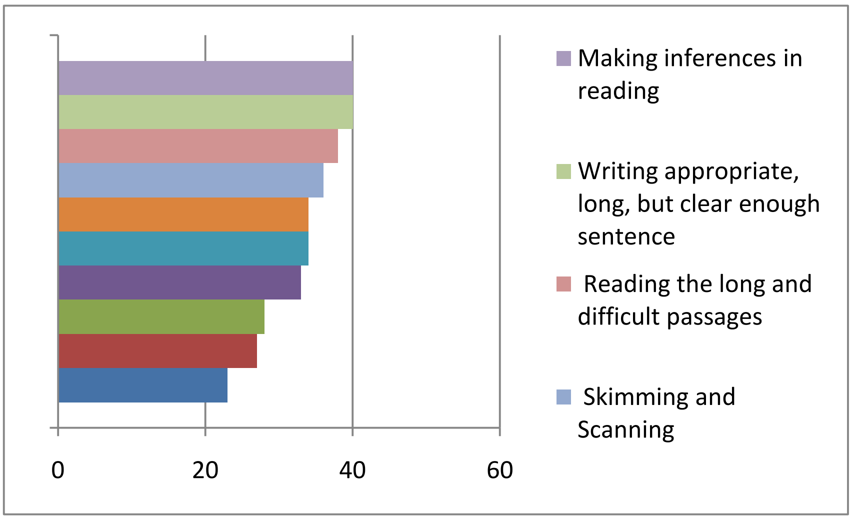

Figure 6: Top 10 learning difficlutiesranked by ED5012 English Proficiency Course Students

From Table 5 and Figure 6, the study identified the Top 10 learning difficulties as the ED5012 students ranked, these 10 learning difficulties (from the most difficult to the least) were: (1) Making inferences in reading; (2) Writing appropriate, long, but clear enough sentence; (3) Reading the long and difficult passages; (4) Skimming and Scanning; (5) Paraphrasing; (6) Summarizing; (7) Making connections; (8) Taking notes; Answering; (9) Contrast question; (10)Listening for tone and attitude. The top 10 learning difficulties were involved in all listening, reading, speaking and writing areas.

Research Objective 3: *To compare the students' learning progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in ED5012 English Proficiency course.*

Table 6: ANOVA Report of Students' Learning Progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in ED5012 English Proficiency course

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	228.391	3	76.130	50.556	.000
Within Groups	283.104	188	1.506		
Total	511.495	191			

Table 6: Multiple Comparisons of Students' Learning Progresses in Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing Areas in ED5012 English Proficiency Course

(I) LRSW	(J) LRSW	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LP	RP	.60417	.25049	.125	-.1025	1.3108
	SP	-2.27083*	.25049	.000*	-2.9775	-1.5642
	WP	-1.02083*	.25049	.001*	-1.7275	-.3142
RP	LP	-.60417	.25049	.125	-1.3108	.1025
	SP	-2.87500*	.25049	.000*	-3.5816	-2.1684
	WP	-1.62500*	.25049	.000*	-2.3316	-.9184
SP	LP	2.27083*	.25049	.000*	1.5642	2.9775
	RP	2.87500*	.25049	.000*	2.1684	3.5816
	WP	1.25000*	.25049	.000*	.5434	1.9566
WP	LP	1.02083*	.25049	.001*	.3142	1.7275
	RP	1.62500*	.25049	.000*	.9184	2.3316
	SP	-1.25000*	.25049	.000*	-1.9566	-.5434

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 6 and Table 7 showed the significant differences of students' learning progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in ED5012 English Proficiency course. As the result the study found: (1) there were significant differences of students' learning progresses in Listening and Speaking areas (Sig.000) in the way that students Listening Progress is less than their Speaking Progress; (2) there were significant differences of students' learning progresses in Listening and Writing areas (Sig.001) in the way that students Listening Progress is less than their Writing Progress; (3) there were significant differences of students' learning progresses in Reading and Speaking areas (Sig.000) in the way that students Reading Progress is less than their Speaking Progress; (4) there were significant differences of students' learning progresses in Reading and Writing areas (Sig.000) in the way that students Reading Progress is less than their Writing Progress; (5) there were significant differences of students' learning progresses in Speaking and Writing areas (Sig.000) in the way that students Speaking Progress is more than their Writing Progress. (6) there were no significant differences of students' learning progresses in Listening and Reading areas (Sig.125); and (7) Students' learning progresses descended from areas of Speaking, Writing, Listening and Reading.

