

Proceedings of ICLC 2013

The 5th International Conference on Language and Communication December 12 - 13, 2013 Bangkok, Thailand MEDIA MANANA AND A THLOSOPHY DAAS ASSOCIETY AND A THE AN

LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION

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"Innovative Inquiries and Emerging Paradigms in Language, Media and Communication"

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The International Conference on Language and Communication "Innovative Inquiries and Emerging Paradigms in Language, Media and Communication"

Chief Editor. Dr. Hugo Yu-Hsiu Lee (PhD, Indiana University, USA 2010) Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics

> The Graduate School of Language and Communication The National Institute of Development Administration

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Preface

Dear Colleagues,

The Proceedings of International the Conference on Language and Communication 2013 (Proceedings of ICLC 2013) is an internationally peerreviewed conference proceedings. The Proceedings of ICLC 2013 aims to shape all related interdisciplinary fields of inquiries being characterized as "the Innovative Inquiries and **Emerging Paradigms** in Language. Media and Communication" (The theme of ICLC 2013) and seek innovative research issues related to language, linguistics, applied linguistics, social linguistics (sociology of language), language education (language teaching, language learning and language assessment evaluation), and (traditional media and new media), and communication.

Bangkok, Thailand Hugo Yu-Hsiu Lee March 18, 2014

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Acknowledgement of the Help from You

DATE: 19 March 2014

TO: Contributors of Articles published in the ICLC 2013 Proceedings

FROM: The Organizing Committee of the ICLC 2013 The National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA) Bangkok, Thailand

We want you to know how much we appreciate your help as the Contributors of the ICLC 2013 Proceedings

Thank you!



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PHANITNART Pharakith is the founder and an executive producer at Happy Invader Co., Ltd., an advertising company specialised in advertising photography, retouching, viral clip and TVC production, post-production house and computer graphics. She has over 10 years of experience in the field of advertising, having worked in various companies, namely Lowe Thailand Co., Ltd., U5 Opportunities Knocks Thailand, and Batey Thailand Co., Ltd. Phanitnart recently completed her Master's degree in 2013 from Bangkok University International College, in the field of Advertising. Her interests include photography, photography techniques, cameras and photographic equipment. In the future, she plans to open a photographic studio, offering motion picture and still life photography to support the ever increasing popularity of digital TV and to expand her existing business, providing clients with one-stop service.

PORNAPIT Darasawang is the Director of Studies of the PhD programme in Applied Linguistics at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi. She obtained her Ph.D. in TESOL from the University of Edinburgh. Her areas of interest are learner autonomy, learner training, and motivation in language learning. She has published widely in journals and books in these areas.

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SANON Chimmanee: Assistant Professor Sanon Chimmanee received B. Eng. degree in Electrical Engineering, Rangsit University, Thailand in 1996 and M.S. degree in Telecommunications Science and Computer Network Engineering, South Bank University, London in 1998 and Ph.D. degree in Sirindhorn International Institute of Technology (SIIT), Thammasat University, Thailand in 2006. He is now with Rangsit University, Thailand as Assistant Professor in Faculty of Information Technology. He is also Director of MSITM-online program.

SEAN Henry San Buenaventura is an instructor at Bangkok University, Bangkok, Thailand. He teaches undergraduate courses for Business English majors and Communications Arts majors at the international program. He also introduced and is currently supervising a tutoring program at the same international college. He has participated as a presenter in the 5th International Conference in Language and Communication (December, 2012) with the topic, Online Debate on Calls for Independence: A Look At The Nature Of Arguments For And Against An Independent Scotland; and the 4th International Conference in Language and Communication (December, 2013) with the topic, Rhetorical Visions of Territorial Sovereignty: An Application of Structural Concepts of Symbolic Convergence Theory in Maritime Disputes Between Asia Pacific Nations, both Iclc2013-xxi held at the National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA); and at the Research Abstracts and Creative Works (January, 2011) at Silpakorn University. Prior to entering the academic field he had acquired work experience across various industries in different cities including, media (marketing and events at Nation Multimedia Group, Bangna-trad Rd, Bangkok, years 2003-2005); hospitality (marketing and sales at Royal Cliff Resort, Pattaya City, year 2006) and government (trade industry at CITEM, a Philippine government agency, Manila, year 2007). He has had training in telesales at HSBC bank in Manila and computer programming atSingapore-headquartered Informatics Institute, Bangkok.

SHIRIN Abbas is the first recipient of the FCO (UK Govt) sponsored British Chevening Scholarship for Young Indian Print Journalists in 1999 from Uttar Pradesh. Prof Shirin Abbas, Founding Dean, Journalism & Mass Communication, Shri Ramswaroop Memorial University, has studied Journalism at the prestigious School of Communication, Design & Media, University of Westminster, London. During this stint she has also interned at The Irish Times, Dublin. She has written commissioned articles for the same and The Sunday Times, Birmingham, Khaleej Times, Gulf News, International travel magazine Indes and New Global Indian. She has recently been empanelled as a Consultant with UP State Aids Control Society (UPSACS) and has done several documentations for leading International and National NGOs. She has presented a report on the Status and Role of Indian Women at a seminar in Tehran in 1992. Ms Abbas was invited to be part of a delegation of Indian Journalists to NATO headquarters, Brussels at the height of the Kosovo war and has attended a workshop on Improving India-EU Partnership in Brussels in June 1999. Ms Shirin Abbas began her career as a journalist in 1987 with The National Herald, going on to work at an international news agency (IRNA) and most leading national English dailies-The Hindustan Times, The Times of India, India Today Group and The Indian Express from where she resigned in 2008 as Features Editor of The Indian Express to set up her own PR & Development Consultancy Mediacom. Through this she has undertaken several challenging assignments for the development sector for UPSACS-UNICEF 2010, PACS India ,FHI 360, HLFPPT, PATH (UP) CARE etc. She has been in the field of Media Education since 2004 and has taught at Wigan & Leigh College, Whistling Woods School of Communication (Mumbai) and Entertainment & Media Development Institute (EMDI Mumbai). She has attended and presented papers at several national and international conferences, most recently at the Graduate School of Language and Communication, NIDA, Bangkok, Thailand in December 2013, Christ University Bangalore in February 2014 and Jagran Lakecity University, Bhopal in April 2014. Her research interests include Communication & New Media, Development Communication, Multiculturalism and ethnic strife, Gender Studies and Films.

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STUART J. Birkby, Ph.D., is a full-time lecturer in the Institute for English-Language Education at the Hua Mak campus of Assumption University in Bangkok, Thailand. He received his doctoral degree in foreign-language education at The Ohio State University in America. Besides teaching English to international students in the United States, he has also taught in Mainland China, South Korea, and Taiwan. Additionally, while in Taiwan, he carried out his dissertation research, which was a historical overview of how English became such an integral part of contemporary Taiwan society. His most recent research has focused on the use of the automatic language growth method for teaching foreign languages as well as the use of classic literature (e.g., Shakespeare) to enhance English-language speaking.

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YOKO Asari is currently a Research Associate at Waseda University, School of International Liberal Studies, Japan. She is also a PhD student at the Graduate School of Education at Waseda University where she obtained her MA. Ed. She is interested in exploring the role of corrective feedback in the field of second language acquisition. Her recent studies have focused on recasts and how different factors influence the efficacy of this type of corrective feedback.

YOSHIMURA Masahiro is a Lecturer in the College of English Studies, Setsunan University, Japan. He has a Ph.D. in English literature, Kansai University, Japan. His research interests include English literature and English education utilizing literature. He has many papers in the field of English literature especially Shakespeare, including 'The Hidden Code in Venus and Adonis' (2012, Ronsyu 45). Also, some English textbooks for college students that he edited and an English-Japanese dictionary that he partly wrote have been published in Japan. His research is funded with a support from Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan.

Hosted by: The Graduate School of Language and Communication
 The National Institute of Development Administration, Bangkok, Thailand



The Official Day 1 Keynote Speech Session



The 5th Annual International Conference for Language and Communication *"Innovative Inquires and Emerging Paradigms in Language, Media and Communication"*

Date & Time:

Thursday, December 12th @ 09.45 AM – 11.30 AM

Venue:

Sayam. Bldg., 2nd Floor Auditorium, The National Institute of Development Administration

118 Seri-Thai Rd. Klongchan Bangkapi Bangkok Thailand 10240

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<u>Warmest welcome by</u> Jesse Hearns-Branaman, Ph.D. Asst Prof. Hugo Yu-Hsiu Lee, Ph.D. CO-CHAIRS OF CONFERENCE COMMITTEE

RETHINKING LANGUAGE POLICY AND PLANNING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

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THE GLOBAL LANGUAGE ECOLOGY

- The world's largest 9 languages each have 100+ million speakers (Mandarin, Spanish, English, Bengali, Hindi, Portuguese, Russian, Arabic, Japanese) and together have 2.6 billion speakers (40% of world total)
- The largest 20 languages have 3.2 billion speakers (50% of world total)
- 4% of world's languages are spoken by 96% of world's population, this means that only 4% of world's population speaks 96% of world's languages so there are many languages that are very small (50% have less than 10,000 speakers, 25% have less than 1,000)

Source: Austin (2011)

SOME MAJOR PUBLICATIONS ON LPP

Language Policy by Spolsky 2004 Language Policy edited by Spolsky, 2012 Introduction to Language Policy: Theory & Method edited by Ricento, 2006 Ethnography and Language Policy edited by McCarty, 2011 Language Policy: Hidden Agendas and New Approaches by Shohamy, 2006 Motivation in Language Planning and Policy by Ager, 2001 Language Policy by Johnson, 2013 Language Policies in Education: Critical Issues edited by Tollefson, 2013 Language Planning from Practice to Theory, Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997 Language Policy for the Multilingual Classroom by Hélot & Laoire 2011 Language Policy and Language Conflict in Afghanistan and Its Neighbors: The Changing Politics of Language Choice edited by Schiffman, 2010 Linguistic Culture and Language Policy by Schiffman, 2012 Paradigm Shift in Language Planning and Policy: Game-Theoretic Solutions By Koffi, 2012 Language Planning and Language Policy: East Asian Perspectives, Chen & Gottlieb, 2013 Language Planning and Policy in Native America: History, Theory, Praxis By McCarty, 2013 Language Loyalty, Language Planning, and Language Revitalization: Recent Writing and Reflections From Joshua A. Fishman edited by Hornberger & Pütz, 2006

WHAT IS LANGUAGE POLICY? Language Policy is:

(1) what government does officially – through legislation, court decisions, executive action, or other means – to (a) determine how languages are used in public contexts,
(b) cultivate language skills needed to meet national priorities, or (c) establish the rights of individuals or groups to learn, use, and maintain languages.

(2) Government regulation of its own language use, including steps to facilitate clear communication, train and recruit personnel, guarantee due process, foster political participation, and provide access to public services, proceedings, and documents. (James Crawford's Website)

MORE DEFINITIONS OF LANGUAGE POLICY

"A useful first step in distinguishing between the three components of the language policy of a speech community: (1) its language practices – the habitual pattern of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire; (2) its language beliefs or ideology – the beliefs about language and language use; and (3) any specific efforts to modify or influence that practice by any kind of language intervention, planning, or management." (Spolsky 2004: p. 5).

"I have characterized language policy as a complex sociocultural process [and as] modes of human interaction, negotiation, and production mediated by relations of power; that is the way in which they express normative claims about legitimate and illegitimate language forms and uses, thereby governing language statuses and uses." (McCarty 2011b: 8; cited in Johnson 2013, p. 6).

TYPES OF LANGUAGE POLICY

Types of Language Policies:

Covert policies are *de facto*, implicit, without necessarily having any official written support in legal documents

Overt policies are de jure, explicit, officially and legally defined

Top-Down, "macro-level policy developed by some governing or authoritative body or person"

Bottom-Up, "micro-level or grassroots generated policy for and by the community that it impacts" (Johnson 2013: p.10)

WHAT IS LANGUAGE PLANNING?

"The normative work of language academies and committees, all forms of what is commonly known as language cultivation, and all proposals for language reform or standardization." (Haugen 1969: 267)

"[T]he organized pursuit of solutions to language problems, usually at the national level." (Fishman 1971c cited by Karam 1974: 105)

"Language planning may be thought of as the management of linguistic innovation." (Karam 1974: 118)

"Language planning refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure [corpus], or functional allocation [status] of their language codes." (Cooper 1989: 45)

Language Planning can be alternately known as:

Language Engineering

Language Development

Language Cultivation

CATEGORIES OF LANGUAGE PLANNING

Status Planning – *uses* of language in various social/functional domains or contexts. **Corpus Planning** – *forms* of language (writing system, lexicon, grammar, discourse) **Acquisition Planning** – *users* of language (increasing numbers of speakers through education, intergenerational transmission, etc. [home, school and community])

FUNCTIONAL DOMAINS OF LANGUAGE USE

- Official / government
- Legal/court/judiciary
- Wider communication
- Business
- Group
- Science & technology
- Academic events
- Social events
- Domestic domain (home)
- Pop culture
- Virtual spaces
- Tourism

ONLINE RESOURCES

Language Policy and Planning, and Language Revitalization around the World <u>https://www.facebook.com/pages/Language-Policy-and-Planning-and-Language-Revitalization-around-the-World/162961040413548</u>

Association for Teaching and Learning Indigenous Languages of Latin America on Facebook

https://www.facebook.com/pages/Association-for-Teaching-and-Learning-Indigenous-Languages-of-Latin-America/172419129529535

Association for Teaching and Learning Indigenous Languages of Latin America – Main website <u>http://www.iu.edu/~atlilla/</u>

LANGUAGE REVITALIZATION INIATIVES WORLDWIDE

- Programa de Revitalización, Fortalecimiento y Desarrollo de las Lenguas Indígenas Nacionales (PINALI) Instituto Nacional de Lenguas Indígenas de México
- University of Victoria, Canada
- El Programa de estudios de lenguas indígenas en la Universidad de McGill en Canadá
- Los nidos de lengua de Australia
- Los nidos lingüísticos '*Te Kohanga Reo*') de Nueva Zelanda para vigorizar la lengua y la cultura maorí
- La lengua hawayana
- · La revitalización del navajo
- El Centro de Lengua Nativa de la Universidad de Alaska, Fairbanks en colaboración con la Fundación Doyon ha lanzado un Programa de Revitalización de lenguas a nivel regional para la preservación, desarrollo y difusión de las lenguas atabascanas.
- La revitalización de la lengua mapuche en Chile y el Guaraní en Paraguay y Bolivia
- Directorio del Programa de Lenguas del Instituto de Lenguas Indígenas de Santa Fé, Nuevo México contiene una larga lista de iniciativas de revitalizacióm de lenguas indígenas: <u>http://www.ilinative.org/share/programDirectory/programDirectory.xml</u>
- · Otros ejemplos a seguir son los esfuerzos de revitalización del irlandés, vasco, catalán

International Administration Education Mass & social media Literature Political events Religious events

Global/transnational

Education in general

Local/regional

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN AND SECOND LANGUAGE

Strategies in Scaffolding Mutual Understanding among Non-Native Speakers

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Abstract

This study explores the conceptualization of scaffolding strategies by non-native speakers to attain mutual understanding in an ELF setting. To exemplify, this paper focuses on the interaction of three non-native participants in an unsolicited talk at the Self-Access Learning Center (SALC) in one of the top and most respected universities in Thailand. The analysis drawn from extracts were transcribed and thematized accordingly to determine the scaffolding strategies that led to the interactants' mutual understanding. Inductive thematic analysis of the spoken outputs of the 'knowledgeable other', and the 'less other' were coded into three general strategies including initiative (elicitation, hint, pause, and questioning), collaborative (confirmation check, referral and repetition), and diagnostic (correction). The strategies in scaffolding mutual understanding have wide ranging implications for non-native speakers and teachers of language in the classroom.

Keywords: interaction, mutual understanding, non-native speakers, scaffolding, strategies

Introduction

Scaffolding has been widely used in various disciplines – applied linguistics, education, psychology, second language acquisition, etc. Since its inception, the main idea of a 'temporary erected structure' (Wood, 1976) that supports individuals to perform tasks that they cannot complete and gradually enables them to do it independently has been extensively researched in the classroom using one-to-one interaction (mother-child, teacher-student, tutor-tutee, peer-peer), group interaction (whole-class, peers) and mediated tools and resources (computer assisted language learning programs) (see Bruner, 1985; Puntambekar & Hmelo-Silver, 2005; Smith, van Eerde, & Bakker, 2012; Valkenburg, (2010); Walqui, 2006).

Drawing from Vygotsky's theory, this paper extends his concept of the attainment of mutual understanding among students in a naturally occurring talk outside the classroom. The limited literature in scaffolding interaction among non-native English speakers in a real world context has led this study to explore its linkage with socio-cultural relevant frameworks, which is discussed extensively, and to provide background on social interaction outside-the-classroom. In today's use of English as the world's lingua franca, we explore the use of scaffolding strategies as an aid to non-native speakers in their quest for mutual understanding.

This study analyzed naturally occurring speech from three non-native speakers currently enrolled in King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, Thailand. The aims of the study are (1) to explore the use of scaffolding in interaction among non-native speakers, and (2) to determine the scaffolding strategies employed by the interactants during the communication process by investigating the discourse acts of each participant.

The pragmatics of communication

Naturally occurring discourse has received substantial research interest over the years. Relevant to this paper are studies conducted in European and Asian settings where communications among non-native speakers are prevalent. Previous data analyzed included interactions among Asians (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Deterding, Wong & Kirkpatrick,

2008; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Kaur, 2010), classroom based studies in the UK among non-native students (Jenkins, 2000), discussions among international students across the dinner table (Meierkod, 2002), and business related phone calls among international businessmen (Haegeman, 2002).

One of the key focuses in those studies is the interactional process among the participants. Relevant to this paper are the communication strategies (CSs) used by interlocutors to "overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual thought" (Tarone, 1977: 175). In an interactional approach, "mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on meaning situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone, 1980: 419). Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Corder (1983) elaborated that when learners encounter communication problems, they turn to strategies to deal with the problems "to convey their messages and get their meaning across" (Abunawas, 2012: 179). The above concepts moved away from Chomsky's (1965) advocacy of linguistic competence to Hymes' (1966) communicative competence (see Chomsky's Generative Transformational Grammar). Accordingly, speakers need more than grammatical competence; they also need to know how to use the language appropriately within the circle of users in a particular community. Hymes' communicative competence was expanded to include language in its social context becoming known as sociolinguistic competence. Pragmatics, in its broadest sense, the study of meanings, has widened the scope of communicative competence into four components such as grammatical competence (words and rules), sociolinguistic competence (appropriateness), discourse competence (cohesion and coherence), and strategic competence (communication strategies) (see Canale and Swain, 1980). Thus, in a communication process where a message is sent, decoded and vice versa, the determinants of language use rather than only linguistic (or grammatical) knowledge are primary concerns that must be continually studied.

Among students with varying proficiency levels in Saudi Arabia, approximation (for example, long instead of tall; strange hat instead of crown) is the most frequently used strategy (see Abunawas 2012). In Thailand, Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009) categorized communication strategies employed by high ability and low ability groups of students separately. In category 1 (Risk-taking strategies), high ability students used circumlocution strategies (for example, paraphrase) compared with non-verbal strategies (for example, gestures, facial expressions, eye contact) employed by the low ability group. In category 2 (Risk-avoidance strategies), both groups frequently used message-reduction (for example, silence) and message-alteration strategies.

In other Thai studies, Luangsaengthong's (2002) most frequently CSs are approximation, paraphrasing, and circumlocution while Wannaruk (2003) identified Modification Devices in the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) process. In Japan, communication strategies used by non-native Chinese speakers in holding and retaking the floor in conversation are fillers, statement of time, back channeling, and information adding (Sato, 2010). Among Mongolian and Korean students, Watterson (2008) identified repetition "as both an indicator of, and response to, non-understanding at the level of lexical items (p. 400). While there is an abundance of CS research in various settings, authors have not agreed on a single definition yet and have used their own terminologies based on the context of their studies. Nevertheless, in its application to ELF studies, findings reveal that interlocutors "share responsibility for repairing problems" (Watterson, 2008: 400).

Non-native speakers in an ELF setting

In view of the use of English among non-native speakers, recent studies in World Englishes, which explores English as an international language (McKay, 2000) or lingua franca (Jenkins, 2000), focused on interaction between and among non-native speakers where the primary goal of communication is mutual understanding. Following the socio-historical framework, non-native speakers are those who are classified from Kachru's (1985) Outer Circle (former colonies of the American power and British Empire) and Expanding Circle (non-colonized countries by the West).

Central to the findings of research on ELF are the varying phonological features spoken by the non-native speakers (Jenkins, 2000). For instance, among Malaysians and Indians, /r/ is emphasized in *world* while Thais and Vietnamese substitute it with /l/ as in *lice*. In Jenkin's Lingua Franca Core (LFC), non-native speakers' spoken texts vary on four levels: pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary/idiom, and discourse (see Jenkins, 2003). While research showed that such phonological variations do not impede mutual understanding as negotiation among the speakers occurs, it causes difficulty of mutual understanding. For instance, UChicagoNews (2010) revealed that a speaker's foreign accent makes it hard for listeners to understand news content.

In a recent paper by Wilang and Teo (2012b) on the comprehensibility of ASEAN speakers in Kachru's Outer Circle (Bruneians, Filipinos, Malaysians, and Singaporeans) among their fellow Aseans in the Expanding Circle (Burmese, Cambodians, Indonesians, Laos, Thais, and Vietnamese), various factors were found out such as differing language backgrounds, English language proficiencies, unfamiliarity and limited exposure to a certain language, attitudes toward the speakers, among others. Despite the varying backgrounds of the non-natives, mutual understanding succeeded (Kaur, 2010; Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Matsuura, 2007; Wilang and Teo, 2012b).

Other barriers to successful communication are message overload, message complexity, cultural knowledge, social status, power relationship between the interlocutors, and those that are related to second language acquisition such as age, aptitude, gender, second language proficiency, personality, motivation, among others (Ellis, 2008). With communication seen as a dynamic and complex process, it is not enough to seek for communication strategies, but to extend research on other theoretical frameworks that complement the goal of mutual understanding in an ELF setting, specifically, Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory (SCT).

Scaffolding oral interaction

In the earlier sections of this paper, the authors suggested the need for collaboration among the interlocutors, appropriateness of used communication strategies and variations affecting the non-native speakers' perception and production of language. In a more NNS-NNS dominated use of English as an international language, it is necessary to conceptualize the use of scaffolding among non-native speakers to attain mutual understanding.