Research Objective 4: *To determine the differences of students' learning progresses according to their demographic factors at Graduate School of Education (GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand.*

Table 7: ANOVA Report of Differences of Students' Learning Progresses according to their studying programs in ED5012 English Proficiency course

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	21.503	2	10.752	1.183	.316
Within Groups	408.976	45	9.088		
Total	430.479	47			

Table 8: ANOVA Report of Differences of Students' Learning Progresses according to their ages in ED5012 English Proficiency course

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.837	2	2.418	.256	.776
Within Groups	425.642	45	9.459		
Total	430.479	47			

Table 9: ANOVA Report of Differences of Students' Learning Progresses according to their nationalities in ED5012 English Proficiency course

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	61.219	8	7.652	.808	.599
Within Groups	369.260	39	9.468		
Total	430.479	47			

Table 7, 8 and 9 showed the results of one way ANOVA for testing the significant differences of students' learning progresses according to their studying programs, ages, and nationalities. As the results, no significant differences of students' learning progresses according to their studying programs, ages, and nationalities were found since the p values are all bigger than .05.

Table 10: ANOVA Report of Differences of Students' Learning Progresses according to their employment status in ED5012 English Proficiency course

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	126.558	3	42.186	6.107	.001
Within Groups	303.921	44	6.907		
Total	430.479	47			

Table 11: Multiple Comparisons of Students' Learning Progresses according to their employment statuses in ED5012 English Proficiency course

(I) job	(J) job	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
FS	PTS	5.34706*	1.33708	.003*	1.4605	9.2337
	FTT	2.16880	.84061	.099	-.2747	4.6123
	FTNT	3.14706	1.64583	.014*	-1.6370	7.9311
PTS	FS	-5.34706*	1.33708	.003*	-9.2337	-1.4605
	FTT	-3.17826	1.29683	.128	-6.9479	.5914
	FTNT	-2.20000	1.91935	.727	-7.7791	3.3791
FTT	FS	-2.16880	.84061	.099	-4.6123	.2747
	PTS	3.17826	1.29683	.128	-.5914	6.9479
	FTNT	.97826	1.61331	.946	-3.7113	5.6678
FTNT	FS	-3.14706	1.64583	.014*	-7.9311	1.6370
	PTS	2.20000	1.91935	.727	-3.3791	7.7791
	FTT	-.97826	1.61331	.946	-5.6678	3.7113

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

However, Table 10 one way ANOVA for testing the significant differences of students' learning progresses according to their employment statuses showed there were significant differences among students with different employment statues. Therefore, multiple comparisons of students' learning progresses according to their employment statuses in ED5012 English Proficiency course were conducted. As Table 11 showed, the findings were :(1) there were significant differences of students' learning progresses between the fulltime students and part-time working students (Sig .003), in the way that fulltime students had more learning progresses than the part-time working students; (2) there were significant differences of students' learning progresses between the fulltime students and fulltime workers but not as teachers (Sig .014), in the way that fulltime students had more learning progresses than those who work full-timely but not as teachers; (3) there were no significant differences of students' learning progresses between the fulltime students and fulltime workers as teachers (Sig .099); (4) there were no significant differences of students' learning progresses between the part-time working students and fulltime workers as teachers (Sig .128); (5) there were no significant differences of students' learning progresses between the part-time working students and fulltime workers but not as teachers (Sig .727); (6) there were no significant differences of students' learning progresses between fulltime workers as teachers and fulltime workers but not as teachers (Sig .946).

Discussions

1. ***About students' demographic factors including studying program, nationality, age, and current employment status***

From the findings of students' demographics, it showed that at Graduate School of Education (GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand, most students are institutional teachers or educators from Asia in the age of 20-40 years old. The student body of our school is highly internationalized and in the profession of education, which reflected the school's strategic goal

"To recruit high-ability students, both from within the country and abroad, into the profession of education."(SAR 2012, p2)
This researcher did another study entitled with "A Study on Students' Learning Styles, Learning Difficulties and Satisfaction at Graduate School of Education, Assumption University of Thailand" (Yan Ye, 2012), and the findings also confirmed that "Many students in GSoE were teachers working in educational institution".

2. About the top 10 learning difficulties in ED5012 English Proficiency course.

The Official Guide to the New TOEFL iBT (2009) listed10 key academic skills for TOEFL iBT success included "Making inferences, Identifying and using main ideas and details, Skimming and scanning, Using context clues, Paraphrasing, Using detailed examples, Identifying and using rhetorical structures, Comparing and contrasting, Identifying and using cohesive devices" and so on. While, the top 10 learning difficulties found by this study were involved in all listening, reading, speaking and writing areas. Among them, the learning difficulties such as "Making inferences in reading, Skimming and Scanning; Paraphrasing; Summarizing, Contrast question", were also acknowledged the academic skills that were listed by ETS.

3. About the students' learning progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in ED5012 English Proficiency course.

This study found that there were significant differences of students' learning progresses in listening, reading, speaking and writing areas in ED5012 English Proficiency course. The result revealed that students' learning progresses descended from areas of Speaking, Writing, Listening and Reading. Since AU employs English as the official medium of instruction for all the programs, and all the courses at Graduate School of Education (GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand**,** were taught in English, which to a great extent helped improve students' current speaking learning abilities. Therefore, students speaking skills were developed rapidly with very obvious progress. And since the students also needed to write a lot report, projects for each course that they registered, their writing abilities were easily improved the same as their listening skills. As for the reading abilities, the students study in education major were more confident in reading task in the area of Arts, Education and human being parts. But in ED5012 English Proficiency course, reading section was similar to TOEFL reading materials that may involve topics from Life Science, Physical Science, and Social Science, so many students' progress were slowly.

An interview of students was conducted by the researcher after the data analysis. Most interviewed students were reported, that their speaking and writing learning progress can improved quickly in a short, because they can use some model that they learned from the writing section into speaking part, which indicated TOEFL speaking and writing can be somehow related in the teaching and learning. This was actually proved by a recent factor-analytic study of a similar test (the TOEFL iBT) by Sawaki, Stricker, and Oranje (2008), in which the correlation (r =.71) suggested relatively highly related, speaking and writing factors.

4. About the differences of students' learning progresses according to their demographic factors at Graduate School of Education (GSoE), Assumption University of Thailand.

From the findings, it revealed that fulltime students had more learning progresses than the part-time working students; and than those who work full-timely but not as teachers. This may result from a fact that fulltime students had more time on their studies. But as for part-time working students, fulltime workers as teachers and fulltime workers but not as teachers, no significant differences of students' learning progresses were found by this study.

This result also acknowledged by the researcher' another study in 2012, "A Study on Students' Learning Styles, Learning Difficulties and Satisfaction at Graduate School of Education, Assumption University of Thailand" , it was also found that the fulltime students feel more satisfied compared with the part-time or fulltime working students because their progress was more and easily achieved compare with the working students.

A famous international organization called "idealist" had discussed the possibility and challenges of working and studying fulltime in their webpage. According to their discussion, the biggest challenge for graduate students who work and study full time together might be from time management, since they had to follow the graduate school class schedules, complete many out-of-the-classroom requirements, such as field research, practical experience components, or group projects where different students may have different schedules.

Recommendations

From the study findings, there were several recommendations for ED 5012 Course at GSoE to practice in the future, namely:

1. Since there are so many international students learning at GSoE, and the teaching and learning are in English, GSoE should use "English Only" policy so as to let the students understand the difference cultures and help develop their English skills quickly.
2. Since most GSoE students are working and studying at the same time, GSoE should concern the students' need, the instructor should provide more office hours during the evening time (after they finished their work) or weekends for help students for more progress in many areas.
3. Moreover, GSoE should provide more opportunities in the class or through students' seminars to help students with reading, and train the students' academic English writing.
4. In GSoE, ED 5012 Course should also conduct some similar studies to see more of students' needs, learning feedbacks, and satisfactions. And if possible to invite some outside speakers to the class to teach, share and guide the students who are really weak in English to improve their English proficiency.
5. A future study can interview the excellent students and survey the learning strategies concerning on how to deal with the possible learning difficulties and improve English proficiency rapidly.
6. Studies of students' satisfaction of ED 5012 course at GSoE can be continuously conducted with more concerns on its relationship between the students satisfaction and learning progress.

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Identifying Politeness Strategies in Research Articles: A Corpus-based Study

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Abstract

This corpus-based study investigates politeness strategies used in thirty-six research articles in the fields of applied linguistics, educational technology, and economics. The analysis centers on the use of positive and negative politeness strategies in each research article section as a means of providing insight into the teaching of academic and research writing.

Key Words: academic writing, face-threatening act, politeness, research article, research section

I. Introduction

Concern about politeness strategies used in research articles (RAs) has increased over recent decades. The purpose of an RA is to present the results of a study and to make claims or contradict previous theories or beliefs. Criticizing or questioning empirical evidence or existing theories may be interpreted as impolite if not expressed in an acceptable manner. Such statements can intimidate face-images or can be seen as face-threatening acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Moreover, Grice (1975) in explaining his Cooperative Principle points out that successful communication depends not only on what is expressed but also how politely it is expressed. Unless the reader and the writer are willing to accept mutual differences; defensiveness, criticism or conflict may arise during the reading/writing processes. When making claims, criticizing, speculating or asserting empirical evidence, writers should use politeness strategies to show that they are aware of the different status and roles. Moreover, Hyland (1999) states that there is often more than one interpretation for a given piece of data. Therefore, research writers should employ politeness strategies when making their claims since any statement the writers claim to be true requires the ratification of the readers. In other words, to gain acceptance from the authority in their fields, writers should use several strategies aimed at persuading the authority of the truth of their claims.