In a socio-constructivist framework, social interactions are a much needed dimension to learning when collaborating with more knowledgeable others, i.e., a teacher or more expert peer promotes learning of the less other until autonomy is attained. At the core of Vygotsky's theory is that learning is a product of mediated interactions within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). It is within this zone where collaborative process and mediation take place between the expert and the novice. Vygotsky believed that tools and signs are needed to deal with issues in the interaction process. Wood (1976) referred to it as a "temporary erected

structure" by modeling or posing questions. Thus, the term scaffolding was coined. With reference to Vygotsky, Bruner (1985) indicated that learning to know the language may be accomplished without considerable external help but learning to use the language cannot be conquered without the assistance of other factors, like a tutor. It is therefore necessary for people, even a child, to use language around them. Thus, a person wishing to become, for example, a better English speaker, must interact and cooperate with the more capable others.

Much research focused on in-class context between teacher-students, tutor-tutee, and peers. Within the teacher-students context, scaffolding was considered as instructional techniques, which consist of model, cues, prompts, hints, partial solutions, think-aloud, and direct institution. Other research has included questioning, clarifying, reformulating, suggesting and summarizing. If scaffolding strategies are tools and are made available to the interactants, "it provides the most powerful mediation tool of all" (Walqui, 2006: 161).

The constructs of the ZPD and scaffolding can be applied into the communication process of non-native speakers in an ELF setting. Puntambekar and Hmelo-Silver (2005) used scaffolding as a support for face-to-face interactions to attain understanding.

The conceptualization of this paper differs in many aspects. (1) It involves investigating the use of scaffolding strategies in a naturally occurring interaction without involving any manipulation initiated by the researcher. (2) The interaction process is limited in an ELF setting. (3) Where the goal of interaction is mutual understanding, the roles of the speakers are characterized. (4) Unlike classroom-based scaffolding research, the knowledgeable other and the less other are not pre-determined. (5) If communicative strategies "attempt to bridge the gap between the linguistic knowledge of the second language learner, and the linguistic knowledge of the target language interlocutor in real communication" (Tarone, 1981: 288), scaffolding strategies aid the interactants in their hope to attain mutual understanding.

Methods

Participants

The participants of the study are three non-native speakers currently enrolled at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT). One of the participants is a Vietnamese speaker, a second year graduate student in applied linguistics at the School of Liberal Arts (SoLA). She is a facilitator in a Let's Talk project initiated at the SoLA's Self Access Learning Center (SALC). Her duty is to initiate a talk about any topic with interested students at her given timetable at the center. In this study, she is referred to as Vn. The other participants are two freshmen undergraduate students enrolled in an engineering course. They were at SALC when Vn was on duty and volunteered to join her. Herein, they are referred to as Tm for the male participant and Tf for the female participant. In the instance where Ss is used, it means both Tf and Tm.

Let's Talk is a collaborative effort by the university to encourage students in an engineeringdominated university to practice their communication skills with other non-native speakers. Participation in the project is voluntary where students can approach an on-duty facilitator in a designated place at the SALC's lobby to talk about any topic of their choice, if not, the facilitator's choice. Participants do not need prior registration and are not obligated to accomplish anything after a talk.

Data collection

After obtaining consent from the participants, the data was collected on March 15, 2013 at the SALC's lobby. Forty minutes of Vn's conversation with Tm and Tf were recorded using the Smart Voice Recorder app. The researcher using Express Scribe personally transcribed the recording. The transcription conventions were summarized in Appendix 1.

Method of analysis

In the interaction process within the ZPD, the role of the *knowledgeable other* (KO) is as an expert or the capable other while the *less other* (LO) is the novice. Inductive analysis of the scaffolding strategies was used primarily in this study. After the transcription of the data, the researcher induced scaffolding strategies by thematizing and coding the data.

In this paper, scaffolding in mutual understanding is characterized if (1) there is evidence that one of the interactants is the knowledgeable other who employs various acts to be understood by the less other, (2) the scaffolding strategies are noticeable at the surface level of the interaction process, (3) if scaffolding is used, mutual understanding could be attained. The main indicators of non-mutual understanding are abrupt discontinuance of a talk due to misunderstanding among the interactants and their unwillingness to continue it.

In the initial coding of the interview transcript, the researcher coded the general scaffolding strategies by establishing parameters different from each specific strategy.

Results and Discussion

After coding the data, scaffolding strategies were deduced. Table 1 presents the scaffolding strategies, codes and the parameters used in the analysis of data. Following the socio-cultural framework, the role of each participant is determined and the scaffolding strategies are identified.

The general strategy of initiative is purposive in nature as the KO tends to, for example, meet the goals of the "Let's Talk" project. By hinting to the LO to understand the conversation, the topic expands to sub-topics or a complete topic shift relevant or new to the main idea of the talk. Thus, initiatives' specific strategies include elicitation, hint, pause, and questioning, predominantly used by the knowledgeable other to initiate, maintain or expand a conversation.

Meanwhile, collaborative strategy is initiated by both the KO and LO to make sure that they are referring to the same thing. This general strategy helps the speakers to become continuously engaged in their talk. Specific strategies include confirmation check, referral, and repetition used by both interlocutors to attain mutual understanding.

Scaffolding acts		Codes	Parameters
General	Specific		
strategies	strategies		
Initiative	Elicitation	I:EC	the knowledgeable other's (KO) act of inducing an
			answer from the 'less other' (LO)
	Hint	I:HN	the knowledgeable other's (KO) act of giving clues
			to the 'less other' (LO) such as giving examples
	Pause	I:PS	the interactants' act of pausing to allow cognitive
			process

Table 1: Scaffolding strategies and parameters

	Questioning	I:QS	the knowledgeable other's (KO) act of asking the less other (LO) to expand the interaction process
Collaborative	Confirmation check	C:CC	an interactant's act of confirming the meaning of a preceding utterance such as questioning
	Referral	C:RF	the less others' act of discussing a particular utterance using their first language, in this case, Thai
	Repetition	C:RP	an interactant's act of repeating exactly the same utterance
Diagnostic	Correction	D:CR	the knowledgeable other's (KO) act of explicitly or implicitly correcting the 'less other's' (LO) utterance

Diagnostic strategy is intended by the KO to help the LO become more comprehensible based on his own criteria. Diagnostic strategy is an example of scaffolding that goes beyond mutual understanding but still remains within the ZPD where the KO asserts his competence into a given situation. The specific strategy is correction, predominantly used by the knowledgeable other, to help with the less other's communication problems within the context of the talk.

The extracts in the succeeding paragraphs are sample utterances based on the coded data. In extract 1, the opening sequence of the conversation is between Vn (the Vietnamese) and Tf (Thai female) participants. The interactants were able to exchange greetings despite the obvious phonological difficulty exhibited by Tf's production of /p/. The difficulty could also be attributed to Vn's listening problem of not being able to distinguish /p/ and /f/. In turns 2 and 4, Tf repeated her name thrice until Vn was able to distinguish /f/ from /p/ in turn 5. Vn's initial role as a KO shifted to LO as Tf implicitly helped Vn to say her name correctly. Thus, by repetition, communication was maintained and moved on to an exchange of pleasantries.

Extract 1: Vn is asking Tf's name

	0 0
(1)Vn:	what is your name/
(2)Tf:	my name is fern
	my name is fern
(3)Vn:	pern/
(4)Tf:	fern
(5)Vn	= <u>fe</u> rn
(6)Vn:	nice to meet you
(7)Tf:	nice to meet you too

In extract 2, five specific scaffolding strategies namely hint, pause, questioning, referral, and confirmation check were used. Vn's questioning in turn 2 is trying to elicit the geographical location of the mentioned province as she hinted in turn 4. Tm's inability to determine Buriram's location, if whether it is in the north or south of the country led both to refer to each other using their first language. The hint, however, was incorrect as both agreed that the province is in the northwest part of Thailand. The confirmation check by Vn's utterance in turn 8 yielded Tm's definite answer in turn 10. In turns 1, 3, and 10, pauses were recorded. The subsequent utterances by Vn are statements seeking answers as indicated by the rising level of intonation, which is referred to herein as questioning in turns 2, 4 and 8.

Extract 2: Tm	is telling Vn about his hometown
(1) Tm:	my hometown Buriram
	(-10-)
(2) Vn:	where is it/
(3) Tm:	um:::Bulilam uh (-10-)
(4) Vn:	in the north or the south of Thailand/
(5) Tf:	um (-10-)
(6) Ss:	((speak Thai))
(7) Tm:	northwest –ah:::
(8) Vn:	northwest in Thailand/
(9) Ss:	((speak Thai))
(10)Tm:	ok northwest of Thailand

In extract 3, three scaffolding specific strategies are noted. They are elicitation, questioning, and correction. In turn 1, Vn tried to ask for information about the travel time between Tf and Tm's hometowns and Bangkok. Recognizing Tm's turn in 2 as a request for clarification, Vn was able to reformulate how long into how many hours in turns 5 and 7. There was an immediate understanding between the interactants when Tm was able to approximate the travel time. Elicitation happened when Vn turned to Tf and asked her about the travel time which takes two hour. Referring to correction which is under diagnostic strategies – strategies beyond comprehension of mutual understanding, Vn's turns in 9 and 13 corrected the plurality of hours by inflecting s after '5 hour' and '2 hour'.

Extract 3: Tm and Tf reveal the travel time from their hometowns to Bangkok

(1) Vn:	how long does it take from there to come here/
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(2)	Tm:	what/
(3)	Vn ·	how long

(3)	Vn:	how long
(A)	Tm	

- (4) Tm: um:::(5) Vn: how many hours
- (6) Tm: um:::
- (7) Vn: =does it take you from there to come here
- (8) Tm: around 5 hour
- (9) Vn: 5 hours
- (10) Tm: from Buriram to Bangkok
- (11) Vn: how about you
- (12) Tf: uh::: two hour
- (13) Vn: two hours

In extract 1, the phonological reception and production difficulties experienced by the participants are expected in an NNS-NNS interaction process. In Jenkins (2000) Lingua Franca Core (LFC), this is a typical pronunciation problem among non-native speakers of English, but one which has little impact on comprehension issues. It is not surprising to find out that scaffolding pronunciation by repetition among the speakers is necessary. The substitution of /f/ to /p/ based on Vn's reception in extract 1 is unavoidable due to the linguistic features of Thai and Vietnamese languages. Thus, the opening sequence of the conversation shifts the role of KO from Vn to Tf based on the perceived linguistic difficulty experienced by the former. Tf's act is to bridge a communication gap between her and the other speaker.

In extract 2, the use of referral by the Ss is highlighted. By the LOs use of this specific strategy, the conversation continued as usual. The shift of Tm's answer in turn 7 is noticeable. Referral is a specific collaborative strategy used by the Thai speakers to clarify an utterance using their first language. Another interesting result relevant to extract 2 and related to CSs is the use of non-verbal strategies' scaffolding act of pausing. Many pauses during the interaction process were recorded. For each pause, speech production is encouraged. In each pause, it allows the KO to think of what to discuss with the LO (see extract 2). In the event where two speakers spoke the same language, pauses were used as a signal to refer to the topic using their first language. However, a calculated risk must be undertaken by the KO either to wait or to resort to another strategy. In the extracts provided, speakers did not go beyond the 10-second pause, wherein either the KO provided a hint (see extract 2, turn 4) or the LO was able to process the answer to a question. Back channeling (for example, laugh) and fillers are recorded and observed during the talk.

In extract 3, explicit error correction was recorded. The *KO*'s knowledge of 'correct' English signifies his status as an expert in the interaction process by inflecting /s/ to *five hour(s)*, and *two hour(s)* to signify the plurality of the phrases. Although the utterances obviously do not impede mutual understanding between the speakers, it is necessary to be included as part of the scaffolding as it occurs within the ZPD where Vn was exercising her grammatical competence regarding subject-verb agreement. Whether the *LO* consciously or unconsciously learned from an explicit or implicit correction is another aspect to be looked at in the scaffolding process.

Essential in the NNSs' interaction being studied is the collaboration between and among the participants. The willingness of the Thai participants to answer queries and the Vietnamese's act of extending help are manifestations of a meaningful collaborative effort. Participants were active and dynamic (see all extracts). The participation between and among the interactants led to mutual understanding. In the event where Tm was not able to grasp Vn's inquiry about the location of his hometown, referral between the two Thai participants took place.

Conclusion and implications

Scaffolding between and among speakers in an outside-the-classroom context happens. Such strategies, specifically questioning, are initiated by the *KO* using Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory. Referring to the parameters we have earlier set in the conceptualization of this paper, we have characterized that scaffolding can be manifested in three distinct general scaffolding strategies such as initiative, collaborative, and diagnostic. Eight specific strategies emerged including confirmation check, correction, elicitation, hint, pause, questioning, referral, and repetition. The extracts presented showed all the scaffolding strategies, and are noticeable at the surface level in the interaction process. Most importantly, the scaffolding strategies prevented breakdown of communication and mutual understanding was attained.

In conceptualizing this paper, we have not separated communication strategies and scaffolding strategies as very distinct disciplines but rather we looked at how they complemented each other on how mutual understanding could be attained by non-native speakers in an ELF setting.

Implications to non-native speakers

In the use of second language in a naturally occurring speech, mutual understanding is paramount over linguistic forms of the language. The uses of communication strategies and scaffolding strategies, among other socio-cultural theories, yield mutual understanding between and among the speakers. When communication seems close to failure, questioning, eliciting, hinting, and so on can be used to further the objective/s of a conversation.

Implications in the classroom

The use of strategies in scaffolding among second or foreign English language learners in the classroom can be beneficial when language teachers assume a supporting role, but not necessarily to be a *knowledgeable other*. In a student-centered classroom where a communication activity between peers or a group interaction among students is planned, it is necessary for language teachers to introduce and elaborate on how scaffolding strategies or communication strategies could be useful. For example, within the framework of collaborative scaffolding strategy, the use of repetitions by the interlocutors must not be seen as an indicator of incompetence. It may be necessary to stress to the students that repeating an utterance is *okay* in order to attain mutual understanding as interlocutors have differing language exposures and socio-cultural backgrounds.

In the event where incomprehensibility of language is foreseen, English language teachers may allow students to use their first language to confer (see the act of referral) about the meaning of an utterance to ensure understanding of the lesson's content. However, the flexibility on how a specific scaffolding strategy is used depends on the language proficiency of the students. Where language learning is the goal, teachers, as facilitators in the classroom, have the prerogative to impose limitations and use some guidelines to inhibit the inappropriate use of some scaffolding strategies.

Transcriptions

- / denotes rising intonation
- : denotes the length of the fillers
- . denotes a one-second pause
- (-10-) denotes a more than a second pause
- = denotes latching
- (()) denotes the use of first language

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Abstract

Students throughout the world are encouraged to take standardized exams such as TOEFL and TOEIC in order to prove their fluency in English. In the case of the TOEIC test, which focuses on reading, listening, and grammar, companies throughout Japan, in particular, many companies view it also as a benchmark of how well students can speak and write. The presenters will examine data collected from 10 participants with low TOEIC scores (461-571), with 10 participants with high scores (683-793), along with 10 native speaker participants to examine possible differences fluency, communicative confidence, and syntactical complexity. The research (which focused on fluency indicators (pause duration and frequency, percentages of silence, articulation rates, mean length runs, and fluency rates) also examined possible differences with speech anxiety, and on the participants' syntactical complexity. Results showed there was not a significant difference among the three groups in the fluency variables expressed in monologues, and there was no significant differences noted for the two groups of EFL learners on most variables. For speech anxiety, there were no significant differences for the constructs of distress, discomfort, and avoidance while there were for the construct of fear. As for syntactical complexity, for monologues, there were not significant differences found among the three groups. These results indicate that test scores overly simplify the nature of the speaker's fluency, syntactical complexity and confidence.

Introduction

Second language learners (and teachers) often find it difficult to attend and assess fluency in their own speech. Part of the reason for this is that while form is relatively easy to identify and to correct, fluency, which "concerns the leaner's capacity to produce language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation" (Skehan, 1996, p. 22), proves more difficult. Lennon (2006, 391) states:

Fluency differs from the other elements of oral proficiency in one important respect. Whereas such elements as idomaticness, appropriateness, lexical range, and syntactic complexity can all be assigned to linguistic knowledge, fluency is purely a performance phenomenon. . .fluency is an impression on the listerner's part that the psycholinguistic processes of speech planning and speech production are functioning easily and efficiently.

He goes on to state that dysfluency markers, partly help make the listerner aware of the anxiety of the production process.

While some may question why a focus on fluency is important, both informal experience and scientific research (e.g. Binder, 1996; Wolf, 2001) suggest that fluency contributes directly to three types of critical learning outcomes: (a) retention and maintenance: the ability to perform a skill or recall knowledge long after formal learning programs have ended, without re-teaching in school year after year. (b) endurance: the ability to maintain performance levels and attention to task for extended time periods while resisting distraction, and (c) application: the ability to combine and apply what is learned to perform more complex skills, creatively, and in new situations. Further, it could be easily argued that with increased fluency comes more confidence and less anxiety, which, in turn, leads to the individual seeking out more opportunities.

However, without a transcription of what was said during an interaction or monologue, it is difficult to identify the frequency and duration of pauses, and to realize the degree and extent of reformulations, the length of fluent speech runs between pauses, the kinds of distortions, rephrasing, and self-corrections that have occurred, as well as to better understand the speaking rate of the individual as compared to others. By studying a variety of temporal related variables, Mohle (1984) suggests that it may be possible to make an effective assessment of learner fluency. However, because such features are all found in native-speaker fluent performance, it will be in the frequency and distribution of such features rather than their presence (versus absence) that learner speech may be distinguishable from native-speaker performance (393).

There are three aims to this paper, the first is to better identify possible differences in fluency among native speaker participants and EFL (Japanese and Chinese) having varying TOEIC scores (461-571) and (683-793). Specifically, monologues (speaker's self-introduction) and dialogues will be compared to examine total time talking, average

mean length runs (MLR), speaking rate (fluency rates A/B), and the number of micropauses that have occurred. Further an examination of how dysfluency (amount of silence, percentage of silence, number of nonsense words, word fragments, self-corrections, false starts, filled pauses, an average of pause durations) decreases with improved accuracy and proficiency will be examined. A second aim is to identify possible differences in communicative confidence and anxiety as measured by Social Avoidance and Distress Scale (SAD), (Watson & Friend, 1969) to examine if anxiety in personal (two-person communication) differs from that of public speaking. In short, do native speakers generally have less anxiety in public speaking. Finally, an analysis will be made to see if there is a significant difference in syntactical complexity (in both the monologues and dialogues) among the three groups. Thus, to better understand if test scores can be used as a measure of fluency, it is important to understand how fluency does change with various gains in standardized proficiency scores.

Review of Literature

Fluency

Of all of the educational focuses in English language education, fluency has, perhaps, been the most difficult to address, much less define. In 1979, Fillmore distinguished four kinds of native-speaker fluency: (a) "the ability to fill time with talk," which is commonly known as "disc-jockey fluency," (b) "the ability to talk in coherent, reasoned and semantically dense sentences," (c) "the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts," and (d) "the ability. . .to be creative and imaginative in language use" (p. 93). These definitions soon led other researchers to further investigate fluency, so that by 1980 O'Connell and Kowal had established the discipline of pausology. Four years later, Brumfit (1984) defined fluency as "the maximally effective operation of the language system so far acquired by the students (p. 57), in essence arguing that fluency refers more to natural language use instead of native-speaker production. It could be said that fluency differs from other elements of oral proficiency in that it is a performance phenomenon, taking into account pragmatics, grammar, lexical range, syntactic complexity, and idiomatic expression.

Riggenbach (1991) went further in conducting research that showed that the frequency of unfilled pauses is a strong indicator of nonfluency. However, it wasn't long that Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992: 267) found that pausing is "a commonly occurring feature of natural speech in which gaps or hesitations appear during the production of utterances." Koopmans-van and Van Donzel (1996) examined fluency in both prepared and

spontaneous speeches. They concluded that speakers do use pausing strategies to structure and to continue the interaction. For Lewin, McNeil, and Lipson (1996) was whether or not speech disruptions, periods of silence, and a slower rate of speech were more prevalent in high-speech subjects than in their low-anxiety counterparts. They used measures of stated anxiety before and during the speech task and examined various kinds of pauses, pause-length, verbal errors (corrections, distortions, fragments, repetitions) and delaying verbalizations. They concluded anxiety did not correlate with dysfluencies or pauses but that pausing may constitute a way of escape or relieving stress. This research was important as it did introduce the issue of anxiety and whether monologues or dialogues are more stressful and as a result produce more dysfluencies.

The reasons why pausing of foreign language learners differs from native speakers are as follows: (a) to the distribution of pauses as result of L1 aspects of pausing, (b) overall pausing time is greater in non-native production with more pausing, and (c) shorter word groups or mean length runs (MLR) between pauses. This aspect of fluency became more of an issue with Wendel (1997) and Yuan and Ellis (2003) who used a fluency measure that takes into both the amount of speech and length of pauses. The first measure, Rate A, examines the number of syllables per minute (which is divided by the number of seconds used to complete the task multiplied by 60) whereas the second measure, Rate B, is based on the number of meaningful syllables per minute but without any syllables or words that were repeated, reformulated or replaced. In 1997, Chambers then examined the direct link between strategic competence and fluency, pointing out that there are other factors besides grammatical knowledge that can affect fluency. It was also found that articulation rate (the number of syllables uttered per second) had less impact on the perception of fluency than the length, nature and location of pauses in the utterance. Chambers classified pauses into "natural" and "unnatural pauses," with natural pauses being found in clause junctures or after a semantic unit whereas unnatural pauses appear in places that could indicate lexical or morphological uncertainty. These pauses can often be tied to ungrammatical English, or if they function either as a way *fill-in* particular words so as to give the speaker time on how to proceed. In any case, Chambers noted that natural pauses do generate generate the listeners' expectation about prospective utterances, and signal emphasis.

Nonetheless, there are several gaps with previous research on fluency. First, there is little data on how fluency, in spontaneous speech of Japanese, changes with proficiency, particularly with standardized test scores that are based on listening, grammar and

reading, such as the TOEIC. More analysis is also needed on how fluency differs (if at all) in monologues and dialogues.