Over recent decades, concern about the use of politeness strategies in scientific writing has increased. Several studies have been conducted to investigate politeness strategies used by research writers when presenting factual information along with writers' personal opinions and when interacting with readers (Getkham, 2011; Gil-Salom & Soler-Monreal, 2009; Harwood, 2005; Hunston, 1994; Hyland, 2001; Myers, 1989, 1992; Skelton, 1997, Walko, 2007). However, to the best of my knowledge, research studies quantitatively investigating the use of politeness strategies in RAs both across disciplines and across sections have been scarce. To this end, I attempt to elucidate politeness strategies most commonly used in RAs and to account statistically for their occurrence as well as to explore whether differences exist in the use of positive and negative politeness strategies across RA sections and across disciplines.

Corpus and Method

The corpus consisted of 36 RAs randomly drawn from applied linguistics, educational technology, and economics journals published in the year 2009. The reason for selecting these three journals is that the journals are well-known and influential international journals based on the ranking of ISI Citation Reports (2009).

II. Data Analysis

Statistical Treatment of the Data

The descriptive statistics was used to find the averages of the total positive and total negative strategies in the whole corpus, the average of the occurrence of politeness strategies at macro and micro levels across research sections and across journal titles. The paired sample t-test was used to determine the differences in the use of positive and negative politeness strategies in the whole corpus and in each research section. The ANOVA test and the Pos hoc test were used to determine the differences in the use of positive politeness strategies across RA sections and across journals in the three disciplines.

III. Results, Discussions and Conclusions

IV.1 Most Commonly Used Politeness Strategies

IV.1.1 Positive Politeness Strategies

Writers used positive politeness strategies to minimize the distance between writer and reader. The most commonly used positive politeness strategy was the first strategy "*claiming common ground*". As indicated by Myers (1989) research writers use several strategies to show positive politeness such as strategic use of modifiers assuming common ground. In this study, the first sub-strategy "*claiming common views, attitudes and opinions"* is more commonly used than the second sub-strategy "*creating rapport*". In this sub-strategy the highest incidence occurred in the use of certainty adjectives, followed by speculative expressions and modifiers. The following sentences show how positive politeness strategies were used. For example, writers used certainty adjectives to persuade readers to join the argument by presenting certain views (as seen in 1 to 3).

(1) However, it is also *clear* that an L1/L2 comparison alone does not provide an adequate basis for predicting whether learners will find a given language structure easy or difficult to master. (Introduction AJAE 7)

(2) The use of the case study approach is appropriate in this instance because the present study used a small sample size to explore situations where there is no *clear* or single set of outcomes, and to identify problems of practice by providing a holistic account of the phenomenon under investigation. (Method BJET 5)

(3) Another *obvious* limitation is the use of strong functional forms used for the demand and cost functions. (Discussion AJAE 5)

In addition, alternative or speculative expressions were used to show solidarity and involvement with readers. Writers assumed that readers shared the idea behind what they were claiming or the information that the writers might be criticizing. (as seen in 4-6).

(4) To mimic the strategy followed by such literature, estimation is also performed using ML under the *assumption* that the errors defined by (10) and (11) are jointly normally distributed. (Method AJAE 6)

(5) Unlike approaches to grammar that emphasize the acquisition of syntactic rules or processing procedures that are independent of the meaning of the individual lexical items in an utterance, construction-based approaches *assume* that form and meaning are linked and that constructions are acquired through an item-based process, often driven by the syntactic patterns associated with lexical verbs. (Introduction MLJ 9)

(6) Although it is unclear whether one group spent more time engaging in these post-class conversations than the other, it is reasonable to *speculate* that fluency gains in either group could have been influenced by this unaccounted variable. (Discussion MLJ 5)

In addition to speculative expressions, certainty adjectives are commonly used and the highest incidence of this device is in the Discussion section (as seen in 7). These sentences show that the arguments are generally accepted by authorities in the fields.

(7) It is *clear* that e-learning is a growing and important *part* of student experiences of learning at a university internationally. (Discussion BJTE 9)

In addition to use of the first sub-strategy, writers used the second sub-strategy "*creating rapport*" including emotional responses, rhetorical questions, and imperatives. To show solidarity writers express emotion toward their research results (as seen in 8).

(8) *Interestingly*, learners with low self-regulation skills did not benefit significantly by the partially learner-generated mapping, contrary to the intention of the treatment design: the original assumption was that partially learner-generated concept mapping would help learners with low self-regulation more because it combines the advantages of a midlevel of generativity and a predeveloped structure of an expert's schema that reduces learners' cognitive overload. (Discussion BJTE 8)

Writers also used imperatives to make readers feel closer to the research by asking them to do something (as seen in 9-10).