Speech Anxiety

This study also examines the possible relationship between fluency and speech anxiety. One underlying speculation is that dysfluency is an escape behavior in speech fear (Lewin and McNeil, 1996), The relationship between anxiety and fluency is, however, complex, as Curran (1979), and Hersen and Bellack (1977) indicate; anxiety has several possible etiological factors in social skills deficits, with four relationships: (a) social skills deficits predate and are a causative factor in social anxiety, (b) social anxieties predate and are a causative factor in social skills deficit, (c) social skills deficits and social anxieties co-occur basically at the same time, and (d) social anxieties and social skills deficits are unrelated. Thus, in real practice, there are individuals who (a) have high anxiety and poor social skills, (b) have high anxiety but demonstrate excellent social skills, (c) have low anxiety and have excellent social skills, and (d) have very poor skills but are not anxious or aware of their skills deficits.

While Mahl (1956, 1987) found that aggregate speech dysfluence ratios did not differentiate among the groups stated above, Hofmann et al., (1997) found these variables to be important. Lewin et. al (1996) also found no correlation between dysfluency and anxiety, particularly in regard to word fragments, nonverbal intrusions, procrastinations, and corrections. They conjecture that certain dysfluenies like distortions are more common with severe anxiety while others (like fragments) are as frequent in typical levels of anxiety. One gap in the literature that has yet to be addressed is *how* speech anxiety improves (or remains the same) with proficiency and if native speakers have similar levels of anxiety as compared to EFL learners.

Syntactic complexity

It could be said that many EFL teachers tend to examine rate of speech and accuracy as key components of fluency, missing the importance of syntactical complexity, yet this issue has been long studied as a component of fluency. Norris and Ortega (2003) indicate that complexity, as measured by means of subordination ratio, may increase in different ways, aside from linearly, for example, by phrasal and clausal complexification. Complexity, as Ellis and Barkusizen (2005, p. 139) notes, is the "extent to which learners produce elaborated language" and is often related to the syntactic and lexical aspects of narrative performance. In short, truly fluent speakers take effort in thinking

through ideas, and arranging phrases and sentences in order to create effective meaning. Thus, a string of simple sentences will sooner or later call into question a *fluent* speaker. Ellis and Barkusizen did observe that complexity has little meaning if the speaker's fluency is so poor that it interferes with meaning or the overall impact of the narrative.

One of the dominating issues in this area has been how to measure complexity; Yuan and Ellis (2003, p.2) noted: "Measures of complexity are generally based on the extent to which subordination is evident." (e.g. Number of clauses per T-unit or c-unit. In some studies, *lexical* complexity has been assessed by means of type-token ratio. Szmrecsanyi, (2004) took this analysis one step further by pointing out that complexity (or scope) can be understood by either taking into account pure length, duration and size of the unit or by appealing to notions which are not related to these constructs. His main argument was that length does not necessarily correlate as a measure of *syntactic relationships*. Szmrecànyi uses the following example:

(1) I wasn't there cause I had to fill out all this.

(2) I didn't do it, and the reason for this was that.

Both (1) and (2) have a length of 11 words, but he noted at the first contains a main clause and a dependent adverbial clause of reason, while the second has a compound clause with the word *that* which might take on any reason (e.g....the reason for this was that I was sick) or might not (e.g. The reason for that was that guy) (p. 1032).

The focus on clauses in T-units, for many scholars, seems to reduce complexity to type-token ratios; for many Skehan (1996), *reducing* complexity to type-token ratios and to the number of clauses does not provide for an in-depth understanding of the term. He notes that complexity "concerns the elaboration or ambition of the language that is produced" and that complexity should also take into consideration "learners preparedness to take risks" (p. 22). Skehan, thus, introduces into complexity the concept of pragmatics, and semantics, taking the issue of complexity another step further by taking into account the effect complexity has on the overall message. How does the audience react to the complexity, and do different listeners find it more appealing or less meaningful?

Thus, the primary issue, which remains unclear, is how fluency, speech anxiety, and syntactical complexity may change in the speech of people having various TOEIC scores (and assumed linguistic proficiency). While Michel, M, Kuiken, F & Vedder, I. (2007) found that increased task complexity and interactivity did not affect lexical complexity but did affect negatively fluency, more research is needed in regard to the speech of Japanese EFL speakers.

The Study

Rationale

For too long students (and companies) have used test scores (TOEIC, TOEFL) as a means to rate an individual's fluency, even though, in the case of the TOEIC tests, the focus is on grammar, reading, and listening skills. Thus, to better understand the value of a TOEIC score, (or from other standardized tests), this study attempts to clarify how fluency changes with proficiency in passive language skills. The study includes fluency data based on native speakers and on data from EFL learners in order to identify possible differences in fluency and dysfluency, and to clarify if EFL speakers having a high TOEIC score are actually able to engage in detailed descriptions/explanations, as well as complex negotiations that are common in the business world. Also, the question is raised by Towell, R., Hawkins, R., and Bazergui, N. (1996), as to *which* feature changes the most with more proficiency, as they concluded, "What is surprising is that this increase in fluency is not the result of a quantitative reduction in the amount of pausing that subjects do, nor in the increase in the speed with which they articulate what they say. Rather, there is an increase in the length and complexity of the linguistic units which are uttered between pauses" (112-113).

Further, it is also imperative to have a better understanding and description of fluency, and how this is reflect in various TOEIC scores, which are used by companies to select candidates who can adequately use English to promote products, and negotiate with customers as well as to set up offices in a foreign country. How can the fluency of a individual having a particular TOEIC score be described in regard to both fluency and dysfluency indicators as well as syntactical complexity? In short, investigating fluency is crucial; (Trofimovich and Baker, 2006; Kang, 2010) found that the duration of silent pauses contribute to perceptions of accentedness. The longer the speaker pauses, the more likely their speech will be judgd as accented, thus, these perceptions can also influence judgments of honesty and ability.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Does fluency improve in monologues or in dialogues between the three groups?

Research Question 2: In regard to communicative confidence and anxiety in public speaking, is there a significant difference in comparing the results from an communicative anxiety survey among the three groups of participants? Do native speakers have less anxiety in public speaking?

Research Question 3: Is there a significant difference in syntactical complexity among the three groups of participants.

As personality, age, nationality, overseas English language experiences and training are confounding variables, the hypotheses are as follows: (H1) There will be no significant differences in comparing monologues and dialogues in regard to the stated fluency indicators. (H2) There will no similarity in regard to the survey responses concerning anxiety among the ten participants. (H3) There will be no significant differences for syntactical complexity scores for the two types of interactions.

Dependent variables

Fluency measures

Articulation rate (AR) is computed by dividing the number of syllables by the cumulative time talking after deducting the amount for pausing. The articulation rate is made on a group of runs with a minimum of 30 syllables (Towell, 1987; Miller *et al.*, 1984, 218-219).

Mean length runs (MLR) involve the number of syllables that are uttered until the speaker stops talking or pauses.

Speech rate (SR) is first assessed by the number of meaningful syllables within a narrative, divided by the number of seconds used to complete the task and multiplied by 60. All meaningless syllables, words, phrases that were repeated, reformulated, or replaced are excluded. A fluency differential is also included which reflects the difference between this rate and a fluency rate in which all of the syllables within the narrative are taken into account, see fluency rates A / B, as identified by Wendel (1997). Pauses are defined as any silence lasting one second or more; those less than one second are counted as micropauses. "The presence, length and frequency of silences and hesitations affect the listerner's perception of an interlocutor's fluency. In verbal encounters common to all language users, mainly conversations and discussions, pauses and hesitations are normal features of the interaction. Despite this, silence is often seen as a sign of dysfluency, especially in foreign language speech where it may be perceived as signally poor functioning of mental processes, instead of viewing it as a normal feature of speech processing" (Chambers, 1997: 538). Although listeners accept pauses in their native language, not all pauses are acceptable, hence the differentiation between "natural" and "unnatural pauses." Chambers goes on to point out that natural pauses, allowing breathing space, usually occur at some clause junctures or after groups of words forming a semantic unit. Further, pauses appearing at places other than these are judged as hesitations, revealing either lexical or morphological uncertainty. These

hesitations may be either simply a silent gap or marked by non-lexical fillers ("uh," "um"), sound stretches (or drawls on words) or lexical fillers with no semantic information (such as "you know," "I mean").

Speech Anxiety

Speech anxiety refers to any kind of distress, discomfort, fear, anxiety, and of avoidance of social situations that results from person-to-person, small and large group communication.

Distress refers to any kind of emotional feelings relating poor performance or anxiousness about having to speak in front of others.

Discomfort refers to raised heart beats, sweating, and tenseness.

Fear refers to being terrified and extremely anxious.

Avoidance includes any behaviour to not engage in communication, either with acquaintances or strangers.

Complexity measures

Syntactical complexity, as stated before, is the extent to which a speaker can produce elaborated language, and even take risks to more complex phrasing. For this study, syntactical indicators included mean length of sentence (MLS), mean length of T-unit (MLT), mean length of clause (MLC), clause per sentence (C/S), verb phrase per T-unit (VP/T), dependent clause per T-unit, T-unit per sentence, (T/S), complex T-unit ratio (CT/T), complex nominal per T-unit (CN/T), and complex nominal per clause (CN/C) will be examined.

Procedures

Ten participants having TOEIC scores within the ranges 461-571 were interviewed and videotaped along with ten others having a TOEIC scores of 683-793. Finally, ten native speakers were similarly interviewed. The interviews were videotaped, and involved four kinds of discourse tasks: monologues, dialogues, structured interviews, and summaries. When student were involved in their self-introduction monologues, it is possible to measure fluency as related to unprompted and uninterrupted speech as well as to examine the lexical and syntactical complexity that is related to self-description. In the second section, an open-ended dialogue, participants were challenged by interruptions, side-comments, and having to elaborate further on their families, hobbies, friends, and their feelings about school; the intent was to better understand cross-talk pausing and fluency as related to interactive speech, and to see if the speaker's articulation rate

increased or decreased by having to answer questions and comments.

Data Collection

Fifty-four interviews were conducted; there were six overall categories of TOEIC scores ranges: (a) 350-460, (b) 461-571, (c) 572-682, (d) 683-793, (e) 794-895+, and (f) native speakers. For this study, the second range (461-571) was used as it reflected sentence and phrase level speech whereas the first was more reflective of word and phrase-length speech. The fourth category (683-793) was also utilized as it represented an intermediate speaker's range of fluency. These were then compared with the transcripts of the native speakers. These videotaped interviews were started in June 2012 and ended in June 2013, each containing two sets of monologues and dialogues. Specifically, each interview involved four parts: (a) self-introduction monologue, (b) causal dialogue based on the students' background, (c) structured interview, and (d) reading recall (of previously read material² that was given at the beginning of the interview). For purposes of this study, the data from the first two sections will only be discussed. Students did not know of the contents or questions of any topics beforehand. For descriptive data concerning the nature of the participants' interactions, see Table 3. Students gave written permission for the videotapes to be used for research purposes and to be shown in conferences. Students were paid for their interviews; coding of the transcripts reflects the Conversational Analysis Conventions, see Appendix A.

Participants

The participants in first category (461-571) was comprised of nine Japanese and one Laotian, and this group had an overall 528 TOEIC score whereas in the second category (683-793), which had nine Japanese and one Chinese speaker, had an average score of of 751.8, and their ages ranged from 19 to 25. The participants were from two universities, one a woman's university and the second a national university for engineering students. Two participants were graduate students, see table 1. The native speakers were from Canada, Britain and the United States who were in their 30's and 40's and had taught English in Japan for over ten years.

Participant	Saara							e Speakers	
1 articipant	Score	Age	Gender	Score	Age	Gender	Age	Gender	Nationality
	525	21	 M	780	22	 F	49	 M	Canadian
2	525 530	19	F	725	22	F	4) 34	M	Canadian
3	520	22	М	810	21	F	34	М	Canadian
4	540	21	F	780	19	F	63	М	British
5	515	23	М	785	19	F	38	Μ	American
6	535	20	М	765	21	F	43	Μ	British
7	515	21	М	720	20	F	51	Μ	Canadian
8	560	21	F	790	24	М	38	М	American
9	480	20	F	685	22	М	46	М	Canadian
10	564	21	F	690	25	F	42	М	Canadian

Table 1: Data on participants

Data Analysis

For fluency and speech anxiety data, analysis was carried out with a series of t-tests and Kruskal-Wallis test for comparing ordinal variables to compare the three groups; Tukey's multiple comparison test will also be used as it is one of several tests that can be used to determine which means amongst a set of means differ from the rest. The software that was used was WINKS SDA Statistical software. Concerning the second research question on speech anxiety, all participants responded to the survey, Social Avoidance and Distress Scale (SAD), (Watson & Friend, 1969), which covers communicative anxiety in regard to one-to-one interactions, small groups and public speaking. The 28-item, self-rated scale measures social anxiety including distress, discomfort, fear, anxiety, and the avoidance of social situations. The coding is as follows: 1 - almost never, 2 - sometimes, 3 - often, 4 - almost always. Examples of some questions include "I try to avoid situations which force me to be very sociable." Scores on the SADS have been shown to correlate moderately well with scores on the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale and the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI). Thus, questions were categorized according to the kinds of anxiety the scale measured: Distress (#11, #14, #16, #19, #7, #3, #1, #2, #5, #21), fear (#12, #18), discomfort (#13, #6, #8, #10, #15, #17), and avoidance (#4, #20, #9).

To analyze syntactical complexity, a web-based L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer¹ was used as it counts the frequency of nine grammatical structures in the text, and computes 14 indices of syntactic complexity of the text. The results are presented in 23 indices, along with a graphical representation of the results. For purposes of this study, mean length of sentence (MLS), mean length of T-unit (MLT), mean length of clause (MLC), clause per sentence (C/S), verb phrase per T-unit (VP/T), dependent clause per T-unit, T-unit per sentence, (T/S), complex T-unit ratio (CT/T), complex nominal per T-unit (CN/T), and complex nominal per clause (CN/C) will be examined. One limitation to the software relates to how oral communication has to be transcribed, and so the placement of periods is often subjective. This can affect sentence and T-unit lengths, thus generating variances and misleading results. In addition, the software, in the tokenization process, will separate contracted forms such as *I'd, can't, wasn't*, etc. into two tokens with each being counted as a word.

Results

Research question one

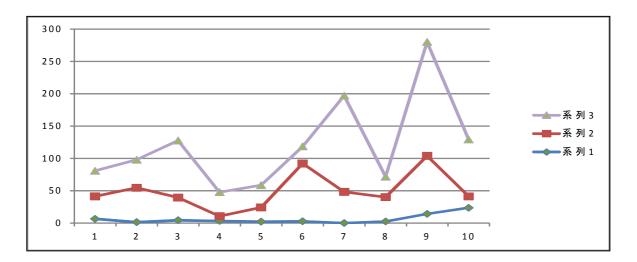
Comparing the data concerning the following factors (time talking, amount of silence, percentages of silence, average mean length runs, articulation rates, fluency rates B, fluency differentials and micropauses), a series of Kruskal-Wallis tests showed significant differences for a comparison of all three groups, see table 4, yet articulation rate showed less of a difference. Thus, the first hypothesis is incorrect, as native speakers (see table 2) were far more productive (time talking) than EFL speakers, had far less silence (pause durations) and a far higher speaking rate. In addition, MLRs were far longer than both groups of EFL learners with micropauses were also far fewer with native speakers.

Tuble 2. Descriptive data on indeney indeators								
	Sel	f-introduct	ion	Simple				
	I	Monologue	S	Dialogues				
	TOEIC TOEIC Native			TOEIC	TOEIC	Native		
	Score Score Speakers		Score	Score	Speakers			
	461-571	683-793		461-571	683-793			
Shortest								
Speech ample (words)	103	72	113	190	112	628		
Longest								
Exchange (words)	532	1094	1039	547	531	2415		

Average Time Speaking	247.31	220.1	129.8	303.23	197.59	496.74
(seconds and minutes)	[04:07.3]	[03:40.1]	[02:09.8]	[05:03.2]	[03:17.5]	[08:16.4]
Average Amount of						
Silence (seconds)	78.6	51.7	5.4	70.06	47.56	17.8
Average Percentage of						
Silence	31.47%	25.9%	8.7%	26.26%	25.56%	2.8%
Average						
MLR	12.24	13.55	142.7	10.99	10.47	134.4
Average						
Articulation Rates	1.96	2.01	3.3	2.11	2.73	3.3
Average						
Speaking Rate	74.64	89.5	181.6	85.54	85.19	192.8
Average Fluency						
Differential	8.55	6.04	5.5	10.08	6.19	5.4
Average						
Micropauses	55.5	13.5	7.8	57.1	13.9	14.8

In examining the differences in pause duration, the chart below reflects the differences of the three groups, as seen in figure 1.

Figure 1: Differences in pause duration among the ten participants



Note: Blue is for the ten native speakers, red shows the data for the participants with TOEIC scores from 683-793, and purple reflects the data for those who had scores of 461- 571. Pause duration is shown in seconds on the y-axis, the x-axis represents each participant's score.

For specific fluency variables, see table 3, for the results of Kruskal-Wallis tests examining possible significant differences among the three groups, and tables 4 through 11 for differences within the groups.

	P-value	Н	Mean Rank			
			EFL Learners/Native Speaker			
			461-571	683-793	NS	
Monologues	0.286	2.51	18.8	15.1	12.6	
Dialogues	0.013*	8.72	13.7	10.8	22.0	
Monologues	0.001**	18.17	21.9	18.6	6.0	
Dialogues	0.005*	10.69	20.7	17.5	8.3	
Monologues	0.001**	15.06	21.1	18.6	6.8	
Dialogues	0.001**	19.03	20.65	20.25	5.6	
Monologues	0.002*	13.02	15.3	8.5	22.7	
Dialogues	0.001**	19.4	10.9	10.1	25.5	
Monologues	0.001**	15.86	10.5	11.5	24.5	
Dialogues	0.014*	8.67	11.3	13.1	22.1	
Monologues	0.001**	19.02	8.3	13.2	25.0	
Dialogues	0.001**	15.4	11.55	10.55	24.4	
Monologues	0.294	2.45	19.05	13.5	13.95	
Dialogues	0.001**	21.6	13.9	7.25	25.35	
Monologues	0.001**	13.91	23.7	13.2	9.6	
Dialogues	0.007	10.04	22.65	12.6	11.25	
	Dialogues Monologues Dialogues Dialogues Dialogues Dialogues Dialogues Dialogues Dialogues Dialogues Dialogues Monologues	Dialogues 0.013* Monologues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Monologues 0.001** Monologues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Monologues 0.001** Monologues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Monologues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Monologues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Dialogues 0.001** Monologues 0.294 Dialogues 0.001** Monologues 0.001**	Image Image Monologues 0.286 2.51 Dialogues 0.013* 8.72 Monologues 0.001** 18.17 Dialogues 0.005* 10.69 Monologues 0.001** 15.06 Dialogues 0.001** 19.03 Monologues 0.001** 19.03 Dialogues 0.001** 19.4 Monologues 0.001** 15.86 Dialogues 0.001** 19.02 Dialogues 0.001** 19.02 Dialogues 0.001** 19.02 Dialogues 0.001** 2.45 Dialogues 0.001** 21.6 Monologues 0.001** 13.91	EFLMonologues0.2862.51461-571Monologues0.2862.5118.8Dialogues0.013*8.7213.7Monologues0.001**18.1721.9Dialogues0.005*10.6920.7Monologues0.001**15.0621.1Dialogues0.001**19.0320.65Monologues0.001**19.0320.65Monologues0.001**19.0315.3Dialogues0.001**19.410.9Monologues0.001**15.8610.5Dialogues0.001**15.8610.5Dialogues0.001**19.028.3Dialogues0.001**15.411.55Monologues0.2942.4519.05Dialogues0.001**21.613.9Monologues0.001**13.9123.7	EFLEFLMonologues0.2862.5118.815.1Dialogues0.013*8.7213.710.8Monologues0.001**18.1721.918.6Dialogues0.005*10.6920.717.5Monologues0.001**15.0621.118.6Dialogues0.001**19.0320.6520.25Monologues0.001**19.410.910.1Dialogues0.001**15.8610.511.5Dialogues0.001**19.410.910.1Monologues0.001**19.410.910.1Monologues0.001**15.8610.511.5Dialogues0.001**19.028.313.2Dialogues0.001**15.411.5510.55Monologues0.2942.4519.0513.5Dialogues0.001**21.613.97.25Monologues0.001**13.9123.713.2	

Table 3: Kruskal-Wallis results for fluency variables in monologues and dialogues

Note: DF = 2, Cases = 10.

Variable		Ranking	Difference	Q Stat	Probability
Time Talking	Dialogues	(3.00) - (2.00)	11.2	2.845	2.394*
	Monologues	(1.00) - (3.00)	15.9	4.039	2.394*
Amount of	Monologues	(2.00) - (3.00)	12.6	3.2	2.394*
silence	Dialogues	(3.00) - (2.00)	12.4	3.15	2.394*
percentage	Monologues	(1.00) - (3.00)	14.3	3.633	2.394*

r					
of silence	Monologues	(2.00) - (3.00)	11.8	2.998	2.394*
	Dialogues	(3.00) - (2.00)	15.05	3.827	2.394*
	Dialogues	(1.00) - (2.00)	14.65	3.726	2.394*
MLRs	Monologues	(1.00) - (3.00)	14.2	3.607	2.394*
	Dialogues	(3.00) - (2.00)	15.4	3.912	2.394*
Articulation	Monologues	(1.00) - (3.00)	14.0	3.569	2.394*
Rate	Monologues	(1.00) - (2.00)	13.0	3.314	2.394*
	Dialogues	(3.00) - (2.00)	10.8	2.749	2.394*
	Monologues	(1.00) - (3.00)	16.7	4.2	2.394*
speaking	Monologues	(1.00) - (2.00)	11.7	2.997	2.394*
Rate B	Dialogues	(3.00) - (2.00)	13.85	3.518	2.394*
	Dialogues	(3.00) - (1.00)	12.85	3.264	2.394*
Fluency	Dialogues	(3.00) - (2.00)	18.1	4.598	2.394*
Differentials	Dialogues	(3.00) - (1.00)	11.45	2.909	2.394*
	Monologues	(1.00) - (3.00)	14.1	3.589	2.394*
Micropausing	Monologues	(1.00) - (2.00)	10.5	2.672	2.394*
	Dialogues	(3.00) - (2.00)	11.4	2.9	2.394*
	Dialogues	(3.00) - (1.00)	10.05	2.556	2.394*

Note: Standard Error was 3.937. DNR: Do not reject, indicates that a comparison is within a range of non-significant comparison and so must also be non-significant.

This data shows that when comparing native speakers with EFL speakers, there is usually a significant difference on most fluency variables whereas for comparing the two groups of EFL learners, there is only a significant difference for percentage of silence (for dialogues) articulation rates (for monologues) speaking rate B (for monologues) micropausing. Thus, it can be said that noticeable and important progress is not shown in fluency with the EFL learners despite their gains in listening, reading and grammatical "proficiency," and that the difference in fluency is large when comparing this data to that of native speakers who are far less pause duration, higher speaking rate, and longer mean length runs.

Research Question 2:

For speech anxiety, on the construct of distress, a Kruskal-Wallis test, shows no real significance (H(2) = 0.65, p = 0.724) for all three categories of speakers; a t-test for the two groups of EFL learners also revealed no significance at t(9) = 0.91287, p < 0.38.

In comparing the those with TOEIC scores of 461-571 with native speakers, no

significance was likewise found for distress (t(9) = 0.1068, p < 0.91).

As for the fear construct a Kruskal-Wallis test, shows real significance (H(2) = 8.9, p = 0.012) as did a t-test for both EFL groups; in comparing the those with TOEIC scores of 461-571 with native speakers, no significance was also found t(1) = 0.70711, p < 0.5. For the discomfort construct, a Kruskal-Wallis test, show no real significance H(2) = 3.46, p = 0.178) for all groups, as well for both EFL groups, t(5) = 0.62176, p < 0.5614 or with EFL speakers having scores of 461-571 with native speakers t(5) = 0.14691, p < 0.88. As for the construct of avoidance a Kruskal-Wallis test, showed no real significance (H(2) = 1.8, p = 0.398),and well as with both EFL groups (with variance at 0); similar results were had in comparing native speakers with those having TOEIC scores of 683-793: t(2) = 1.0, p < 0.42.

These results indicate that native speakers get more pleasure out of public speaking than do EFL learners who feel sometimes more discomfort in speaking, but the lack of significance on all constructs largely indicates that *emotionally*, the participants still felt as much anxiety even though they had made some progress learning the language. For the first question concerning whether the participant felt that he was communicating effectively in one-to-one situations, the differences were distinct: EFL learners with TOEIC scores between 461-571 responding with 2.1 (sometimes), which was similar with those EFL learners having 683-793 (2.4) yet native speakers reported feeling effective often (3.5).

In short, while the second hypothesis is correct, the data shows that native speakers showed more confidence and enjoyment in speaking even though in certain cases like teaching they still reported, some unease when communicating. However, all EFL learners reported unease in communicating in English in any kind of situation, yet all groups had similar results (2.0) on the third question as to whether they enjoy speaking in public, indicating that while native speakers may be more effective, they only *sometimes* enjoyed speaking. Thus, when speech is viewed as a performance, there is less enjoyment and more anxiety, even with native speakers.

Research Question 3:

As for whether or not there is a significant difference in syntactical complexity among the three groups of participants. As stated earlier, syntactical indicators included mean length of sentence (MLS), mean length of T-unit (MLT), mean length of clause (MLC), clause per sentence (C/S), verb phrase per T-unit (VP/T), dependent clause per T-unit, T-unit per sentence, (T/S), complex T-unit ratio (CT/T), complex nominal per T-unit (CN/T), and complex nominal per clause (CN/C) will be examined.

However, to better understand the statistics for the complexity, it is important to make a qualitative comparison of the fluency from each of the three categories, first of a randomly selected self-introduction followed by how each of the three participants replied in the dialogue to the question about their friends. By checking appendices H and I, it is clear that the EFL learner with 461-571 TOEIC is struggling with significant pausing (4.0, 6.6, 4.5), and is able to produce name, major, and club activities; word length is 142. The second EFL learner similarly has serious pause durations (3.8, 9.6, 5.3) and has fewer words (111) than the EFL learner with a lower TOEIC score, and similarly struggles to provide enough idea units to describe herself, travel, and goals. The native speaker talks far longer (311 words) and has no pausing, shows laughter and ease and provides extensive details about his family, hobbies, sisters, his goals for his children. This indicates that little progress is made in the two TOEIC ranges in actual production and fluency.

Yet, in comparing the data of syntactical complexity scores (see table 5) a Kruskal-Wallis test, shows no real significance (H(2) = .3, p = 0.847), with a mean rank of 14.2 for EFL learners with scores of 461-571, 16.00 for TOEIC EFL learners with scores of 683-793, and 16.3 for native speakers. This indicates that complexity for spontaneous speech does differ for these three groups, thus, the third hypothesis is correct as well. What does appear to be of interest is that the mean lengths of sentences is longer for the EFL learners who have 683-793 than for the native speakers.

Indicators	(461-571)	(683-793)	(Native Speakers)	
MLS	9.0964	18.0769	10.5833	
MLT	8.6782	9.0385	11.5455	
MLC	6.8018	7.8333	7.0556	
C/S	1.3373	2.3077	1.5000	
VP/T	1.6207	1.4808	1.9091	
C/T	1.2759	1.1538	1.6364	

Table 5: Descriptive data concerning syntactical scores for the three groups

DC/T	0.3448,	0.1538	0.5455
T/S	1.0482	2.0000	0.9167
CT/T	0.2759	0.2692	0.4545
CN/T	0.8276	0.5192	0.8182
CN/C	0.6486	0.4500	0.5000

Implications

It seems clear that EFL teachers should identify two or three issues to address with their students' performances, such as the (a) speaker's production (time talking, MLRs), (b) speaking rate (articulation rates, fluency differentials (fluency Rate A - fluency rate B), or (c) lexical or syntactical complexity. This data shows that while important differences do exist for native speakers, (higher speaking rate, fewer pausing, etc) many EFL learners who have different proficiency ratings as indicated by the TOEIC exam fail to understand how their fluency is not improving with their knowledge and accuracy. Thus, more focus should be given to actual fluency and, most importantly, actual production (talking time), and to better understand fluency, indicators of dysfluency need to be better understood. Even while native speakers are said to be *fluent*, important issues as fragmented speech, grammatical errors, short mean lengths or long rambling long ones can be problematic and should be factored into their overall fluency score, perhaps as a ratio. For EFL learners, the key indicator of fluency is that of production: there is little point to fast, smooth speech if it is too brief to be informative. Too often EFL speakers keep their answers short, and correct, missing out on the concept of communicative competence, and pragmatic concerns, in which short answers might come off as too business-like and unfriendly.

Conclusion

This study shows that fluency is complex and that standardized tests based on passive skills such as listening, reading, and grammatical analysis are poor indicators of actual oral proficiency and fluency. For many fluency indicators there is a large gap between the more proficient EFL learners with scores of 683-793 and that of native speakers. The findings from this research, while crucial, are limited by the number of participants. Further research is being planned with more participants in various TOEIC ranges and to collect data over several weeks in order to establish better reliability. Further research could also focus on differences among Chinese and EFL speakers in other countries. It is also important to incorporate TOEFL scores into future analyses. By examining the

empirical data and transcripts of these EFL speakers, it has turned out to be apparent that they are not fully prepared to engage in real-world negotiations and interactions. Furthermore, speech complexity and anxiety often remain undifferentiated between EFL learners and native speakers, which is something to be further addressed in the classroom.

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Footnotes

1. The Lexical Complexity Analyzer / L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer can be retrieved at http://aihaiyang.com/synlex/lexical/. Xiaofei Lu, the linguist who created the software is an associate professor of Applied Linguistics at Pennsylvania State University.

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Appendix A. CA Transcription Symbols

Manner/Quality

Smile quality	£
Exhale / inhale	hhh
vocalism	(sniffle)
click	.t
laugh pulse	heh
laughing word	wo(h)rd
laughter	heh heh
Low pitch	\downarrow
High pitch	↑
pause, timed	(1.2)
4. pause, short	(.)
lag (prosodic length / elongated sound)	:
unintelligible	()
uncertain	(word)
Emphatic tone	!
Interviewer comment	[[]]

The Impact of Recasts on EFL Learners' Developmental Sequence for Question Formation

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Abstract

The question of how interaction impacts learning has been driving the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) forward. At the same time, one of the challenges facing researchers is that of operationalizing L2 development. The present study investigated the relationship between corrective feedback and ESL question development. The study took the form of a pre-post design, and 21 Japanese EFL university students participated in a series of communicative tasks over a 6-week period. In order to examine how learners advanced along an acquisition sequence, their development stage was determined according to the stages of universal developmental sequence for ESL question formation posed by Pienemann and Johnston (1987). In addition, interactions during the treatment sessions were transcribed and examined using the emergence criterion (Pienemann et al., 1988). The results revealed that learners did not acquire question forms in the predicted order. It can be argued that the nature of the sequence in which Japanese EFL learners are made to acquire grammar overrode the aforementioned universal sequence.

Keywords: corrective feedback, recasts, question development

Introduction

Research on corrective feedback (CF) has revealed that CF provided to learners during an interaction has a positive impact on their L2 (second language) development. Some of the theoretical benefits of CF are that it allows learners to a) notice the gap between their interlanguage (IL) and target language (TL) forms, b) test hypothesis about linguistic correctness, and c) facilitate IL restructuring. According to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy, there are six types of CF (i.e., elicitation, repetition, metalinguistic clues). The type of CF focused on in the present study is a recast, which is "a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more nontarget-like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items is/are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning, not language as an object." (Long, 2007, p.77) An example is provided below (Example 1). Example 1: Mackey and Philp (1998, p.344) *NNS:* yeah and they're eat lunch *NS:* [yes] they're eating lunch *NNS:* and finished its rain getting rain

A considerable number of studies have been conducted to examine how recasts can promote learners' L2 development. Some researchers advocate recasts as an effective CF technique as they are 1) unobtrusive, 2) learner-centered, and 3) provide learners with both positive and negative evidence (Long, 1996). On the contrary, because recasts take the form of a meaning-focused confirmation of a learner's message with no explicit clues, they can be considered fairly implicit and possibly ambiguous for learners (Lyster, 1998). In fact, studies that look into learners' perception and noticing of recasts report that learners overlook the intended correction (e.g., Carpenter et al., 2006) and as a result may not lead to learners' IL restructuring (e.g., Panova and Lyster, 2002).

More recent studies, however, have revealed that the mixed results may be due to the fact that there are numerous factors that determine the efficacy of recasts. One of the factors found to influence the extent to which learners' benefit from recasts concerns learners' individual cognitive factors such as their developmental level. For example, Philp (2003) conducted a study that investigated the degree to which learners at different developmental readiness notice recasts. Her study revealed that high-developmental level and intermediate-developmental level groups were significantly more accurate in recall of recasts than the low-developmental level group. The researcher argues that low-developmental learners are limited in their attentional resources and cannot spare their attention to both real time communication and CF. She notes, "Recasts may be less accessible to low-level learners in particular, who, while struggling with the unfamiliarity of the input, may find the disparity between the recasts and their own attempts too great to deal with. Recasts may often present forms far beyond learners' IL grammar" (Philp, 2003, p.120).

Mackey and Philp (1998) examined the effects of negotiated interaction on the production and development of learners' English as a second language (ESL) question forms. In this study, thirty-five beginner and low-intermediate adult ESL learners were paired with a native speaker (NS) and performed three communicative tasks. The results indicated that the higher proficiency learners who participated in interaction with

intensive recasts showed greater development in question formation than did higher proficiency learners who did not receive intensive recasts. Such a difference in performance was not observed among learners who were not as proficient. They argued that for more advanced learners, interaction with intensive recasts help promote an increase in production of targeted higher-level morphosyntactic forms than interaction alone.

The Processability Theory (Pienemann, 2007), which focuses on the processing mechanisms and capacities of the brain and how and capacities how these mechanisms operate when dealing within the context of L2 learning, also proposes that learners' production and comprehension of L2 forms are constrained by the linguistic processor (Gass and Mackey, 2011). The critical question then is how to assess learners' level so that teachers can make accurate judgment when deciding which structures are manageable for individual learners. One method that has gained much reliability is the use of developmental sequence such as outlined in Spada and Lightbown's (1993) study. The prevailing view in developmental sequence literature is that learners acquire structures such as question forms and negation in a predicted order.

Present study

Research Question

Taken together, many of the findings hitherto published that recasts are effective when learners are developmentally ready to attend to them. To this end, the research question addressed in this present study is: How do learners advance through the different developmental stages of question forms with the help of recasts?

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 21 freshman students, aged 18-19, attending a private university in Tokyo, Japan. The data were originally collected for Asari's (2013) study. The students were divided into stages two (n=3), three (n=1), four (n=9), and five (n=8) based on their pretest scores for stages of question formation. The researcher, who was the instructor for the class, conducted all of the treatment tasks for the present study. By being the sole interlocutor for the treatment tasks, it was possible to keep variation in treatment tasks and recast types to a minimum.

Procedures

The entire study consisted of four treatment sessions and two tests over a 6-week period. A pretest was conducted in the first week and a posttest in the sixth week. All the learners participated in a 20-minute treatment session once a week and received a recast every time they produced an erroneous question form. All of the interaction occurring during the 4 treatment sessions were transcribed by the researcher. The transcription showed that learners produced a total of 288 questions using a wide range of question forms (Stages 2-5), and 227 utterances were provided with recasts as they were erroneous question forms.

Coding

Recasts

For this study, recasts were the only type of CF provided to the learners. Considering the multifunctional nature of recasts, care was taken so that they possessed the following properties: they 1) are adjacent to an ill-formed utterance and 2) retain its central meaning.

Target Structure

The grammatical feature targeted in this study was the formation of questions. There is said to be a general developmental sequence in the acquisition of question forms (e.g., Pienemann, Johnston, and Brindley, 1988; Spada and Lightbown, 1993). Learners' question sequences were measured based on Pienemann and Johnston's (1987) stages in question formation. The coding was done according to the position of structural elements that characterize each stage.

Materials

Treatment tasks

Learners were assigned into groups of two or three, and each group was paired with another group to accomplish spot-the-difference tasks. Spot the differences is a type of communicative task where learners must find a set number of differences between otherwise similar illustrations. As the two groups engaged in identifying the differences in their pictures, they were naturally led to produce question structures of various stages. Instructions for activity procedures were given in Japanese to avoid any misunderstanding on the part of the learners.

Pre/posttests

Learners were given a picture with a set response and were asked to make a question that would elicit a given response. They were shown twenty pictures and were given for each picture forty seconds to write a question and five seconds in which to rest. They were not able to go back to their answers and make any revisions after the forty second. This time limit was set so as to make learners utilize their implicit knowledge. Due to classroom constraints, oral pre/posttest was not feasible.

Scoring

The learners' overall performance on the posttest was compared with their performance on the pretest, and their development stage was ascertained on the basis of their standing in a sequence of stages of progress in question formation in the target language. As in previous studies (McDonough and Mackey, 2008), "ESL question development was operationalized as a learner's movement to a higher stage in Pienemann and Johnston's developmental sequence for ESL question formation as evidenced by the production of at least two linguistically and contextually unique questions from a higher stage" (p. 38). In order to make consistent judgments, all questions that met one of the following criteria were eliminated for scoring:

- 1) Chunks or fixed expressions (i.e., "How are you?)" were eliminated.
- 2) If the students used the same question for multiple pictures it was only counted once. Incomplete question sentences were eliminated (i.e, "Where are?").
- 3) Question that were unrelated to the answer given whether right or wrong were eliminated. Incorrect question words (i.e., "Where are you doing?").
- 4) Incomprehensible sentences such as unclear intent and word order (i.e., "Do you cake eat this good?").
- 5) Question sentences formed without the subject or the main verb were eliminated (i.e., "Do want go to a new café?").
- 6) Questions with unnecessary verbs added were eliminated (i.e., "Where are you doing studying after school today?")

Results

The results revealed that 1) approximately 38% of the learners (n=8) were able to advance to higher stages; 2) about 52% of the learners (n=11) remained in the same stage and 3) 10% of the learners (n=2) regressed to a lower stage.

Student	Pretest Stage	Posttest Stage	Stage Increase
1	2	4	2
2	2	4	2
3	2	4	2
4	3	3	0
5	4	4	0
6	4	4	0
7	4	5	1
8	4	5	1
9	4	5	1
10	4	5	1
11	4	5	1
12	4	4	0
13	4	4	0
14	5	4	-1
15	5	4	-1
16	5	5	0
17	5	5	0
18	5	5	0
19	5	5	0
20	5	5	0
21	5	5	0

 Table 1: Pretest-posttest scores

Discussion

Learners who advanced to a higher stage

As can be seen from the table, nine learners were able to advance stages to a higher stage. A closer examination of the transcription of these learners revealed that they were modifying their erroneous question forms following a recast during the treatment sessions (Example 2). As can be seen in the example, one student who was assessed to be at stage 2 at the time of the pretest was given a stage-3 recast, and, in the second episode, she reformulated her previous utterance in a targetlike form. Such reformulation is known as repair and is said to be evidence of a learner's first step in language development (Lightbown, 1998).

Example 2

S: Bear have cotton candy? (stage 2)

T: Does the bear have cotton candy? (recast)

S: Does bear...? (stage 3 needs repair modified)

T: Does the bear have cotton candy? (recast)

S: Does bear have cotton candy? (stage 3 repair)

Theoretical support for viewing learners' production of repair as a step toward learning has been provided by Swain's (2005) output hypothesis. According to Swain, repair is seen as a type of comprehensible output in which learners are pushed or stretched in their production. Repair is beneficial to learners as it 1) triggers noticing of IL deficiencies, 2) encourages hypothesis testing, 3) strengthens existing knowledge representations, and 4) promotes automaticity. Learners in this study were able to engage in the process of noticing-the-gap via modified output (McDonough, 2005).

Learners who did not advance to a higher stage

More than half of the students were not able to advance to a higher stage. As mentioned previously in the *Introduction* section, due to the ambiguous nature of recasts, the accessibility of the negative feedback available in recasts is questionable. For some learners, especially when they are engaged in communicative activity, recasts are sometimes perceived as alternative ways of expressing the same meaning (e.g., Lyster, 1998). The learners in this study may have failed to see the difference between their erroneous utterances and the corrections supplied by the researcher in recasts.

However, the result should not be interpreted to mean that no learning was taking place. Some learners who made no improvement in terms of stage nevertheless displayed different degrees of improvement within the scope of their respective stages. For example, one learner (see Table 2), who was able to produce stage-4 question forms twice in her pretest, was able to produce the same stage forms six time in her posttest. Similarly, another learner who was able to produce stage-4 question forms four times his pretest, in the end produced the same stage forms nine times in the posttest. In other words, these learners gained better control over forms that they had already learned possibly from the repetitive exposure to the positive evidence in recasts.

				Stages		
		1	2	3	4	5
Student A	Pretest	6	2	0	2	0
	Posttest	0	1	2	6	1
Student B	Pretest	0	0	2	4	1
	Posttest	0	0	3	9	0

 Table 2: Learners who remained in the same stages

Reconceptualisation of the stage paradigm

Although the focus of this study was to look into the relation between recasts and question development and was not intended to look at the two variables separately, the final discussion concerns the concept of a developmental sequence rather than the effect of recasts. Originally, Pienemann and Johnston (1998) applied implicational scaling, which is a procedure based on the rationale that "if sample A contains rule 3, then it will also contain rules 2 and 1" (p.134). The present study challenges this rationale as it was found that some learners did not acquire questions in the predicted order; that is to say some learners first reached Stages 4 and 5 and later Stage 3.

Learners who were placed in Stage 4 or higher were so categorized because they proved they could produce Yes-no inversion and Copula inversion (Stage 4) and/or Aux2nd and Do2nd (Stage 5). However, it must be noted that these learners were not able to produce accurate question forms utilizing Do-fronting (Stage 3). The transcription of the interaction sessions also hinted that Do-fronting questions were difficult for learners. Out of the 83 instances where learners intended to or should have produced do-fronting questions, 51 instances (61.45%) were erroneous as learners 1) produced do-fronting incorrectly (e.g. "Do bear cookie box?") and/or 2) misused the do-fronting ("What bear have flower?" or "Do color is flower?").

A possible explanation of this outcome is that instruction may override what would otherwise follow a universal sequence and that it is happening to EFL learners in Japan: it is conceivable that, in the EFL classroom in Japan, learners are more vigorously taught and tested on (a) wh-questions and (b) questions that include a modal auxiliary than (c) questions which require do-fronting, with the result that (a) and (b) have stayed in the memory of a majority of learners beyond highs school age more firmly than (c). If that is indeed the case, then learners' performance that defies explanation on the basis of natural sequencing is not surprising.

Conclusion

The current study examined how recasts affect learners' advancement in through the stages of ESL question forms. The results revealed that recasts help learners automatize their existing knowledge. However, the findings of this study must be interpreted with caution for at least two reasons. First the treatment session term and the data sample size were very limited; thus, it is difficult to make any generalization from the findings. Secondly, the treatment task may have been designed to elicit some stages more than others; for example, it may have allowed learners more opportunities to practice and/or receive recasts for stage 4 and 5 forms than stage 3 forms and this imbalance may have skewed the posttest results.

The present study nevertheless provides valuable and useful insights into Japanese EFL learners' developmental stages and into the extent to which these stages may be placed in a fixed sequence. It has been argued that all learners' proficiencies are susceptible to assessment on a single measure in regard to question forms and that learners are able to advance to a higher stage by receiving recasts of forms that_belong to that higher stage. While the aforementioned statement may be true for ESL learners, the learners who participated in the present study, viz. Japanese EFL learners, actually did not advance through stages in the order posited by Pienemann and Johnston (1987). For teachers to be able to make judgments on what question types to correct, they need to accurately ascertain the forms that learners have learned and the extent to which they have learned them rather than assuming that, if certain forms have been mastered, certain other forms must also have been mastered.

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Abstract

Many L2 researchers and teachers have been paying increasing attention to the usefulness of Graded Readers (hereafter GRs), especially in the context of extensive reading. GRs, many of which are simplified versions of literary works, are carefully written and edited to suit the language levels of specific learner groups. One serious drawback, however, is that the lexical items in GRs tend to be oversimplified and the information is diluted, resulting in a less interesting reading experience. Studies in the field of SLA also suggest that simplified texts do not prompt students to acquire authentic language, even though students are more likely to comprehend and enjoy the general description in the texts. Furthermore, the simplification of syntax may to some extent lack textual cohesion, readability, and authenticity as well as literariness (i.e., the aesthetic excellence of literary works). Thus, in order to compensate for these shortcomings, direct extracts from authentic literary texts need to effectively accompany GRs in EFL classrooms. As a preliminary study to assess the effects of using GRs with original literary works in the EFL context, we first examine the lexical aspects in GRs and literary works with a particular focus on wordplay or puns (e.g., tale or tail). We then test a hypothesis that reading GRs and literary works comparatively encourages students to pay more attention to the language forms as well as get a taste for authenticity and literariness. The results of the questionnaire survey revealed that students had positive attitudes to this "dual-text" approach of English teaching.