(9) To see how wide this uniform distribution is, *note that* for the distribution of family net worth for all U.S. farm households in 2004, the ratio of the 95% quantile (= \$2.36 million) to the 10% quantile (= \$150 thousand) is only 15.7 (Economic Research Service 2008). **(**AJAE Method6**)**

(10) In our study, even though the opportunity for cheating in OBOW was ranked slightly higher on this occasion (the reverse being true in the pilot study), the difference is small and, at 0.2, the smallest difference registered of all the dimensions being considered (*see table 1*). (Results BJET 3)

Rhetorical questions are also used to create rapport (as seen in 11).

(11) *What about* the use of historical experience, knowledge of institutions, and professional judgment as part of the process that produces Applied Economics? *How about* including the use of "economic intuition" in the mix? I would argue that all of these aspects of knowledge and approaches to analysis belong in the realm of Applied Economics. (Discussion AJAE 10)

With reference to the second strategy "*showing that writer and reader are cooperators*", the inclusive pronoun "we" and its related case are mostly used in the Discussion and the Introduction sections. In this study, the use of this pronoun conveyed the idea that readers were perceived as colleagues or as fellow researchers and the writers want to reduce the gap between writer and reader (Harwood, 2005; Li & Gi 2009) and bring readers into the text (Hyland, 2002, 2005, 2008). This can be seen in 12.

(12) This is all the more remarkable if *we* consider that all of the test stimuli in this task had simple, affirmative structures and straightforward rhetoric and comprised high-frequency vocabulary items. (Discussion MLJ10)

IV.1.2 Negative Politeness Strategies

The highest occurrence in this strategy is the second strategy "s*howing you don't want to impose*". As might be expected, in this strategy, the passive voice without an agent is most commonly used in all four sections but the highest incidence is in the Method section. The finding agrees with the notion that in the Method section the writer tries to reduce his presence and to pay more attention on the procedures. To do this the passive voice without an agent were frequently used. This also suggests that research writing is very impersonal (as seen in 1-2).

(1) To analyze the impact of making futures available to adopters, a futures availability scenario *is defined* as one in which they can costlessly hedge using futures contracts. (Method AJAE 1)

(2) Unless games *are designed* specifically as curriculum resources, or else considerable support is provided for post-play reflection, relating experiences of play to formal education is problematic.(Discussion BJTE 6)

With regard to the first strategy "*being tentative by hedging*", modals, modifiers, and tentative verbs, as might be expected, are most commonly used in the Discussion section. This finding is consistent with previous works (Burrough-Boenisch,2005; Falahati 2009; Getkham, 2011; Lau, 1999;Myer, 1989; Salager-Meyer, 1994;Varttala,1999). According to Hyland (1999), the Discussion section contains mainly interpretations or tentative propositions for the research results. Research writers need to gain acceptance for their claims from the authority in their fields and use several strategies aimed at persuading the authority of the truth of their claims. In so doing, politeness strategies are mostly used to mitigate claims or denials of claims (Hyland, 1996). It is obvious that the writers in this study used the first negative politeness strategy to present the findings and seek to establish their importance in Discussion sections (Hyland, 1999) as a means of gaining ratification for claims from a powerful peer group (Hyland 1996:434), as a means of showing politeness (Myers, 1989; Salager-Meyer, 1994)) and as face-saving devices (Halliday, 1994).

The use of hedging devices as a means to express politeness suggests that research writing is very conventional (as seen in 3).

(3) Another *possible* explanation for students' perceived interest in grammar teaching *might* be an experienced disconnect between teaching and testing. (Discussions BJTE 8)

With regard to the third strategy "*the use of personalization to attribute all responsibility*", personal subjects followed by performative verbs are most commonly used in all four sections with the highest incidence in the Discussion section (as seen in 4).

(4) *We believe* that this inconsistency that marks all textbooks to some extent is not due to ignorance of or inattention to sociolinguistic concerns (prefaces demonstrated awareness of these aspects and several of the textbook authors are renowned sociolinguists). (Discussion MLJ 12)

In conclusion, it should be noted that on the average, negative politeness strategies and specially impersonality devices and hedges are the most common strategies used by writers of RAs. This suggests that research writing is very impersonal and limited by convention. The use of politeness strategies suggested that writing and reading RAs are interactive where politeness strategies play a very vital role.

IV.2 Differences in the Use of Politeness Strategies across RA sections

Differences in the use of politeness strategies across RA sections are discussed in two parts: positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies.