Introduction

Many English teachers in Japan have been utilizing GRs in the EFL classroom, especially in the context of extensive reading. The syntax and lexis in GRs are so carefully controlled for L2 readers that they can read large quantities of books at the level appropriate for them. Some GRs are simplified versions of literary works written by famous writers such as Shakespeare, Dickens, and Lewis Carroll. However, there can be some shortcomings when compared with their original literary works. For example, the lexical items in GRs tend to be oversimplified. The information and plot of the story are diluted. Moreover, the simplification of syntax could reduce cohesion, readability, and authenticity in original literary works. In addition to these shortcomings, GRs tend to lack literariness such as puns and rhymes, which are the essence of literature. In this sense, extensive reading, inevitably dependent on the controlled readability of GRs, poses an intrinsic problem of depriving students of the chance to experience and appreciate the essence of the literary works. To address this problem, we suggest that GRs should be utilized with the original literary works in reading activity. A "dual-text" approach, in which students read GRs comparatively with their original texts, would provide students with better opportunities to appreciate the richness of original literary works as well as to increase their awareness of the authentic language forms.

The purpose of this study is to show a case study of the dual-text approach to compensate for the shortcomings in GRs and the results of the questionnaire survey that assess the effects of this new teaching approach. As a result, we present that the dual-text approach would be useful for students to teaching English in the EFL classroom. Firstly, we show how the literariness of authentic literary texts is diluted or even abridged in GRs especially in terms of puns, in order to recognize the need to the dual-text approach in the EFL classroom. Then, we present how we practiced the approach to the students. Finally, we show the results of a preliminary questionnaire survey investigating how the students responded to the approach.

Literature Review

In the context of EFL classrooms in Japan, literary materials have been rapidly marginalized since the 1990s with the trend of teaching methodology claiming that literary works are inappropriate to English teaching. This is under the assumption that the words and grammar used in literature are too difficult, and that expressions, allusions, and analogies in literary works are so extraordinary that literary works are neither communicative nor practical. Researchers also insinuate that literature is not essential to English teaching due to its structural complexity and unique usage of language since the main goal for EFL teachers is to help students improve their English proficiency (Davis, 1989). In addition, some researchers see problems with a teaching method utilizing literature in the EFL classroom. Kuze (2008) refers to the fact that "as quite a large number of people regard using literary texts as a synonym of conducting the class in Grammar-Translation Method, which has been criticized as being ineffective and obsolete, Iclc2013-47

this widely held fallacy in methodology possibly facilitates avoidance of literature in English education" (p. 118). Moreover, close reading, which is the most common way to read literary works, is even believed to be an inefficient way of improving students' English proficiency and thus not to fit the purpose of SLA.

However, there seems to be little scientific evidence that English teaching utilizing literary works is not useful for improving students' English proficiency. The problem is that most literature teachers have mainly taught English utilizing literary works in the EFL classroom by only Grammar-Translation Method. It may be a good teaching method in the field of English literature, but it is most probably not in the field of language teaching. Some other approaches to English teaching utilizing literary works can be more effective for English teaching. Describing the benefits of using literature in language teaching, Mckay (1986) states that "it can be useful in developing linguistic knowledge, both on a usage level and a use level," "to the extent that students enjoy reading literature, it may increase their motivation to interact with a text, and thus ultimately increase their reading proficiency," and "an examination of a foreign culture through literature may increase their understanding of that culture and perhaps spur their own imaginative writing" (p. 191). Vural (2013) also points out that "literature can be used as a positive stimulation to motivate students, and a good means to improve reading and writing skills" (p. 22). More specifically, Brumfit and Carter (1986) state the availability of literature as follows: "Literature can encourage in students an ability to infer meanings by interacting with the text. That is, things are often deliberately left unclear in literary text. The nature of the communication can be problematic, and the student has to search both backwards and forwards, in and across and outside the text for clues which might help to make sense of it" (p. 14). It will be worthwhile to teach English utilizing literature if we devise the teaching method.

The question now arises: How should we utilize literary works most effectively and efficiently in the EFL classroom? One of the reasons teachers do not prefer literature in the classroom is the difficulty choosing texts for the classroom. Brumfit and Carter (1986) propose for the usage of literary texts that "one is that we concentrate conveniently on shorter texts, single lines of poetry, and on literary extracts. Reasons of space do not permit otherwise, but we openly acknowledge the dangers inherent in this and advocate that, where practicable, opportunities should be found in the classroom for students to try to explore some of the questions and test out the limits of the problems by using complete, self-contained texts" (p. 11). However, they also insist, "the extraction and isolation of a passage from a literary text for pedagogic purposes will necessarily involve the cutting of cohesive ties and the rendering of certain semantic relations within the original text meaningless. The degree to which meaning is destroyed will depend upon the density of cohesive ties referring to parts of the text not included within the extract; the greater the density, the more meaning will be destroyed" (p. 152). To compensate for these shortcomings of literary texts, GRs especially based on literary works are often used in the EFL Lice2013-48

classroom. GRs are simplified books that are written at varying levels of difficulty for L2 learners and carefully edited for content that is appropriate to develop student reading proficiency. Therefore, learners can easily read the GRs and enjoy the story. Schulz (1981) alleges, "we cannot advocate that foreign language learners should be exposed to so-called 'authentic' texts in unedited form, indiscriminately chosen without regard to linguistic difficulty, before they can approximate the level of linguistic and emotional maturity of the group of native speakers for whom the original prose was written" (p. 44).

However, there seems to be two problems with utilizing GRs in the EFL classroom. One is that students cannot probably taste the essence of literary works through reading them quickly. It is necessary for students to take particular note of literariness such as wordplay and consider the effect and significance to taste the richness of literary works. Also, GRs can never provide as full an experience as what might be considered in authentic literary works due to their lack of literariness. Rhetorical devices, such as simile, pun, metaphor, and some richness in lexical choice are largely removed in GRs. Claflin (2012) suggests that "students do need to be helped to cross the bridge to the wild, challenging and exciting lands of native speaker literature and learn to handle such elements as the irregular grammar, new and old slang, invented words and sarcasm and social commentary" (p. 158). Therefore, we believe that we should create a new approach utilizing GRs effectively in the EFL classroom to compensate for these shortcomings of both literary texts and GRs. The dual-text approach can provide students with an opportunity for both intensive and extensive reading, and it would be an adequate way for not only teaching English but also for motivating students to continue learning English. For reasons mentioned above, this study aims to answer the following two research questions: (1) Comparing GRs with their original texts, how does the lexis in GRs differ from that in authentic literary texts? (2) Is the dual-text approach effective for students to learn English in the EFL classroom?

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study were 37 students who were all native Japanese speakers in a private university in Japan. They were 15 freshmen, 12 sophomores, and 10 seniors majoring in English studies and business administration. Their English proficiency levels were mostly below the intermediate level.

Survey instrument

A questionnaire scale was used for this study and it was administered after the students had experienced the learning activity based on the dual-text approach. The scale contained three parts (value, expectancy, and positive appraisal of literature), resulting in 12 items as a total (i.e., four items for each part). Value ($\alpha = .88$) was assessed by the importance the individual learner attached to a particular learning method. Sample items included "I think this learning method is Iclc2013-49

useful to me" and "I think this learning method is important to me." Expectancy ($\alpha = .74$) was measured by the learner's estimates of success in a given learning method. Items of this part contained "I feel confident in reading English when I use this learning method" and "Even when I keep using this method, I find I cannot read English" (reversed). Finally, positive appraisal of literature ($\alpha = .86$) was assessed by the learner's appraisal of the literariness through this method. Sample items included "I find I can appreciate the appeal of literary expressions (i.e., literariness) through this learning method." All of these items were rated on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A high score indicated strong agreement with the proposed item.

Furthermore, a survey using an open-response format was also administered in order to comprehend learners' reactions to the dual-text approach.

Materials

We used two original literary works, *The Merchant of Venice* and *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, and their GR versions.

(1) Graded Readers

- (a) The Merchant of Venice (Penguin Readers Level 4), retold by Chris Rice
- (b) Alice in Wonderland (Penguin Readers Level 2), retold by Mary Tomalin

(2) Original Literary Texts

(a) The Riverside Shakespeare (Houghton Mifflin College)

(b) Alice's Adventures in Wonderland & Through the Looking-Glass (Bantam Classics)

Procedure

In order to assess the effects of using GRs with original literary works in the EFL context, we first examined the lexical aspects in GRs and literary works with a particular focus on wordplay. Plenty of puns and wordplay are included in both original literary texts, *The Merchant of Venice* and *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*. Thus, we investigated how the wordplay is simplified or abridged in the GRs.

We then offered our students the dual-text approach based on the findings mentioned above. The dual-text approach is a teaching method in which students read GRs and the authentic literary text comparatively. Before each class, the students were assigned certain pages of GRs to read the story and write the summary of the plot and their opinion of the story as their assignment. This assignment accounted for 20 percent of the students' grade. In class, the students read closely some extracts that the teacher chose from the original texts. The extract especially including puns or wordplay was chosen by the teacher. At first, the students read the extract Lclc2013-50

comparatively with GRs, comparing the words, expressions, and rhythm with those in GRs, which they had already read as the assignment before the class. Then, they discussed their opinions and what they noticed about the language features in the original literary text with their classmates in groups. After that, the groups shared their opinions with the whole class. Finally, the teacher gave an explanation about the literariness and interpretation of the extract.

Results and Discussion

Comparison with original texts and GRs

We first investigated how the words in GRs differ from those in authentic literary texts in terms of puns. As can be seen in Figure 1, many words in authentic literary text change into simplified words in GRs, and the pun is even abridged. For example, in *The Merchant of Venice*, the word "strain'd" has double meanings in this context. The first meaning is that "to make an effort to do something, using all your mental or physical strength; constrained or forced" (OALD). This meaning relates to the word "compulsion" which Shylock said one line before Portia's speech. "Strain'd" has another meaning in this conversation, "to pour food, etc. through something with very small holes in it in order to separate the solid part from the liquid part; filtered or squeezed out" (OALD). At first, Shylock said "on what compulsion must I?" Portia reacts to this word "compulsion" and answers "the quality of mercy is not strain'd" (constrained or forced), but soon she uses her wit and continues to say "it droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven." In other words, she is using "strain'd" here with another meaning (filtered or squeezed out).

In contrast, the word "strain'd" is abridged in GRs, and this witty wordplay is rewritten to the simple English phrase, "the most important quality of all." We can never taste the essence of Portia's wit in GRs. Also, it is written how Shylock emotionally (or angrily) responds to Portia in GRs. Readers may read the dialogue more easily with the explanation for his emotion, but it seems that the explanation deprives readers of their chances to imagine how Shylock feels toward Portia. It should also be added that we cannot feel Shakespeare's language in GRs such as the iambic pentameter, the rhythm or the sound that is in the original literary text, which definitely convey much more the literal meaning.

Portia. Then must the Jew be merciful.Shylock. On what *compulsion* must I? Tell me that.Portia. The quality of mercy is not *strain'd*,It droppeth as the gentle rain from heavenUpon the place beneath. (4.1. 182-86, italics mine)

Figure 1: Pun in The Merchant of Venice

The Merchant of Venice, GRs' version

Portia. Then Shylock must show forgiveness.Shylock [*angrily*]. Why must I? Tell me that.Portia. *The quality of forgiveness is the most important quality of all*. It falls like gentle rain from heaven. (P. 44, italics mine)

Next, we look at the famous line of *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* in Figure 2. The mouse is saying here to Alice, "mine is a long and a sad tale!" The mouse means that my story is long and miserable, but Alice mistakes the meaning of "tale" for "tail" because these two words sound identical. Her misunderstanding seems to represent that Alice is not an adult but just a child. However, this dialogue between Alice and the mouse is abridged in GRs although it is definitely an essential part in *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*. Lewis Carroll puns deliberately with similar-sounding words called homonyms "tail" and "tale" for a humorous and rhetorical effect in this scene. In the original text of *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, the mouse's story is actually written like the shape of the mouse's tail. Also, we notice here that Alice is getting tired of the mouse's dry and tasteless long "tale" because she is just a girl at the age of "seven and a half." She has no interest in the mouse's "tale" and her attention is shifting to its strange long "tail" in this scene. Alice's fascination with the mouse's tail makes for a charming moment. This important scene represents Alice's immature and childish character.

"Mine is a long and a sad *tale*!" said the Mouse, turning to Alice, and signing. "It is a long *tail*, certainly," said Alice, looking down with wonder at the Mouse's *tail*; "but why do you call it sad?" (Chapter III, italics mine)

Figure 2: Pun in Alice's Adventures in Wonderland

As can be seen, oversimplification of words and deletion of puns lead to the lack of literariness that the original texts are supposed to provide. To compensate for these shortcomings in GRs, we assume that reading GRs and their original literary works comparatively would provide not only an opportunity for students to acquire a lot of input through extensive GRs but also to gain awareness of the language forms and taste the literariness in authentic literary works.

Descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients

Table 1 presents the means (*M*s), standard deviations (*SD*s), and scale correlations among the variables that probe students' appraisal of and engagement in the learning activity based on the dual-text approach. The mean score of value was the highest among all the variables. More specifically, the students felt that "this approach is useful for me" (M = 5.70, SD = 0.91) and "using this approach helps to improve my English language ability" (M = 5.68, SD = 1.06). The Iclc2013-52

mean score of expectancy was slightly above the midpoint (i.e., 4) of the seven-point scale. The students perceived that they did not have much confidence as the mean scores of the items "I find this approach easy" (M = 4.03, SD = 1.55) and "I feel confident in reading English when I use this approach" (M = 4.51, SD = 1.26) were lower than the other items. The mean score of positive appraisal of literature was moderately high since the students felt "I am able to notice literariness using this approach" (M = 5.24, SD = 1.09) and "I can appreciate the appeal of literatures through this approach" (M = 5.32, SD = 1.06). As for correlations among the three variables, value had a moderate relationship with positive appraisal of literature (r = .39), but expectancy demonstrated no to weak correlations with value and positive appraisal of literature (r = .04 and .19, respectively).

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Coefficients among the Scales

	М	SD	1	2	3
1. Value	5.51	0.86	_		
2. Expectancy	4.49	1.01	04	—	
3. Positive appraisal of literature	5.05	0.99	.39*	.19	_

Note: n = 37; the scale's range, theoretically, is from 1 to 7. (* p < .05)

Results of the open-ended questions

Here are some actual comments from the students. We translated their comments from Japanese into English.

• I am interested in literature through this class.

• I can understand the story better after reading both GRs and the original literary text.

• I feel that I can understand the depth of the English language.

• I think that it is a good teaching method because we can read and enjoy the sentences that have double meanings or rhyme.

• I totally agree with this new learning method because it's a reasonable way to read the original literary text after I understood its whole story by reading its GRs.

• I didn't want to read the original literary text because the expressions and words are too difficult for me. But I can bring myself to read it after I understood the story through reading its GRs.

The results of the questionnaire survey as well as open-ended questions revealed that the students felt the dual-text approach was useful for them and also had positive evaluations for reading literary works. On the other hand, they were not able to have much confidence to read the original literary texts in English. There is room for a variety of interpretations (e.g., students' English abilities, their motivation to read, and length of teaching period), but it might be

necessary to provide them with learning support that explicitly instills a sense of confidence in the form of "you can read original literary texts if you try."

Concluding Remarks

In conclusion, we have introduced a new approach, termed as the dual-text approach, to teaching English with utilizing both GRs and the authentic English literatures in the EFL classroom, and then presented the results of the questionnaire survey for students' appraisal of and engagement in the learning activity based on this approach. As researchers and teachers know, GRs provide a safe, controlled environment that is carefully edited for content and appropriate to develop student reading habits and confidence (cf., Claflin, 2012) on the one hand, whereas they are reasonably lacking in literariness, represented by the simplification of vocabularies and the abridgement of many puns on the other hand. The effective use of authentic literary works therefore bridges the gap between "artificial" and authentic discourse and linguistic expressions, for the express purpose of encouraging students to enjoy and notice the true sense of literariness, as emphasized in this study.

By consistent reading activity with GRs and literary works comparatively, we strongly believe that students are encouraged to pay more attention to the language forms as well as taste the richness of the authenticity and literariness. For this reason, our future plan includes the following tentative studies: (1) Identification of linguistic expressions between GRs and authentic literary works based on parallel corpora, compiling materials for the dual-text approach classroom; (2) Conducting a continuing dual-text approach in the EFL classroom, followed by the comprehensive and detailed questionnaire surveys, focusing on the English level of students examined; and (3) Comparative studies between the dual-text approach and other reading activities (e.g., extensive reading).

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Appendix: Questionnaire for Reading GRs and Original Literary Text Comparatively

Please tell us how you feel our new learning method "dual-text" approach.

*7-point scale

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I think this learning method is useful to me.

2. I think this learning method is important to me.

3. I think that (using) this learning method is helpful in improving my English language ability.

4. I find this learning method rewarding.

5. I find this learning method easy.

6. I feel confident in reading English when I use this learning method.

7. Even when I keep using this method, I find I cannot read English.

8. It would be impossible to read literary texts properly at my current English level.

9. I find I am able to notice literary expressions (i.e., literariness) using this learning method.

10. I find I can appreciate the appeal of literary expressions (i.e., literariness) through this learning method.

11. I think I become increasingly more interested in literature through this learning method.

12. I want to try reading more literary works in English through this learning method.

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Abstract

This study investigated parents' backgrounds, their beliefs about English language learning, and compared the receptive English vocabulary development of 3-to 6-year old Thai children between before and after participating in the parent-child reading with the dialogic reading method. Fifty-four parents of the children voluntarily participated in the study. The parents were surveyed to determine their demographic data and reading habits with their children at home. The children were tested on fourteen English words before and after the program. The results show that parents' education was associated with the relatively high frequency rate of parent-child reading at home. Their beliefs about English language learning affected expectations on their children's language success. In addition, the children yielded greater gains in knowledge of vocabulary and their ability to infer the meanings from pictures. The mean scores of the vocabulary tests increased significantly.

Keywords: ages birth-8, beliefs, attitudes, family, vocabulary

Introduction

Parent-child reading was claimed to be an ideal context for children's language development (Vygotsky, 1978). Results from previous studies on parent-child book reading have revealed consistent, positive, and convincing evidences that families have a major influence on their children's achievement in academic and through life (Opel, Ameer, Aboud, 2009; Raikes, Alexander, Luze, Tamis-LeMonda, Brooks-Gunn, Constantine, Banks Tarullo, Abigail Raikes, and Rodriguez, 2006; Chow & McBride-Chang, Catherine, 2003). Further, early reading promotes children's good reading ability as they will read more, have positive attitudes toward reading, and acquire more knowledge in numerous areas (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). During book reading, it also provides the context for rich conversations between a child and a parent. Besides, interactions frequently go beyond the text of the story which invites dialogues (Wasik & Bond, 2001). Additional research has revealed parents' roles such as questioning, extending information, and giving praise or feedback, enhance children's language skills (Author, Year; Roser & Martinez, 1985; Ninio & Bruner, 1978; Flood, 1977). When parents and their children have opportunities to actively participate in the reading experience by using interactive conversation, children show greater language gains than those whose parents simply read the book to them (Whitehurst, Arnold, Epstein, Angell, Smith, & Fischel, 1994; Whitehurst, Falco, Lonigan, Fischel, DeBaryshe, Valdez-Menchaca, & Caulfield, 1988). Children learn vocabulary that they may not experience in everyday conversations and learn about conventions of print and the syntactic structure of language. Dickinson and Snow (1987, as cited in Wasik & Bond, 2001) stated that through decontextualized language skills, children can decode and understand story narratives and print production. Researchers have investigated the parent-child book reading, their engagement in a conversation, and vocabulary measures. Among others, DeTemple and Snow (1992) found that children whose parents engaged in conversations that went beyond the information implicitly shown in the story book outperformed children whose parents focused on

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the explicit message of the story on vocabulary measures. Hong (2012) investigated the influence of two forms of a shared reading intervention: dialogic reading and dialogic reading with the additional of print referencing. Eighty parents and their 4- to 6- year old children participated in the study. Pretest and posttest were used to measure the children's language skills. The measures assessed oral language, phonological awareness skill, alphabet knowledge, and concepts about print. The results showed that the children's vocabulary, rhyme, and concept about print referencing were significantly improved.

The frequency of parent-child reading is one important issue that many educators shed light on since it is associated with children's vocabulary and conceptual knowledge (Storch &Whitehurst, 2001; Snow, Burns, and Griffin, 1998). Parents should increase the frequency of shared-book reading with their children from an early age (Snow, Burns, and Griffin). According to Neuman (1999), children would gain in emergent literacy including alphabet knowledge and print concept when they increasingly accessed storybook reading. Statistically reported on the frequency of Thai parent-child reading, over 40% of families reported that they never read to their children. Even more concerning is the parents reported that their children also never read a book by themselves (the National Statistical Office, 2011). Regarding to the statistic report, reading habits have been an issue of national concern.

Parent Backgrounds and Their Beliefs about Language Learning

Parents with different backgrounds contribute to different types of children educational involvement because they differ in regard to types of behaviors, attitudes, perceptions, socioeconomic classes, and educational attainment (Lee & Bowen, 2006). Moreover, parents with low levels of education may be less involved at school due to several factors including a lack of knowledge of the school system, or their own negative educational experiences (Lee & Bowen). One provocative finding in the Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998) study was that children from low-income families tend to have limited exposure to books, and underdeveloped literacy and language skills. In a related study, Hart and Risley (1995) found that the amount that parents talk to their children is associated with the parents' social and economic status. High-income parents tended to be taciturn and professionals were talkative, while working-class parents varied greatly from the most talkative to the most taciturn.

According to Gardner (1985), one of factors in L2 development for young children is parents' beliefs or attitudes toward language learning. Sung and Padilla's (1998) work shows that parents on the whole demonstrated positive attitudes toward their children's foreign language study. It is commonly noted that parents' beliefs about language learning are important factors contributing to L2 development. Consequently, to examine beliefs about English language learning yields better understanding on learners and their parents' attitudes which may help adjust learners' attitudes and behaviors (Sung & Padilla, 1998). Since information concerning beliefs about L2 learning among parents whose young children are studying EFL was also a central part of this study, the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was employed.

As initiated by Horwitz (1985), the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory version 2.0 (BALLI) consisting of 44 Likert-scale items was used in this study. Each item on the BALLI asks about a specific belief that a person might have about language learning. For each item, a respondent indicates whether he/she (1) strongly disagrees, (2) disagrees, (3) neither agrees nor disagrees, (4) agrees, or (5) strongly agrees. For questions 4 and 14, the respondent has to select

the number that most closely corresponds to his/her opinion. BALLI has been used in several studies with different language translations. For example, Wang (1996) found differences in beliefs and strategy use of the participants. She used both survey and interview to collect the data in her study. The BALLI was used to elicit beliefs about language learning and interviews were used to investigate the use of language learning strategies. The findings show that a majority of the unsuccessful language learners tended to possess negative beliefs about language.

It can be concluded that beliefs or attitudes are associated with foreign language learning and teaching. An analysis of Thai parents' beliefs on English language learning has not been conducted; therefore, it is challenging to empirically explore parents' variations on language learning attitudes. The results of the present study are explored and discussed in a later section.

Dialogic Reading

Dialogic reading (DR) is one promising shared reading strategy that involves parents using questioning strategies and thoughtful responses to children' interests during reading (Whitehurst, Falco, Lonican, Fischel, DeBaryshe, Valdez-Menchaca, & Caulfield, 1988). DR has been found to have a positive impact on children's alphabetic and non-alphabetic languages (Chow & McBride-Chang, 2003; Whitehurst, Arnold, et al., 1994) as well as facilitating children's receptive vocabulary, and interest in reading (Chow, McBride-Chang, Cheung, & Chow, 2008). As initiated by Whitehurst and colleagues (Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, in press), dialogic reading is:

a specific technique of parent-child reading which is based on the theory that practice in using language, feedback regarding language, and appropriately scaffolded adult-child interactions in the context of picture book reading facilitate young children's language development (p.3).

As defined, dialogic reading changes the roles of shared book reading so that a parent helps a child become a teller of the story. The parent becomes the listener, the questioner, the audience for the child. Therefore, the children learn most from books when they are actively involved (Whitehurst, n.d.). Following the fundamental reading technique in dialogic reading developed by Whitehurst, the PEER sequence is used in the present study. The sequence is described as follows. The adult:

- **P**rompts the child to say something about the book,
- Evaluates the child's response,
- Expands the child's response by rephrasing and adding information to it, and
- **R**epeats the prompt to make sure the child has learned from the expansion.

According to the PEER sequence, Whitehurst illustrates a short interaction between a parent and a child. For example, during the book reading, the parent may ask the child, "What is this?" (the prompt) while pointing to a picture of a truck. The child says, *truck*, and the parent follows with a feedback, "That's right" (the evaluation); "it's a red fire truck" (the expansion); "can you say *fire truck*?" (the repetition).

Through a series of empirical studies conducted to investigate the effectiveness of dialogic reading programs for children from different backgrounds such as socioeconomic and native languages, dialogic reading has been found to have a positive influence on children's language skills, especially vocabulary. For example, Chow and McBride-Chang (2003) designed an experiment to test the hypothesis that the dialogic-reading intervention could produce greater gains in language and literacy skills of children compared with those engaged in typical parent-child reading. Eighty-six Hong Kong Chinese kindergarten children were tested on the Chinese literacy test and a picture vocabulary test before and after the program. They were assigned randomly into 3 different conditions: dialogic reading, typical reading, and control. Results of the study indicated children in the dialogic reading group benefiting significantly from the intervention. In addition, early literacy-related activities at home had strong and direct effects on both children's literacy growth and language development in Chinese.

Even though the research on implementing shared-book reading intervention in kindergarteners is growing, few researchers have examined Thai parent-child reading together specifically in English reading. This study attempts to generate information and inspire further research in this area. With respect to Whitehurst's work, this study focuses on the dialogic reading method. This research investigated further on the factors associated with children's vocabulary development: parent backgrounds, frequency of parent-child reading, and beliefs about L2 learning. The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by Horwitz (1985) was also used in the study. In response to the literature, the researcher investigated the following questions:

- 1. What are the characteristics of parents who engaged in parent-child book reading?
- 2. What are the reasons for reading to children as reported by their parents?
- 3. What beliefs about English language learning do Thai parents report?
- 4. Regarding the PEER sequence for dialogic reading program, what are the techniques that the parents use during book reading?
- 5. Does the frequency of parent-child book reading relate concurrently to children's English vocabulary development within the dialogic reading intervention?
- 6. Is there any significant difference between the kindergarten children's scores on English vocabulary before and after participating in the dialogic reading program?

Methodology

Participants

The 108 participants included parents and their children (aged between 3-to 6 years old). The mean age of the children was 3 years, 8 months. The children attended kindergarten 1-3 (3 different classes) at a school in Phayao province, Thailand. The school is private that served 3-6 year-old children. Three kindergarten teachers in the school were informed of the parent-child program. They voluntarily participate in this program. The study was conducted collaboratively with three main parties: the researcher, the teachers, and the parents.

Materials

The reading program was conducted for 6 weeks, between Mid-June and July 2013. Because all participants speak Thai as their primary language, the materials were explained in Thai. The research materials are as follows:

1. Questionnaire

The goal was to investigate parents' characteristics and frequency of shared book reading. In response to the goal, a questionnaire was adapted from the public report on the frequency of parent-child reading (National Statistical Office, 2011). After being granted permission from Westerlund and Lagerberg to use the question items in this study, the researcher translated them from English into Thai so that primary or secondary caretakers of the children were able to answer the questions effectively and forcefully. Only the caregivers who participated in the program could fill out the questionnaire for demographic information.

2. The Beliefs About Foreign Language Learning Intervention version 2.0 (BALLI)

To investigate the parents' beliefs about English language learning, the researcher was granted permission from Elaine Horwitz to use BALLI in the study. According BALLI, the original questionnaire consisted of 44 items. Two items were eliminated because the questions were not relevant to the purposes of the study. According to Horwitz's (1987) work, the BALLI measures beliefs about five themes: (1) foreign language aptitude, (2) the difficulty of language learning, (3) the nature of language learning, (4) learning and communication strategies, and (5) motivations. All items were rated on a 5-point rating scale, with 40 items ranging from strongly agree (5), to strongly disagree (1). For item 4, the response options asking for the difficulty of the English language ranged from very difficult to very easy, and the item 15 asking about how long it takes to learn English very well ranged from less than one year to a respondent can't learn a language in one hour per day.

3. A Picture Aesop Book and Audio CD-Rom

The Aesop book given to the parents consists of four Aesop fable stories: 1)The Hen and the Golden Eggs, 2) A Father and His Sons, 3) The Businessman and Donkey, 4) The Father, his Son, and their Ass. In order to ensure that every child and his/her parent would listen to fables and pronounce words appropriately, the CD-Roms of the audio fable narration were also provided.

4. Receptive Vocabulary Test

The lexical knowledge was measured within the context of parent-child reading using the dialogic reading method. The aim of the test was to measure the specific words that the children learned from four different Aesop fable stories. The test words were well clarified in the storybook with illustrations. The test was designed to measure English receptive (hearing) vocabulary of the children in this study. Each test item consisted of four different pictures, representing four different words. At each page, there were four blocks, black and white drawings. Administer took approximately 10-15 minutes per a child. The researcher or the test administrator read a word and asked a child to point to a picture that represented that specific word. The test administrator had to make sure that the children understood the direction before the test began. Overall reliability of the vocabulary test (alpha) was .78, which is acceptable for a teacher made test (Wells & Wollack, 2003).

Procedures

During the first week, the researcher trained the parents on how the dialogic reading worked, and what they could do to promote their children's reading. As this study focused on how parents'

DR implementing at home affected children's language and literacy acquisition, the training sessions focused on the training of parents rather than on the children. In the training session, parents were trained to use DR and to use the materials for DR through live instruction and demonstration conducted by the researcher. The teachers acted as the facilitators in the data collection and concurrently encouraged the parents to continue their reading with their children. In addition, the pre-program questionnaires were distributed to the parents. All children were individually pretested on fourteen target English words.

The parent-child reading program was conducted for four weeks. Each parent was provided with a book of four different Aesop fables and a guideline that included information about the DR technique. The fundamental reading technique in DR is the PEER sequence: the parent prompts the child to say something about the storybook, evaluates the child's response, expands the child's responses by rephrasing and adding information, and repeats the prompt to ensure the child has learned from the expansion. Parents were expected to read with their children using DR. In each week, the parents were assigned to read a different Aesop fable. This way, one story covered 7 days with 30-40 minutes per day. Supervision was also provided to the teachers and the parents during the 4-week program. Each class was visited twice a week in person or over the phone to ensure that teachers mentored, facilitated the parents and the children; and to find out whether they encountered any problems. The teachers collaboratively and closely worked with the parents such as weekly monitoring the reading program. Some families sent some pictures of parent-child reading together to the teachers electronically.

The sixth week, children were then immediately posttested on the vocabulary test by way of the same measurement used in pretesting. A follow-up questionnaire was distributed to the parents. Also contributing importantly to the use of reading technique in dialogic reading developed by Whitehurst, the parents were asked to report specific strategies (e.g., the PEER sequence) that they used while reading at home.

Results

In the first set of analyses demonstrated descriptive information on the parents' demographic data and the frequency of shared reading at home. The second set of the analyses described beliefs about English language learning. The last set of the analyses examined whether the children performed better on English vocabulary development after engaging in the dialogic reading program.

Descriptive Information on the Participants' Demographic Data and their Reading

Among the children, 52% were boys, 48% were girls. Over 60% of the children were 4-to 5 years old. A majority of the parents (n = 38, 70.3%) were at the age between 31- to 40 years old. The parents reported that they attained below undergraduate level (n = 19, 35.2%) or at the undergraduate level (n = 27, 50%). Over 60% of the respondents reported that households received salary payment between less than 10,000 – 20,000 baht (around 333 – US\$ 667). One-third of the respondents read to their children 3 to 4 times a week. To forcefully investigate individuals' data, the results show that the parents who did not go to college tended to read with their children more than 4 times per week.

		Frequency	Percent
		(<i>n</i>)	(%)
Child's Age (years)	3	17	31.5
	4	11	20.4
	5	22	40.7
	6	4	7.4
Parent's Age (years)	21 - 25	1	1.9
	26 - 30	8	14.8
	31 – 35	18	33.3
	36 - 40	20	37.0
	≥41	7	13.0
Parent's Education	below undergraduate	19	35.2
	undergraduate	27	50.0
	graduate	8	14.8
Household Income	less than 10,000	7	13.0
	10,001 - 15,000	16	29.6
	15,001 - 20,000	10	18.5
	20,001 - 25,000	3	5.6
	25,001 - 30,000	5	9.3
	≥30,001	13	24
Frequency of Reading	1-2	18	33.3
	3-4	19	35.2
	4>	17	31.5

Table 1: Characteristics of the Participants

Beliefs about English Language Learning

According to Horwitz's five themes (1987), the data were analyzed and interpreted as follows:

Foreign Language Aptitude

Responses to the items show that participants agreed with the statements of most items. Half of the participants (50%, n = 27) strongly believed that it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language. Over 70% of the respondents reported that they neutrally believed that some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages, and that Thai people can learn to speak a foreign language (65%, n = 35). However, a majority (67%, n = 36) strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement that people who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages. In addition, 85% of the participants strongly agreed or agreed that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

Difficulty of Language Learning

A large proportion (73%, n = 39) strongly agreed or agreed with the statement that some languages being easier to learn than others, and nearly half (47%, n = 25) found the English language of medium difficulty. Only a very few participants (10%, n = 5) believed that spending less than one hour per week learning a foreign language would take them less than one year to speak the language very well. Most respondents believed it took longer, and approximately 21% of the participants (n = 11) even believed that one could not learn English by studying it for one hour per day.

Note: Household income per month (Thai Baht); Frequency of reading per week

The Nature of Language Learning

The responses showed that one-thirds of the participants believed that it was best to learn English in an English-speaking country. Many strongly believed that the most important part of learning English is learning vocabulary words (58%, n = 31), that grammar and translation were also crucial (60%, n = 32; 70%, n = 38 respectively).

Learning and Communication Strategies

Responses to the items on learning and communication strategies indicate a large proportion (50%, n = 27) of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language reflecting that the ability to learn a foreign language depends on individual capability. Many strongly agreed with that statement that it will be difficult for beginning students to speak correctly if they are allowed to make mistakes (58%, n = 31). A small percentage (8%, n = 4) of the respondents strongly disagreed that it is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation. Over 70% of the participants strongly disagreed or disagreed that one should not say anything in English until one can say it correctly. However, they enjoy practicing English with English native speakers they meet (58%, n = 31%), and with multi-media such as cassettes or CD Roms (76%, n = 41). A smaller percentage (28%, n = 15) of the participants reported that they feel timid speaking English with other people.

Motivations and Expectations

Fifty-seven percent (n = 31) of the participant believed that they will learn to speak English very well, and that they want to speak English well. Many responses indicated to agree (37%, n = 20) or to be neutral (30%, n = 16) with the statement that Thai people feel it is important to speak English. Over 60% of the participants would like to learn English so that they can get to know English speakers. Approximately half of the participants would like to have English-speaking friends. An overwhelming majority (82%, n = 44) of the respondents believed that if they learn to speak English very well, they will have better opportunities for a good job.

Dialogic Reading Activities

The results show that the parents tended to give their children more information to stimulate their imagination and communication. The parents also indicated that they repeated what they read to their child after they finished their reading. A few activities were ignored in reading such as paying attention to their children, sharing their experience between a parent and his/her child, and giving the child praise or feedback.

Vocabulary

The receptive vocabulary test had 14 items that were scored from 0 to 1. Table 6 shows the number of children who received a score of 1 on pretest and posttest of each word. There was a significant increase in posttest across all words, and some words were dramatically increased such as donkey, old, and sons. The children had an average posttest scores of 8.26 (SD = 3.06) which is significantly higher than an average pretest scores of 3.70 (SD = 1.48), t(53) = -9.52, p = .00 at the alpha level of .05. The statistical results indicate the improvement as a result of the dialogic reading program was large. The further findings indicate parents' educational background moderately related to the frequency of parent-child reading, r = -.28, p < .05. The pretest and posttest scores were computed to indicate the gain scores (see Appendix A).After comparing the scores between the tests, 18 children who gained more than 5 scores different

were investigated further to examine whether the factors (frequency of reading, educational background, and household income) influenced the children' lexical development. The results show that 60% (n = 11) of the parents of these 18 children graduated with bachelor or higher degrees. Approximately half of them had household income payment between less than 10,000 baht and 20,000 baht per month.

Discussion

The purposes of this study were to explore parents' backgrounds, their beliefs about English language learning beliefs, and to compare the receptive English vocabulary development of 3-to 6-year old children between before and after engaging in the parent-child reading with the dialogic reading method. The results of the study were discussed as follows:

Parent's Backgrounds

According to the demographic results, parents' age was not associated with the scores of the tests. Across low and moderate-income families, these Thai parents were interested in their children's education. Further findings show that the parents who did not go to college were enthusiastic in reading with their children as they indicated that they read to their children more than four times per week. Overall, these parents expressed very favorable attitudes toward FL learning and showed high motivation in supporting their children's language learning. It can be assumed that parents across all educational backgrounds and variation of household incomes valued English learning with great expectations for their children's educational success. Similarly, Davis-Kean found that parents' education levels strongly related with the children's' achievement and expectations (Davis-Kean, 2005 as cited in Dubow, Boxer, and Huesmann, 2009). For young learners, parents' involvement and attitudes toward language learning are two important factors in L2 development (Gardner, 1985). The results of the present study also showed that parents' education was associated with the relatively high frequency rate of sharedbook reading at home. Likewise, researchers have shown that there were a positive association between parents' levels of education and their book reading (Scarborough & Dobrich, 1994 as cited in Raikes et al., 2006).

Parents' Beliefs about English Language Learning

To fulfill discuss the beliefs about parents' English learning and their expectation to their children is a stimulating task. BALLI and the responses to the questionnaires demonstrated that the parents expected their children to be successful in English learning as the parents believed that they themselves could do well in speaking English. The parents also valued the knowledge of English as a pathway to achieve their career goals with better job opportunities. The results are congruent with the findings from the studies conducted by Yong and Campbell's (1995) and Friedrich (2000), Chinese and Brazilian participants indicated the desire for learning English to get a better job or promotion as a means of social ascension. The results of the present study also show that the participants realized that it would take time to learn English.

Dialogic Reading

As reported, the dialogic reading method strongly affected daily reading habits and outcomes of receptive vocabulary. The children significantly gained higher vocabulary scores after participating in the reading program. The children learned new words at a prodigious rate. In addition to reasons involving parent-child verbal interaction, the parents often reported that they

gave their children more information to stimulate their imagination and communication. The parents also summarized the story to their child after they finished their reading. A few activities were ignored in reading such as paying attention to their children, sharing their experience between a parent and his/her child, and giving the child praise or feedback. This fact is interesting to note in light of the number of parental involvement concerns. A study conducted by Gentner, Loewenstein, & Hung (2007) underlines the importance of language guiding supported by caregivers who explicitly explain the meanings of new words, but much of it must be accomplished with implicit guidance. Consequently, the parents' roles as questioners, supporters, and audiences as introduced in the dialogic reading process were assumed to influence on the children's lexical gains. As the results of analysis demonstrate, dialogic reading method influenced the parents -child reading involvement across all factors: age of the parents, educational background, household income, and frequency of reading.

Implications

Despite the fact that it is not possible to generalize these findings to all Thai families, this study has several implications for parents, teachers, and policy makers who work with EFL children and families. First, this study supports the home reading program using dialogic reading method which has a positive impact on student achievement and family literacy (Stirling McDowell Foundation, 2001). Previous studies have demonstrated that reading with parents or caregivers established a great deal of valuable communications and improvements of vocabulary. Consequently, it is recommended that parents should spend more quality time with their children. Finally, along with other implications, policy makers who involve in essentially political concerns should consider parent-child reading program as a crucial path to national success.

Conclusions

With little research focusing on parent-child reading and the implementation of the dialogic reading among Thai children has not been conducted, this study gives support to growing research regarding these areas that are becoming increasingly essential. According to the results, parents across all backgrounds were actively involved in their children's reading that was congruent with their positive attitudes toward FL learning. As the results of analysis demonstrate, the dialogic reading method significantly influenced the children's lexical development.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study has several limitations. First, the sample size of the study is relatively small, so the researcher could not contribute to variations of samples' backgrounds or levels of English proficiency. Another limitation is that the researcher analyzed receptive vocabulary that is generally associated with several linguistic elements, without dividing it into specific categories. Future research should undertake an in-depth examination of the information that is related to second language acquisition and the participants' experiences during the reading program. In addition, future research should consider varieties of vocabulary assessment, and the implementation of the dialogic reading with participants from different backgrounds.

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Subject	Pretest	Posttest	Gain	Subject	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	3.00	4.00	1	28	1.00	9.00	8
2	3.00	4.00	1	29	3.00	6.00	3
3	2.00	5.00	3	30	4.00	8.00	4
4	3.00	3.00	0	31	2.00	5.00	3
5	4.00	4.00	0	32	5.00	4.00	-1
6	5.00	6.00	1	33	4.00	7.00	3
7	6.00	8.00	2	34	4.00	7.00	3
8	3.00	8.00	5	35	3.00	6.00	3
9	5.00	11.00	6	36	3.00	4.00	1
10	5.00	6.00	1	37	3.00	5.00	2
11	6.00	10.00	4	38	4.00	6.00	2
12	5.00	8.00	3	39	6.00	7.00	1
13	5.00	12.00	7	40	3.00	4.00	1
14	5.00	9.00	4	41	5.00	5.00	0
15	4.00	9.00	5	42	4.00	5.00	1
16	5.00	9.00	5	43	5.00	13.00	8
17	5.00	6.00	1	44	5.00	9.00	4
18	5.00	9.00	4	45	5.00	7.00	2
19	5.00	10.00	5	46	1.00	9.00	8
20	3.00	6.00	3	47	4.00	11.00	7
21	4.00	10.00	6	48	1.00	10.00	9
22	5.00	9.00	4	49	3.00	14.00	11
23	4.00	9.00	5	50	1.00	13.00	12
24	4.00	14.00	10	51	1.00	11.00	10
25	6.00	12.00	6	52	1.00	13.00	12
26	1.00	9.00	8	53	2.00	13.00	11
27	4.00	11.00	7	54	2.00	14.00	12

Appendix A: Data for the Comparison of Children's Pretest Posttest Gains

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Abstract

The purposes of this research were 1) to study English reading ability of graduate students in 2013 at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology 2) to compare English reading ability of graduate students according to genders and majors and 3) to study opinions in English reading of graduate students.

The research samplings were 30 graduate students in 2013 academic year derived through simple random sampling technique. The instruments for gathering the data were English reading ability test and questionnaire. The statistics for analyzing the data were frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, t-test, F-test and content analysis.

The research findings were as follows; 1) effects of English reading ability of graduate students were at moderate level, 2) students with different genders had statistically significant differences at 0.05 level, 3) there were statistically significant differences between majors at 0.05 level, 4) supplemental suggestions were also discussed.

Keywords: English Reading Ability, English Reading Assessment

Introduction

Reading Comprehension is a skill that is critical in the education success of all individuals. Without adequate reading comprehension skills, students can struggle in many subject areas. Reading comprehension is an important skill for all areas of school (Koda, 2005).

Recent accounts of the reading process emphasize that fluent, proficient reading is rapid, purposeful, motivated, interactive, comprehending and flexible, and that it develops gradually (Alderson 2000:149). Interactivity refers, among others, to the interaction of many component skills potentially in simultaneous operation (Grabe 1991:383). Maybe it is impossible to rank order the component skills, automatic recognition skills, vocabulary and structural knowledge; formal discourse structure knowledge, content or world knowledge, synthesis and evaluation skills or strategies monitoring that are proposed to make fluent reading (Grabe 1991:379).

The Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology has been operating under the philosophy of "disseminating knowledge and building the economic base." One of the TNI objectives is to generate human resources who have abilities in the advancement of technology and industrial management. Moreover, the TNI concept of program administration focuses on the graduate students' language skills, so that graduate students will be able to communicate in English. In order to achieve the TNI objectives, TNI has provided English for graduate student course which is provided for the students from all majors (TNI Student Handbook, 2013, 18).