IV.2.1 Differences in the Use of Positive Politeness Strategies

Although the results showed that positive politeness strategies were most frequently used in the Introduction section, at macro level, statistical differences in the use of the positive strategies and sub-strategies were not found across research sections. However, at the micro level, when examining the devices used in each strategy, results of the ANOVA test revealed differences in the use of two devices in the first sub-strategy including certainty adjectives such as the use of *clear, obvious, certain, sure, definite, etc*.($P<.05$) and modifiers such as *an interesting case, an unexpected issue, etc.* ($P=.001$) as well as the use of imperatives in the second sub-strategy ($P<.05$) but the multiple comparisons revealed that differences across sections occurred only in the use of modifiers. This finding indicates that writers in this study most frequently used stance adjectives and adverbs or intensifiers to show their feelings and personal attitudes in the Introduction section.

Though the multiple comparisons did not yield significant differences across sections in the use of the other two devices (certainty adjectives and imperatives), it is worth mentioning the use these two devices. The most frequently used certainty adjectives in the Results and the Discussion sections suggesting that in these two sections, writers in this study used certainty adjectives as explicit devices to address to shared background knowledge in their claims (Gil-Salom & Soler-Monreal, 2009). In addition, the most frequently used imperatives in the Results section suggesting that in the Results section writers usually tell readers where to find additional information when they present the results (Hyland, 1996, 1999).

IV.2.2 Differences in the Use of Negative Politeness Strategies

With reference to the negative politeness strategies, highly significant differences occur in the use of the first strategy "*being tentative by hedging*" (modals, modifiers, tentative verbs) and the second strategy "*showing that you don't want to impose*" (impersonal constructions1 and 2). These findings are consistent with Walko's study (2007) in that both hedging and impersonality were most frequently used as negative politeness strategies. However, the multiple comparisons revealed that significant differences occurred in the use of modal verbs (between D and I, between D and R), in the use of modifiers (between D and I, between D and M, between D and R) and in the use of tentative verbs (between R and I, between R and M, between D and I, between D and R). These findings suggested that though empirical evidence revealed that the highest occurrences of hedging devices were similarly found in both Results and Discussion sections (e.g. Varttala, 1999), this study showed that only the use of tentative verbs was similar in these two sections. The use of the other two devices: modal verbs and modifiers were significantly different.

In addition, significant differences occurred in the use of the second strategy: impersonal construction 1- using phrases such *as these observations suggest, these results imply, this leads to the proposal, etc.*- (between I and M, between I and R, between I and D) and in the use of impersonal construction 2-using passive voice without an agent- (between M and I, between M and R, between M and D). The findings that impersonal construction 1 was used differently in the Introduction and Method sections, between Introduction and Results sections, as well as between Introduction and Discussion sections reveals that the strategic choices made by the writers allowed them to retreat to the background in the Introduction section. The findings that impersonal construction 2 was differently used between Method and Introduction sections, between Method and Results sections, as well as between Method and Discussion sections agrees with the notion that in the Method section the writer tried to reduce his presence and to pay more attention on the procedures (Hyland, 1996). In so doing, the passive voice without an agent were frequently used. This also suggests that research writing is very impersonal. The findings also indicated that the writers similarly used the second strategy in Results and Discussion sections to strategically distance themselves from the text and to objectively present findings, in a suitable style in order to persuade readers of their validity (Gil-Salom & Soler-Monreal,2009; Martinez, 2001; Myers, 1989).

IV.3 Differences in the Use of Politeness Strategies across Disciplines

Regarding cross disciplinary differences, findings that cross disciplinary differences were found in the use of positive politeness strategies but none were found in the use of negative politeness strategies suggested that the writers in these three disciplines all paid more attention to distancing or minimizing imposition.

IV.3.1 Differences in the Use of Positive Politeness Strategies

With reference to positive politeness strategies, the writers in the three disciplines used the two strategies differently ($P<.05$). The first strategy was used most often in Economics (51.88) and least often in Technology (22.38). However, in the first strategy significant difference was found only in the use of the first sub-strategy. In this sub-strategy, differences across disciplines in the use of alternative or speculative expressions was highly significant ($P<.01$). This sub-strategy was used more often in Economics (21.17) than in Technology (1.05) or in Applied Linguistics (7.07).

Though significant differences were not found in the use of the second sub-strategy "*creating rapport*", significant differences were found in the use of its devices: imperatives and emotional responses ($P<.05$). Similar to the use of alternative or speculative expressions, the use of imperatives was found more often in Economics (5.17) than in Technology (.92) or in Applied Linguistics (.88). This is also true with the use of emotional responses.

With reference to the second strategy which is used to decrease the distance between reader and writer, significant differences in the use of the inclusive pronoun "we" and its related cases were found across the three disciplines (P<.05). The use of this strategy was more frequent in Applied Linguistics (23.69) than in Economics (3.94) or Technology (9.74).