Graduate students have problems in reading and also tend to lack motivation to read because they need to improve their reading strategies and practice reading skill. Moreover, the problem often in teaching reading is that instructional contents are dated and too difficult, and learners are not interested and do not understand the culture in which the language is spoken. Thus, instructional management must depend on the learner's interests and ability, and his motivation to read. A test which assesses their reading ability based on various skills such as reading comprehension consists of reading for main idea, reading for topic, pronoun reference, author opinion, and others. Moreover, vocabulary expression, cloze test is provided for the test.

Good testing practice has been discussed very extensively in language testing literature, and has been approached from different perspectives by language testing researchers. A common approach to addressing this issue, for example, is to discuss how a language test should be developed, administered, and evaluated. These discussions are primarily focusing on good practice in each and every step in the testing cycle, including, for instance, test specifications, item writing, test administration, marking, reporting test results, and *post hoc* test data analyses. The publications in this series are concentrated on discussing good practice in the testing or assessment of a specific language ability or skill, including reading (Alderson, 2000).

In conclusion, the researcher created English reading test for graduate students which was then checked by experts in order to improve the study of reading for graduate students in academic year 2013. The results derived from this research will provide guidelines for improvement and development of instruction and instructional materials for future courses.

Research objectives

There are three main objectives of the research as follows:

1) to study English reading ability of graduate students in 2013 at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology.

2) to compare English reading ability of graduate students according to genders and majors and.

3) to study opinions in English reading of graduate students.

Research Design

The data was gathered and analyzed as follows:

1. Population and sampling

1.1 The population is graduate students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, Bangkok, in 2013 academic year. There were 60 students from four classes.

1.2 The sample consisted of 30 students, and was derived from a simple random sampling technique.

2. Duration in experiment

The experiment ran for 12 weeks (2 hour per week)

3. Variables

Variables in this study were as follows:

- 3.1 The English reading ability of graduate students.
- 3.2 The opinions of graduate students with English reading instruction.
- 4. Research Instruments

4.1 A 2-hour English reading proficiency test (60 items: 60 scores).

4.2 A questionnaire constructed by the researcher assessing opinions about English reading instruction.

5. Construction and Development of Research Instruments

The researcher constructed the proficiency test and the questionnaire in the following way:

Proficiency test

Students were given pre- and post-class proficiency tests. The tests had the same format and consisted of 60 items (60 scores). The duration of each test was 120 minutes.

First, the researcher studied the objectives of English reading teaching, and focused on English reading skills and strategies. Emphasis was placed on reading for main ideas, reading for topic sentences, reading for pronoun references, reading for facts and opinions, reading for sequencing events, reading for author's purposes, reading for inference.

Moreover, 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 reading skills and goals for each items, 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 60 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 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 0.89.

The Questionnaire

The researcher created a questionnaire to investigate students' opinions about reading English teaching. The questionnaire was constructed using opened-end questions.

The data from the experts was applied with the following formula: IOC = ΣR

$$DC = \Sigma \underline{R}$$

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.

Statistic Used in Data Analysis

1. The comparison between the male and female was done using t-test, which was calculated by computer program.

2. The F-test was used to measure the students' English reading achievement on reading test according to students' majors.

3. The data from the questionnaire were analyzed by using content analysis method.

Results Results of the data analysis Phase 1: Results of demographic data of graduate students

samplings	Number of students	%
Majors		
1. EEM (Master of Business Administration Program in Executive Enterprise Management)	11	36.66
2. MET (Master Program in Engineering Technology)	11	36.66
3. MIM (Master of Business Administration Program in Industrial Management)	8	26.68
Total	30	100

 Table1: Results of demographic data analysis of graduate students

The table above showed that the percentage of graduate students in majors ranged from 36.66% for EEM (*Master of Business Administration Program in Executive Enterprise Management*), 36.66% for MET (*Master Program in Engineering Technology*), and 26.68% for MIM (*Master of Business Administration Program in Industrial Management*).

Phase 2: Results of reading test scores analysis of graduate students

No.	Majors	Scores (60)	percentage
1	EEM	44	73.33
2	EEM	38	63.33
3	EEM	35	58.33
4	EEM	47	78.33
5	EEM	49	81.66
6	EEM	52	86.66
7	EEM	46	76.66
8	EEM	44	73.33
9	EEM	45	75.00
10	EEM	39	65.00
11	EEM	40	66.66
12	MET	35	58.33
13	MET	33	55.00
14	MET	32	53.33
15	MET	30	50.00
16	MET	39	65.00
17	MET	45	75.00
18	MET	42	70.00
19	MET	47	78.33
20	MET	44	73.33
21	MET	34	56.66
22	MET	32	53.33
23	MIM	39	65.00

Table2: results of English reading test of 30 graduate students

Iclc2013-74

24	MIM	40	66.66
25	MIM	44	73.33
26	MIM	43	71.66
27	MIM	47	78.33
28	MIM	50	83.33
29	MIM	41	68.33
30	MIM	45	75.00
	Total scores	1,241	68.94

The table showed that the total scores of the 30 graduate students were 1,241 and 68.94 for the total percentage which effects of English reading ability of graduate students were at moderate level.

Table 3: results of mean scores and standard deviation of 30 graduate students according to majors

No.	Majors	Mean (x)	S.D
1	EEM	43.54	5.08
2	MET	37.54	6.05
3	MIM	43.62	3.70
Total		41.36	5.79

The table showed that the total of mean scores was 41.36 (S.D=5.79) which in majors ranged from (\bar{x} =43.62) for MIM, (\bar{x} =43.54) for EEM, and (\bar{x} =37.54) for MET respectively.

Phase 3: The comparison of the reading test for the 30 graduate students according to genders and majors. The statistics used in the data analysis consisted of mean (\bar{x}) , standard deviation (S.D), t-test and F-test

Table4: The comparison of the reading test for the 30 graduate students according to genders was as follows:

Genders	Number of students	Total score	(x)	S.D	t	Sig
Male	15	60	36.67	6.12		
					26.622*	0.000
Female	15	60	47.25	4.48		

* Statistical significance at 0.05 level

The reading test scores of female were higher than the reading test scores of male by 0.05 (Sig = 0.000 < 0.05). The mean score of the female was 47.25, higher than the male (36.67 out of 60). For the t-test, it was 26.622. Results indicated that students reading ability according to genders had statistically significant differences at 0.05 level.

Table5: The comparison of the before and after test according to major	ors
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Test	groups	SS	df	MS	F	sig	Sheffe'
Reading	Between groups	613.523	3	365.742	20.633	.003*	MET-EEM
	Within groups	372.895	27	6.413			MET-MIN
	Total	828.438	30				

* Statistical significance at 0.05 level

The graduate students with different majors showed statistically significant differences on reading test at .05 level. When considered in each major, it was found that there were 2 pairs of different majors as following;

Pair1: Graduate students from MET major and EEM major Pair 2: students from MET major and MIM major

Phase 4: The results of the students' opinions from questionnaire were as follows:

Questions	statements	frequency	percentage
1. What strategies do you want to improve your reading?		30	100
	1. Reading for main idea and reading for details are suitable for the learners.	16	53.33
	2. Skim and scan reading is very important for students to improve reading.	9	30.00
	3. Reading for summarizing is suitable for graduate students to conclude reading passage.	3	10.00
	4. Reading for pronoun reference is essential.	2	6.67
2. What activity do you want to apply in teaching reading?		30	100
	1. Reading activity through internet based instruction should be applied in teaching reading.	9	30.00
	2. Task based learning should be utilized in teaching reading.	8	26.67
	3. Computer aided instruction should be taken in teaching reading.	6	20.00
	4. Reading from authentic materials such as; newspapers, magazines and journal should be adapted in teaching reading.	4	13.33
	5. Semantic mapping is very suitable.	3	10.00
3. What kind of reading passage do you want to read?		30	100
·	1. Global warming issues such as; flooding and storms are preferred for reading passage.	12	40.00
	2. Sports issues, such as football, volleyball, boxing etc., are interesting for reading.	8	26.67
	3. The issue about technology and sciences is very interesting because it relates with students' fields.	6	20.00
	4. The passage about sufficiency economy of the King rama9 is very interesting for reading	4	13.33
4. What kind of teaching materials do you want to use in teaching and learning?		30	100
	1. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) materials are preferred for teaching-learning	16	53.33

Table 6: Results of content analysis about opinions in teaching reading skill

	English.		
	2. Paper based instruction is suitable because students can take note their ideas.	14	46.67
5. What environment do you want in classroom?		30	100
	1. A generous teacher supports a positive learning environment.	14	46.67
	2. Flexible environment is suitable for teaching and learning in the classroom.	7	23.33
	3. Wireless internet should be provided in the classroom.	5	16.67
	4. I want a pleasure classroom.	3	10.00
	5. A beautiful classroom increases my learning motivation.	1	3.33

The table indicated opinions and suggestions given by graduate students regarding the teaching reading skill as follows:

Opinions from **question1:** *What strategies do you want to improve your reading?* For this question, the following opinions were given by the graduate students:

1. Reading for main idea and reading for details are suitable for the learners (53.33% or 16 students).

2. Skim and scan reading is very important for students to improve reading (30% or 9 students).

3. Reading for summarizing is suitable for graduate students to conclude reading passage (10% or 3 students).

4. Reading for pronoun reference is essential (6.67% or 2 students).

Opinions from **question2**: *What activity do you want to apply in teaching reading?* For this question, the following opinions were given by the graduate students:

1. Reading activity through internet based instruction should be applied in teaching reading (30% or 9 students).

2. Task based learning should be utilized in teaching reading (26.67% or 8 students).

3. Computer aided instruction should be taken in teaching reading (20% or 6 students).

4. Reading from authentic materials such as; newspapers, magazines and journal should be adapted in teaching reading (13.33% or 4 students).

5. Semantic mapping is very suitable (10% or 3 students).

Opinions from question3: What kind of reading passage do you want to read?

1. Global warming issues such as; flooding and storms are preferred for reading passage (40% or 12 students).

2. Sports issues, such as; football, volleyball, boxing etc., are interesting for reading (26.67 or 8 students).

3. The issue about technology and sciences is very interesting because it relates with students' fields (20% or 6 students).

4. The passage about sufficiency economy of the King rama9 is very interesting for reading (13.33% or 4 students).

Opinions from question4: What kind of teaching materials do you want to use in teaching and learning?

1. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) materials are preferred for teaching-learning English (53.33% or 16 students).

2. Paper based instruction is suitable because students can take note their ideas (46.67% or 14 students).

Opinions from **question5**: *What environment do you want in classroom?*

1. A generous teacher supports a positive learning environment (46.67% or 14 students).

2. 2. Flexible environment is suitable for teaching and learning in the classroom (23.33% or 7 students).

3. Wireless internet should be provided in the classroom (16.67 or 5 students).

4. I want a pleasure classroom (10% or 3 students).

5. A beautiful classroom increases my learning motivation (3.33% or 1 student).

Discussion

The results of the study indicate:

1. The total scores of the 30 graduate students were 1,241 and for the total percentage it was 68.94 which effects of English reading ability of graduate students were at moderate level. This may be because the graduate students were taught reading strategies and they had the background knowledge to understand the contents. This is advocated by Carrell (1983) who stated that background knowledge has played an important role in reading comprehension development for a long time. The effectiveness of background knowledge in improving reading comprehension indicates the constructive nature of comprehension, and the critical role of the reader's prior knowledge in that construction. In addition, the TNI students applied the reading strategies in reading passage to enhance their understanding. Reading strategies can be classified according to the time they are used – before, during, or after reading. They also can be categorized as either global or local according to the part of the text on which they focus (Young & Oxford, 1997).

2. The reading test scores of female were higher than the reading test scores of male by 0.05 level. This may be because female had motivation and background knowledge about reading strategies (Young & Oxford, 1997). Moreover, they the teaching-learning activity in each week was constructed according to an English reading theory developed by Williams (1994) who started learners with easy activities, progressing to more difficult activities for pre-reading, and asking question in while-reading activities to check the students' understanding. In the post-reading stage, the researcher created semantic maps and information charts to help the learners fill in information in the correct way. Furthermore, the learners used reading strategies to assist in reading comprehension (Aebersold and Field, 1997; Grabe, 2003).

3. Results of students' opinions indicated students had positive ideas with reading class. This seemed to be because they understood and applied reading 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 language learning strategies (Day and Bamford 2002).

Conclusion

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

1. The total scores of the 30 graduate students were 1,241 and for the total percentage it was 68.94 which effects of English reading ability of graduate students were at moderate level.

2. The reading test scores of female were higher than the reading test scores of male by 0.05 (Sig = 0.000 < 0.05). The mean score of the female was 47.25, higher than the male (36.67 out of 60). For the t-test, it was 26.622. Results indicated that students reading ability according to genders had statistically significant differences at 0.05 level.

3. The graduate students with different majors showed statistically significant differences on reading test at .05 level. When considered in each major, it was found that there were 2 pairs of different majors as following;

Pair1: Graduate students from MET major and EEM major

Pair 2: students from MET major and MIM major

4. Opinions from **question1:** *What strategies do you want to improve your reading?* For this question, the following opinions were given by the graduate students:

1. Reading for main idea and reading for details are suitable for the learners (53.33% or 16 students).

2. Skim and scan reading is very important for students in improving reading (30% or 9 students).

3. Reading for summarizing is suitable for graduate students in conclusion about reading passage (10% or 3 students).

4. Reading for pronoun reference is essential for graduate students (6.67% or 2 students).

Opinions from **question2:** *What activity do you want to apply in teaching reading?* For this question, the following opinions were given by the graduate students:

1. Reading activity through internet based instruction should be applied in teaching reading (30% or 9 students).

2. Task based learning should be utilized in teaching reading (26.67% or 8 students).

3. Computer aided instruction should be taken in teaching reading (20% or 6 students).

4. Reading from authentic materials such as; newspapers, magazines and journal should be adapted in teaching reading (13.33% or 4 students).

5. Semantic mapping is very suitable (10% or 3 students).

Opinions from question3: What kind of reading passage do you want to read?

1. Global warming issues such as; flooding and storms are preferred for reading passage (40% or 12 students).

2. Sports issues such as; football, volleyball, boxing etc. are interesting for reading (26.67 or 8 students).

3. The issue about technology and sciences is very interesting because it relates with fields of students' learning (20% or 6 students).

4. The passage about sufficiency economy of the king rama9 is very interesting for reading (13.33% or 4 students).

Opinions from question4: What kind of teaching materials do you want to use in teaching and learning?

1. Computer assisted language learning materials are preferred for teaching-learning English (53.33% or 16 students).

2. Paper based instruction is suitable because students can write and put their ideas by taking a note on it (46.67% or 14 students).

Opinions from question5: What environment do you want in classroom?

1. A kind teacher is a good environment (46.67% or 14 students).

2. 2. Flexible environment is suitable for teaching and learning in the classroom (23.33% or 7 students).

3. Wireless is excellent should be provided in the classroom (16.67 or 5 students).

4. I want a happy classroom which is not too stressed (10% or 3 students).

5. A beautiful classroom makes me motivation in learning (3.33% or 1 student).

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Young, D., & Oxford, R. (1997). A gender-related analysis of strategies used to process input in the native language and foreign language. *Applied Language Learning*, 8, 43-73. Donald Patterson Kanda University of International Studies, Japan donaldglen@yahoo.com

Abstract

This paper describes the author's experience in implementing a writing journal program as a regular feature in an EFL course at a foreign-languages university in Japan. It describes the pedagogical rationale; the guidelines followed by students; and various tips in running such a program. Following this is a brief examination of the literature on the effects of freewriting on EFL students' writing fluency. It concludes with a discussion of several perceived benefits and concerns of such a program.

Keywords: writing journals, freewriting, fluency

Introduction

Likely every teacher has a few activities in their pedagogical bag of tricks that they either wish they had known about or implemented sooner. For me, one of those activities was the inclusion of a regular freewriting journal in my writing classes. The impetus for my implementation of a writing journal arose in a freshman EFL writing course I was teaching a few years ago at a small foreign-languages university in the Tokyo area. It occurred to me that despite being a writing class, the students were engaged in more speaking, reading, and listening about writing than actual writing.

This bothered me for a number of reasons. Some of the students were painfully slow when asked to compose a text in class. For example, overreliance on dictionaries hampered some students' trains of thought. Insecurity about grammar errors slowed others. Furthermore, with so little writing between formal assignments, it was difficult for students to see any progress in their ability or make immediate use of the language they had recently learned in class.

Not unlike many students of their age in Japan, these students had graduated from a grade school system which placed an emphasis on the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary over fluency

(Aspinall, 2003, p.106). It is true that Japan's education ministry [Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (*Monbu-kagaku-shō* in Japanese)] has taken steps to increase students' communicative abilities. For example, the ministry began recruiting native English-speaking Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) in 1987 through its Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme to assist in foreign language education; it mandated that formal English education begin from the fifth grade of elementary school in 2011; and it has plans to formally begin English classes from the third grade by 2020 (The Council of Local Authorities for International Relations, 2010; Kyodo, 2013a; Kyodo, 2013b). Nonetheless, these efforts have mostly been in terms of spoken output with very little attention paid to writing fluency. Nation sums up my feeling with regard to my freshman writing class best:

How can you learn to write without writing? The time-on-task principle simply says that the more time you spend doing something, the better you are likely to be at doing it. (2007, p.1)

Below I describe the simple steps I took in implementing a writing journal component; thereby ensuring students had a chance to write freely in every writing class. Following the explanation is a discussion of the perceived benefits of such a system, as well as a number of concerns.

Explanation

For a freewriting journal system to be successful, it is important for the teacher to provide a clear explanation to the students. This includes both a definition of the key terms "fluency" and "freewriting", and a rationale for the activity.

Defining Fluency and Freewriting

The concept of fluency will likely not be new to the students, but they may be more used to thinking of it in terms of spoken output than written. In a broad sense, to be fluent is to be "able to speak or write a specified foreign language with facility spoken or written with facility" (Collins Dictionary, 2013). Brown (1994, p. 113) provides a more EFL specific definition for fluency activities: "saying or writing a steady flow of language for a short period of time without any self- or other correction at all". Written fluency may be measured in various ways. One may count, over a prescribed time, the number of: pauses the writer makes; the number of incidents of the writer

stopping due to an error; or the total number of words or syllables.

Freewriting, sometimes also referred to as "fast writing" or "quick writing", may appear to be self-explanatory, but for many students it will be a new experience. Elbow and Belanoff (2000) define freewriting as the "writing of ideas or thoughts that come to mind in a given time period without stopping and without editing" (as cited in Hwang, 2010, p. 99). In other words, it is pure written output removed from the revision process.

Freewriting may be divided into two main categories: Freewriting with no specific topic is referred to as "unguided" or "self-sponsored"; If the teacher provides the topic, it is called "focused freewriting" or "teacher-sponsored" (Hwang, 2010, p. 100). Elbow (2008, p. 31) further notes a distinction between "private" freewriting, which is written for oneself, and "public" freewriting, which is written to be shared.

Providing a Rationale

So that the purpose is clear to the students, the teacher should emphasize that the overarching goal of doing a regular writing journal is to build writing fluency. Furthermore, doing a regular writing journal is:

- helpful practice for timed essay situations.
- a chance to activate the language you already know.
- useful as a measure of progress.
- a chance to write freely on topics that interest you without having to worry about evaluation.

Providing the students with the rationale is essential before diving into the activity, as the purpose may not be readily apparent to some. If this is not done, students used to the grammar-translation method may feel the teacher is wasting their time by taking away time from focus on form.

Guidelines

Nation (2007, p.6) advises that fluency activities are ones in which the following criteria are met:

- Familiar language is used.
- There is a focus on communication.

- Speed is encouraged.
- The volume of output for speaking and writing or input for reading and listening is great.

Based on these criteria, I recommend setting the following four **guidelines** for the students:

- 1) Plan what you want to say (i.e. brainstorm and outline).
- 2) Don't worry about mistakes; don't stop to correct. Instead of erasing, just cross words out and continue writing.
- 3) Wait until the writing time is over before checking your dictionary.
- 4) Write as much as possible. Challenge yourself to continually write more than you did in your previous journal entry.

Additionally, I inform students that while they are encouraged to write as freely as possible, they should keep in mind that they will be engaging in "public freewriting" with their classmates and teacher as the audience for their writing. This means that the writing journal differs from a diary in that they will need to explain things so that a third person will easily understand. Furthermore, they should not write anything they are uncomfortable sharing.

Procedure

- 1) Upon introducing the freewriting journal as a regular in-class feature, the teacher should inform the students that they will require a notebook dedicated to the activity.
- 2) At the beginning of each day's activity, the teacher sets a writing topic, which may be related to the theme of the lesson or a recent event. The topic may be in the form of a question (e.g. "What is your favorite school subject?"; "Which make a better pet, dogs or cats?"; "Do you think students should go to school on Saturdays?"; "How do you cook your favorite food?"); it may be a command (e.g. "Describe your favorite place / person."); it may be a sentence stem that students need to complete (e.g. "Five years from now I will be...") or it may be a statement that students must respond to (e.g. "Students should wear uniforms").
- 3) The teacher sets a brainstorming time limit and a writing time limit. For my purposes, I set 2 minutes for brainstorming and 7 minutes for writing. Other teachers may adjust the time limits as appropriate for their classes.
- 4) The students use the brainstorming time to think about what they are going to write (i.e. content) and the order they are going to present it (i.e. structure). Students may use the

brainstorming technique they feel is most appropriate (e.g. mapping, listing, word association).

- 5) When the writing time begins, the students write continuously.
- 6) The teacher monitors the time and advises the students to finish their last sentences when the time is nearly up.
- 7) When the time is up, students do a quick word count to monitor their progress.
- Next, students exchange their notebooks with classmates to read each other's writing. The students can write brief comments and questions about the content of the journal entries. Alternatively, the teacher may use the writing as a precursor to a speaking activity.
- 9) The teacher may collect the notebooks to write an encouraging comment or question about the ideas expressed or the quantity of writing. In keeping with the emphasis on fluency and communication, it is recommended that the teacher refrain from correcting the work for spelling, vocabulary, grammar, or structure.

Additional Tips

Selecting Topics

For the purpose of building fluency, a good writing topic is one that is interesting for students but not too challenging. Ideally, it should encourage the students to recycle recently covered vocabulary or grammar. Importantly, the topic should be one that students will be able to write about for the full time available.