Findings indicate that cross-disciplinary variation in the use of positive politeness strategies was highly relevant since it showed that what should be included or not included depends on the different knowledge structures of different scientific communities and how researchers deal with research issues differently.

IV.3.2 Differences in the Use of Negative Politeness Strategies

Finding that significant differences across disciplines were not found in the use of negative politeness strategies especially the use of the first strategy "being tentative by hedging is consistent with Falahati (2009)'s study. However, it should be noted that the highest occurrences of total negative politeness strategies are in Applied Linguistics and the lowest occurrences are in Technology. It is obvious that the highest occurrences of the three negative politeness strategies are in Applied Linguistics whereas the lowest occurrences of the third strategy "*attributing all responsibility by personalization*" are in Technology. In addition, the writers in Technology and Applied Linguistics more frequently employed the second strategy "*showing that you don't want to impose*" by using passive voice without an agent in the Method section whereas those in Economics more frequently employed this device in the Results section. This suggested that in Technology and Applied Linguistics, the writers tried to reduce their presence and pay more attention to procedures than to the researchers (Hyland, 1996) while the writers in Economics strategically distance themselves from the text and objectively present findings, in a suitable style in order to persuade readers of their validity (Gil-Salom & Soler-Monreal, 2009; Martinez, 2001; Myers, 1989).

Conclusions

Several conclusions can be drawn from the findings of this study. First, academic/research writing is more than presenting a collection of facts. It also presents writers' views and manners (Hyland, 2005). It should be noted that Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle, especially his maxim of manner, as well as the FTA model (Brown & Levinson, 1987) play a crucial role in the research genre. Second, both positive and negative politeness strategies were employed but negative politeness strategies were more frequently used. This indicated that the writers in these three disciplines all paid more attention to mitigating imposition than to gaining approval. The impersonality devices and hedges are common strategies used by writers of RAs. Findings revealed that impersonal constructions were mostly used in the Methods, Results and Discussion sections. This suggests that research writing is very impersonal and limited by convention (Hyland, 1999). The use of hedging devices also plays an important part in RAs; especially in the Introduction, Results, and Discussion sections where writers mitigate the imposition on readers and reduce writers' commitment to the truth of their claims. Therefore, we can conclude that the distribution of these devices is independent of the rhetorical function of each section. Third, certain disciplines such as economics favor the maintenance of distance between the reader and the writer since the inclusive "we"- *showing that reader and writer are cooperators*- was less frequently used than the other two disciplines. Applied linguistics and technology were more impersonal as impersonality devices were more frequently used than economics. In conclusion, discourse choices are socially grounded and influenced by the different contextual and social features of researchers' disciplines.

Recommendations

Given the findings from this study, the following recommendations can be drawn for classroom practice and for further research.

Recommendations for Instruction

1. The findings of this study support the assertion that professional research writers employ several politeness strategies when writing research articles. The use of these strategies depends primarily on the functional properties and the textual variation. Findings may inform course designers of genre structures relevant to research or academic writing curriculums. For example, when developing teaching materials, instructors should include several devices, each identified for particular functions, such as reporting established knowledge, politely making comments, and cautiously framing claims.
2. For non-native English speaking students, training in awareness of different kinds of politeness strategies as well as pointing out the relationships among functions and language would enhance their ability to acquire skills in academic writing.
3. Teachers of EAP and ESP should guide students to use available rhetorical options for interactional purposes.

4. It is possible to provide a template for structuring academic writing. This template may be built up from the exemplary quotations in the text, to provide assistance to educators and less experienced writers.
5. The corpus can be used as an authentic example of RAs. Teachers can make suggestions to students as they research the language using a data-driven, inductive approach (Beatty, 2003). With teacher encouragement, this process can both stimulate students' curiosity and encourage them to actively and independently engage with the language. Incorporating this actual strategy into the curriculum may help students read efficiently and to eventually write this style of discourse in order to increase the chance of having their papers accepted for publication.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. More studies should be conducted to enhance greater understanding of politeness strategies used in academic writing, especially research writing. Those studies should include research articles in both soft science and hard science.
2. Future research may investigate all politeness strategies such as giving gifts, off – record etc.
3. It may be interesting to conduct a meta–analysis of the evolution of the use of first person pronouns in research article sections during 2000-2010.
4. Future research may investigate politeness strategies in the discussion and recommendation sections of dissertations or theses across disciplines.

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An Analysis of Noun and Verb Translation from English into Thai

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Abstract

An Analysis of Noun and Verb Translation from English into Thai. This research analyses English noun and verb translation into Thai. The data are from 500 randomly selected English-to-Thai translation pages from different fields published during 2005-2011. Pattern of translation founded are nouns translated into nouns, nouns translated into nouns plus modification, nouns translated into verbs, and nouns translated into adjectives. From the analysis of verbs, the patterns are verbs translated into verbs, verbs translated into verbs plus modification, and verbs translated into nouns. In the second part of the research, five professional translators, who were randomly selected, were interview on their options and practices in noun and verb translation. The results of the interviews conform with the analysis of the data, and confirm the theories of translation which emphasize the meaning rather than the form of the language.

Keyword: English to Thai translation, Grammatical and Translation, Noun and Verb Translation.

Background of the Study

Skewing of classification in the use of language refers to the process when deep structure (the level of meaning) is manifested into the actual usage or surface structure of language. (Larson, 1998) In the deep structure things (nouns) events (verbs) attributes (adjectives, adverbs) are in their true forms.

For example, in the deep structure:

- Someone will come. Someone will <u>help</u> you.

<u>Help</u> is an event, so represented by a verb. In the surface structure, these same meaning may be expressed and represented by a different form as:

- <u>Help</u> will come.

Help is skewed from a verb into a noun in the surface structure through the process of skewing.

Another example:

- Someone destroyed the city → the destruction of the city

The verb destroy is nominalized into the noun destruction.

In language usage, a speaker can choose many forms of the surface structure from the same deep structure to suit the communication situation.

Larson (1998) gives the example of a person, wishing to express his desire to sit in a vacant space, may say something like:

- Is this place taken?
- May I sit here?
- Is there someone sitting here?
- Would you mind if I sit here?

Skewing of classifications is natural and occurs all the time to create creativity in language usage. In translation a verb in one language may be translated as a noun or adjective or adverb in another language. This is because different people may view the world or focus on different things in life. English into Thai translation, especially noun and verb translation may shade more light into the skewing nature and clarify the actual usage of skewing in English into Thai translation.

Purposes of the Study

1. To find the forms of noun and verb translation from English into Thai.

2. To collect examples of noun and verb translation from English into Thai in order to describe Thai usage of nouns and verbs which could be influenced by English.

3. To discuss the characteristics of translation choices when translating noun and verb.

4. To find out the opinions of Thai translators concerning their techniques in noun and verb translation

Methodology

I. Data are from 500 pages of randomly selected English-to-Thai translation works published during 2005 to 2011. The different types included are business documents, textbooks, academic works, newspapers, travelling and entertainment, novel, and movie subtitles. Examples of English to Thai noun and verb translation were recorded side by side, analyzed, categorized according to their types, and presented in the form of tables.

II. In the second part of the research, five randomly selected professional translators were interviewed on their noun and verb translation techniques and on their opinions on the skewing of classification, especially on noun and verb translation.

The Results with examples:

Nouns Translation

1. Nouns translated into nouns

English	Literal Thai
Check the daily report	Check the daily report
They arrived at the rich man's house	They arrived at the rich man's house

2. Nouns translated into noun + modification

English	Literal Thai
Some supporters caused the evacuation of patients from the hospital	Supporters caused the move of the patients out of the hospital.
The demonstrators demanded the government to step down	Those who came to form groups against the government demanded the government to step down.

3. Nouns translated into verbs

English	Literal Thai
there won't be any changes	it won't change anything
Honda resumed production in late March.	Honda produced again in late March.

Verbs Translation

1. Verbs translated into Verb

English	Literal Thai
the attack occurred at 1.30 am.	the attack occurred at 1.30 am.
He explained that water consumption would be greater	He explained that water consumption would be greater

2. Verbs translated into verb + modification

English	Literal Thai
how much they had displeased god	they caused the god to be irritated.
to wipe away every tear from every eye	wipe tear from every eye to completely dry

3. Verbs translated into nouns

English	Literal Thai
Did she show you where I live?	Did she take you to my place?
It won't change anything.	There won't be any change.

4. Verbs translated into adjectives

English	Literal Thai
The plant dried up from the summer heat.	There are dry plants from the summer heat.
Her health deteriorated with the growing age.	She has worse health because of old age.

Result of the interview with professional translators

Five translators were interviewed on their opinions on noun and verb translation. Most of them try to translate by keeping the source language grammatical forms first e.g. nouns to noun verbs to verbs. However, the adjustment or the skewing of classification come when the resulting translation lack the naturalness of the receptor language or when ambiguity occur. They all agree that keeping the source language grammatical forms is the easiest and most straight forward way of translation, while they are all aware that skewing of classification is also natural and sometimes necessary to achieve accurate, clear, and natural translation.

Recommendations

1. Results of the study can be used to teach translation both in the theoretical and the practical parts.

2. Examples of the translation from the data can be used in Thai language description since some of them are influenced or interfered by English.

3. Thai language description can make use of translation research, especially English-Thai translation since it can explain and describe Thai language changes.

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