At first the necessity of consistently coming up with a variety of fresh writing topics can be a challenge for the teacher. Thankfully, these days inspiration is only a Google search away as there are several websites that provide ideas for writing prompts. One website I have found to be particularly helpful is *Daily Writing Prompts* (http://www.daily-writing-prompt.com). It includes a variety of prompts by genre (e.g. descriptive, persuasive, narrative, expository), seasonal prompts, and story starters. Another useful site is Daily Teaching Tools (http://www.dailyteachingtools.com/journal-writing-prompts.html), which has a very good list of 180 prompts for journal writing.

Teachers may also want to experiment with using pictures as a prompt. Two other interesting sites are the Tumblr blogs *photoprompts* (http://photoprompts.tumblr.com) and *writing prompts*

(<u>http://writingprompts.tumblr.com</u>), which post prompts with stimulating visual aides. The use of pictures may appeal to more visual learners and inspire more creativity.

Of course, the teacher may forego assigning topics and instead give the students the option of creating their own topics (i.e. unguided/self-sponsored freewriting). In this case though, the brainstorming done prior to writing becomes essential. Students do not need to follow a specific outline as they write, but as with any exercise, they should not start it cold.

Variation: Collaborative Story-telling

As a change of pace, the teacher may try freewriting as a group activity. Collaborative story-telling emphasizes creativity and continuous writing. It usually produces some very humorous results. Here is the procedure:

- 1) Students are put into small groups of 3-6.
- 2) The teacher sets a writing prompt in the form of the first sentence of a story (e.g. "I was walking to school one day when I saw a big black bag on the sidewalk.")
- 3) The students have 2 minutes to write the next few sentences of the story. Each student writes independently in his or her own notebook.
- 4) After the two-minute mark, the teacher says, "Change!" and the students pass their notebooks clockwise to the next person in the group.
- 5) Then the students have two minutes to read the previous lines and compose the next part.
- 6) These steps are repeated 2 or 3 more times before the teacher says, "Change! Conclusion!" and the students must write an ending to the story.
- 7) When everyone is finished, the groups can pass their stories around and read them.
- 8) The teacher may ask the groups to vote on their best stories and read them aloud to the rest of the class.

If your classroom is equipped with enough computers for each student, you may choose to have the students type their stories on a word processor. Then, instead of passing the paper the students change seats and continue writing on a different computer.

Connecting to Other Activities

I have found it valuable to link the students' journal work with other coursework. For example, the journal could be a place for students to write reflections on previously covered material. The topics of the journals can also be linked to subsequent speaking activities such as discussions, interviews, debates, or 4/3/2/1 (a spoken fluency activity in which students attempt to relay the same information to a number of partners but each time with a reduced time limit) as described by Nation (1991, p. 2). Having had the time to brainstorm and express themselves on paper leads to fuller discussions and the recycling of vocabulary.

Charting Progress

If the teacher decides to implement the writing journal as a regular component of the course with a consistent time limit, he or she can have the students do a quick word count by counting the number of words in one line of typical length and multiplying that number by the total number of lines. The students can then chart their progress through the course and aim to increase their word count each time. Actual charts may be created easily using paper or software such as Excel or the spreadsheet function of Google Docs. One advantage to using Google Docs is that students can share their results with the teacher online, allowing the teacher to easily monitor both individual and class progress.

Naturally, the amount students will be able to write will differ depending on a variety of factors such as background knowledge, grammatical difficulty, interest, and type of writing (i.e. descriptive, expository, persuasive, narrative), and even time of day. Students should be reminded of this so as not to lose motivation if their writing speed does not consistently improve. In fact, it is most likely that the students' speed will not improve in such a straightforward manner, but rather in a series of ups and downs.

It may be useful to discuss the concept of the "the plateau effect" with the students in which progress flatlines after a period of rapid improvement. As Xu (2009, p. 68) advises, teachers can help students to understand that the plateau is an "intermediate phase" in which they are consolidating their skills. Teachers can also help students to progress to the next phase by suggesting reflection on their current writing techniques and by adopting new learning strategies.

Benefits

Research indicates that freewriting even over just a short period of time can have beneficial effects on university-level EFL students' English writing fluency and confidence. For example, an 8-week case study from 2010 of eight female college students in Thailand found that guided freewriting helped the students to increase their fluency (Hwang, 2010). Hwang's students wrote in their journals 29 times over the eight weeks and the mean increase in fluency was 3.87 words per minute when comparing the means of the first two weeks with the last two (Hwang, 2010, p. 115).

Hwang's students also responded positively to freewriting in a survey. All of the participants indicated that they "like(d)" the activity and thought it had "increase(d) English writing fluency" (Hwang, 2010, p. 114). The results of this study are particularly compelling as Hwang was a reluctant convert to the concept of freewriting, only embracing it after seeing the positive results.

A study in Japan by Fellner and Apple (2004) similarly found positive results from freewriting over a short period, but on computers. The researchers had students respond to a daily topic by email with responses being posted to a class blog. Students were given 20 minutes to compose their emails every day in a seven-day intensive course. Student output increased 350% over the week from a mean of 31.5 words on day 1 to 121.9 words on day 7, an increase of 4.52 words per minute. There was also a noted increase in the level of vocabulary complexity, with greater usage of words from the 2000-word level of frequently used words by the end of the week.

My own observations echo the formal research findings. In the four years that I have been using writing journals, I have generally seen gradual improvements in my students' writing fluency over the period of a semester. Most students have indicated that they enjoy the activity and find it interesting and meaningful. Through impromptu surveys, I have also learned that approximately half had never done freewriting before in English, and virtually none had done it in their native language, Japanese.

There have been numerous benefits from the standpoint of the teacher. In terms of class management, collecting and distributing the journals each class has become a quick way of taking attendance. The journals can also be to used organize groups and arrange seating. The teacher can make decisions about the composition of student pairs or groups before class and then place the

journals where he or she would like the students to sit. Also, the regular use of the writing journal at the beginning of class helps ensure that class begins quickly and students automatically settle into study mode. In classes in which I have implemented regular freewriting at the beginning, I have found reduced incidents of students straggling into class late as few wish to interrupt the activity.

I have also found that the journals allow me to include an element of spontaneity in the selection of topics. For example, if an idea suddenly occurs to me before class or a topic comes up naturally, you can address it easily in the journal without having to create or change materials. It is also very helpful having the students' free writing all together in the journals. It has enabled me to make quick comparisons between the students' current writing and older work. This provides me with a better overall sense of their progress and their strengths and weaknesses. While my intention was to help the students build their fluency, it has also become an opportunity to get to know the students better, particularly the quieter ones. In addition to having the opportunity to read what is on the students' minds, some students have also initiated a dialogue with me by responding to my comments.

Concerns

Owing to the convenience of the writing journals, there is a risk that the teacher will become overly reliant on them. Therefore, it is important that they be used enough that the students remain in the habit of writing, but not so much that they fatigue of the exercise. The teacher needs to be careful that journal writing does not become a chore or simply a mirror of exam writing. For this reason, it is important that students are provided with topics of interest to them or enough freedom to choose their own topics, and the time limit kept at an appropriate length for the students' level.

Maintaining student motivation is essential to a successful freewriting journal program. As mentioned above, it is imperative that the teacher explains the rationale as some students will want to turn the activity into a focus on accuracy and will ask for their work to be corrected. It can also be hard for the teacher to avoid the temptation of getting out the red pen and pointing out errors. The teacher must remember that introducing an element accuracy evaluation distracts from the fluency criteria of speed and volume.

It is also important that the students clearly understand that while the aim of the activity is to increase fluency, accuracy is still an important element of English-language learning. Further, students should be reminded that by its nature, this type of journal writing is basically informal as it is written for oneself and close peers and without strict attention to structure or any revision. If students write something that they are particularly interested in or proud of, they could be encouraged to develop it through further drafts and editing. Naturally, the writing journal should not take the place of controlled composition, which is submitted for evaluation, but could be used as precursor to such writing.

Conclusion

In describing this writing journal system, my aim has been to share with fellow EFL instructors, one method for encouraging writing fluency that has worked well for my classes and which I wish I had implemented sooner. I encourage teachers to adapt the system in ways that best suit their needs. Writing journals done on word processors or even online are among the countless possibilities. Whatever method you choose, the important thing to remember is, to paraphrase Elbow (2008, p. 30), all freewriting is perfect, so long as you don't stop writing.

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Abstract

The objectives of this research were to investigate the errors in English writing and to discover the causes of the errors committed by the graduate students at Khon Kaen University. The samples of the study were 120 graduate students studying at Khon Kaen University from different faculties. They were assigned to write an opinion paragraph with 150-200 words in order to detect the errors. After the samples finished writing the paragraph, they were required to answer the questionnaire to discover the causes of the errors committed by the samples. The results were revealed that there were 16 types of errors committed by the graduate students which were word choice, spelling, sentence fragment, parts of speech, subject and verb agreement, article, capital letter, preposition, singular and plural nouns, punctuation, run-on sentence, organization error, word order, verb duplication, pronoun and conjunction respectively. In addition, the causes of errors produced by the graduate students were that they had inadequate knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. The implications from the study could be made for improving the curriculum in order to improve graduate students' writing skills.

Keywords: English writing errors, paragraph writing, causes of English writing errors

Introduction

It is apparent that English writing is challenging for ELF learners since writing is a complex skill. Furthermore, Richards & Renandya, 2002, Norrish 1983:63 cited in Sattayatham & Ratanapinyowong, 2008 that writing is difficult and it is more difficult than speaking, especially for ELF learners. However, the ability to write efficiently is becoming increasingly important in global communication. Writing is also recognized as an essential skill for educational, business and personal reasons. It plays an important role in both second language and foreign language education (Weigle, 2002).

In Thailand, it is undeniable that learning to write in English is difficult. Nevertheless, it is impossible to avoid writing in English, especially those of graduate students who are generally required to write in English for their studies. As Grabe and Kaplan (1996:24-25) cited in Boonpattanaporn (2008) that at tertiary level, writing is considered as a standard system of communication and as a tool for acquiring knowledge. Also, EFL learners will require English writing skills ranging from a simple paragraph and summary skills to the capacity to write essays and academic articles.

After an extensive review of English writing area, it was found that teachers in Thailand and other countries have paid a lot attention to errors in writing and also have studied in this field (Myles, 2002, Eun-pyo, 2003, Sattayatham & Honsa, 2007, Peña, 2008, Sattayatham & Ratanapinyowong, 2008). This is because the analysis of errors will allow teachers to realize the problems occurring with learners and this will help teachers to find out the solutions to solve the writing problems.

Therefore, in order to write an effective piece of English writing, learners should not only learn how to write, but also know their weak points. In addition, after studying the related studies, most of the researchers focused on studying the errors of English writing committed by undergraduate students. Therefore, the present study focuses on analyzing the errors in English writing of the graduate students at Khon Kaen University, Thailand. Moreover, the causes of the errors from the students' viewpoints are also investigated.

Research questions

- 1. What are the errors of English writing committed by the graduate students at Khon Kaen University, Thailand?
- 2. What are the causes of errors committed by the graduate students at Khon Kaen University, Thailand?

Writing English as a foreign language

Writing is an expressive language as a writer expresses or shows his or her feeling or idea through the letters (Earle & Zimmerman, 2003). Therefore, if the writing is incorrect, it will lead to reader's misunderstanding. So, the correctness of grammar, lexis, mechanics and writing organization is needed.

However, the ability to produce good writing is not natural; it is usually learned or obtained a set of practices in formal instructional setting. The learners also require to practice and learn through experience (Myles, 2002). As a result, it is common that L2 learners or EFL learners produce errors in their writing.

There is no doubt that writing is very challenging for EFL learners since they have to overcome the personal challenges associated with academic writing which are generating ideas, organization and mechanics in order to develop the skills for genre specific, coherent and readable essays (Kenworthy, 2004, Richards & Renandya, 2002). Writing is a complicated skill which is considered as a complex process as Grabe and Kaplan (1996:24-25) cited in Boonpattanaporn (2008) mentioned that language skills and the ability to express ideas are required while producing writing composition.

Fundamental components of writing skill are collecting information, planning ideas, translating the ideas into the written text, and reviewing ideas and text (Kellogg, 1994). In addition, grammatical correction is needed in writing in English (Harmer, 1988 cited in Lush, 2002) since the writer cannot explain his or her intended meaning to the reader verbally. For this reason, producing well writing product is difficult for English as foreign/second language learners since it integrates difficult skills involved a large number of components which are knowledge of writings, basic structural elements, and adequate knowledge of vocabulary.

Wring errors

Weigle, (2002) stated that writing in a second language may be obstructed because of limited second-language knowledge and it focuses on language rather than content. Second language writing tends to be "constrained", more difficult, and less effective" (p.668) than writing in a first language (Silvia, 1993 cited in Weigle, 2002). It has normally been accepted that the student's errors present information of the existence of a system of language that is different from his or her mother tongue and the target language (Selinker, 1985; Corder, 1985 cited in Wen, 1994).

In addition, errors which have been found in EFL students mostly are grammar, spelling, lexical and punctuations (Orozco, 2002). For example, Mourtaga (2004) found that the most frequent writing errors among Palestinian students who study English as a foreign language are verbs, punctuations and articles. The errors appear in English writing of Thai students which Lush (2002) found are articles, singular/plural nouns, present/past simple interchanged, prepositions,

subject-verb agreement, incorrect tenses, word order, be/have interchanged, have/be interchanged and sentence fragment.

Error analysis

Error analysis is a linguistic study focusing on the errors learners make in a target language. It is also the indicator of the understanding of L2 acquisition's process. Error analysis is also the study of language acquisition's process (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982).

Therefore, error analysis can be the identification of the success in learning and it can also be used as the way for planning teaching and learning. This conforms to the ideas of Kitao and Kaitao (2000) that cited in Sattayatham and Honsa (2007) which claimed that error analysis in language can be used to predict the types of error committed by the learners. This is beneficial for teaching development and selecting teaching methods. Moreover, it can be the indicator of language understanding and the tool for acquiring and understanding language of the learners and also the strategies used by the learners to achieve learning.

Corder (1967) stated that error analysis allows teachers to discover what areas should be focused and what kind of attention is required in language learning. Also, Ellis (2002) mentioned that learners' language errors are part of the language acquisition process. Moreover, Corder (1981) also mentioned that errors are concerned with learners, teachers and researchers as the followings.

1. For learners, errors can be devices for learning languages.

2. For teachers, it can represent the status of learners such as how far the learners have progressed or what problems the learners have remained throughout the lessons.

3. For researchers, errors can suggest how language is learnt or acquired and what strategies or processes the learners use to discover the language.

Therefore, errors analysis is beneficial for language learning as it suggests teachers the difficulties that learners are facing while learning language. It can also identify the level of proficiency of learners and find out how learners learn language. Moreover, it provides information for managing language learning process.

However, there are some limitations for error analysis as learners who avoid writing sentence structures that are difficult may be viewed to have no difficulty (Brown, 1994).

Paragraph writing

Paragraph writing is a piece of writing consisting of sentences dealing with a single topic and every sentence will explain the main idea of the topic. It also consists of two main types of sentences which are a topic sentence and supporting sentences. Moreover, logical order, logical connectors, a concluding sentence, unity and coherence are really important in composing a paragraph (O' Donnell and Paiva (1993:2-4) cited in Sattayatham and Ratanapinyowong, 2008). For these reasons, transitional words or connecting words are needed to present the ideas in the paragraph in logical order.

In writing, apart from concerning about the correctness of grammar, vocabulary, the language system, language characteristics, using language in appropriate ways and having various strategies to use in communication, writing organization is one of the most important factors the writers or the learners should focus on.

There are 3 main parts of the organization of paragraph writing.

1. A topic sentence: this is the sentence expressing the main idea of each paragraph. It can be placed at the beginning, middle or the ending of the paragraph. However, it is mostly placed at the beginning of a paragraph or it is the first sentence of a paragraph. Furthermore, a topic sentence indicates a main idea and it is a part to catch readers' attention.

2. Main body: this part consists of supporting sentences which explain or give examples to support a topic sentence.

3. A closing sentence: it is the last sentence in a paragraph which will conclude everything from a paragraph.

Moreover, to compose a good paragraph, some components are needed as the followings.

1. In a paragraph, it must contain only one topic or one subject. It should also start with a clear topic sentence in order to allow the readers to understand the paragraph easily.

2. Linking ideas in a paragraph by repeating words is also recommended.

3. Transitional words should also be used to link ideas in a paragraph together. This allows the readers to follow the ideas the writer wants to express.

To sum up, coherence and cohesion are very important for paragraph writing as the writers are required to express their ideas to the readers. The ideas should be related, and the chronological orders of the events are considered vital.

Methodology

In order to analyze the errors in English paragraph writing of the samples, the three steps of error analysis: collection of sample errors, identification of errors and description of errors specified by Corder (1974) cited in Eillis (1994) were used. The study was divided into two stages: a pilot study and a main study.

Pilot study

It was conducted to indentify the framework for analyzing the writing errors of the main study. There were thirty graduate students participating in this stage. They were asked to write an opinion paragraph and were interviewed in order to realize the causes of their writing errors. The information from the interview was used to construct the questionnaire for the main study.

Main study

After the pilot study had been conducted, one hundred and twenty graduate students were randomly selected to participate in the study. This was thirty percent of all graduate students enrolling in the semester. They were required to write an opinion paragraph. Then grammatical errors, lexical errors, mechanical errors and writing organization errors were analyzed. Moreover, the samples were asked to answer the questionnaire to identify the causes of errors.

Research instruments

1. Paragraph writing

The samples of both the pilot and the main studies were required to write an opinion paragraph. The topic of the paragraph was "Some people prefer to work for a large company. Others prefer to work for a small company. Which would you prefer? Use specific reasons and details to support your choice." This topic is related and relevant to the samples studying in the graduate program as most of the graduate students at Khon Kaen University are working during they continue their study.

2. In-depth interview

For the pilot study, semi-structured interviews of between 30-45 minutes were conducted with all thirty samples to discover the causes of errors in writing.

The questions for the interviews:

- 1. What do you think about English writing?
- 2. What problems do you encounter while writing in English?
- 3. What do you think is the most difficult thing in writing in English?
- 4. What do you think are the causes of problems in your English writing?
- 5. Are there any suggestions for solving problems in writing in English?

3. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was a five-point Likert Rating Scale questionnaire with open-ended questions. The content in the questionnaire was taken from the data obtained from the interviews of the pilot study and the review of literature about the causes of errors. The questionnaire was reviewed and revised by an expert to ensure the validity of the questionnaire. It was piloted with thirty graduate students and coefficient alpha was used to measure the reliability. After that, it was improved and distributed to one hundred and twenty graduate students who were the samples in the main study.

Data analysis

The process of the data analysis is as the followings.

1. Paragraph writing

One hundred and twenty pieces of paragraph writing were analyzed to indentify errors. Four types of errors were investigated as the followings.

- **Grammatical errors.** These errors include subject and verb agreement, determiners, tenses, verb forms and prepositions.
- Lexical errors. This is the error of vocabulary usage such as word choice and parts of speech.
- Mechanical errors. These are the errors of punctuations, capitalization and spelling.
- Writing organization errors. This focuses on the organization of paragraph writing consisting of three main parts: a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a conclusion.

Descriptive statistics which are frequencies, means and standard deviation were calculated to show the samples' errors. Each type of error both in the pilot study and the main study was clarified on the basis of raw frequencies rank order starting from the highest to the lowest.

Moreover, there were two raters: a researcher and an English teacher teaching writing course for many years analyzing the errors. The inter raters were used to analyze the data in order to gain validity of the results.

2. In-depth interviews

Descriptive analysis was used to analyze the data obtained from the interviews to find out the causes of errors the students produced.

3. Questionnaire

Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, means and standard deviation were calculated to show the samples' causes of errors. The questionnaire was a five-point Likert Rating Scale ranging from 1- "the least" to 5 – "the most." The mean of each item was interpreted according to

the criteria of Best and Kahn (Best & Kahn, 1993). The criteria were as the followings. 4.51-5.00 is the most; 3.51 - 4.50 is more; 2.51-3.50 is neutral; 1.51-2.50 is less and 1.00 - 1.50 is the least.

Results

1. Pilot study

The analysis of errors in English writing committed by the graduate students

From the pilot study, after thirty pieces of paragraph writing had been collected, the writing errors were recorded. Each of thirty pieces of paragraph writing contained an average of 6.56 sentences per a paragraph with an average of 13.43 words in length in each sentence. There were 507 errors; a mean of 16.9 errors per a paragraph. The writing errors could be classified into 15 main categories as followed.

No.	Types of errors	Frequency of errors	Percentage
1	Article	82	16.17
2	Spelling	67	13.21
3	Word choice	60	11.83
4	Capital letter	50	9.86
5	Sentence fragment	41	8.08
6	Subject and verb agreement	40	7.89
7	Punctuation	34	6.71
8	Preposition	28	5.52
9	Parts of speech	28	5.52
10	Singular and plural nouns	25	4.93
11	Word order	18	3.55
12	Run-on sentence	13	2.56
13	Pronoun	9	1.78
14	Conjunction	5	0.99
15	Organization error	4	0.70
	- (no topic sentence)	4	0.79

Table 1: The frequency and the percentage of each type of error

The writing errors found in the pilot study were applied as the framework to analyze the writing errors in the main study.

The analysis of the in-depth interviews to discover the causes of errors in English writing committed by the graduate students

From the interviews, all samples did agree that writing in English was very difficult. They had problems with vocabulary and grammar. They needed to study more. They also suggested providing writing training course.

Main study

The analysis of errors in English writing committed by the graduate students

After one hundred and twenty graduate students finished writing an opinion paragraph, the errors were analyzed and the framework to analyze the errors obtained from the pilot study was used. However, one more error which was verb duplication was discovered from the main study.

After analyzing the errors of writing of the students, it was found that 12,667 words were used to write in the writing with 839 sentences: an average of 105.6 words per a paragraph and 7 sentences each paragraph. The writing contained 2,370 errors of various types, a mean of 19.75 per a paragraph. After the writing errors were analyzed, it could be classified into 16 main categories as the followings.

No.	Types of errors	Frequencies of errors	Percentage
1	Word choice	330	13.93
2	Spelling	307	12.95
3	Sentence fragment	258	10.89
4	Parts of speech	219	9.24
5	Subject and verb agreement	213	8.99
6	Article	208	8.78
7	Capital letter	172	7.26
8	Preposition	144	6.08
9	Singular and plural nouns	119	5.02
10	Punctuation	115	4.85
11	Run-on sentence	83	3.50
12	Organization error	69	2.91
	- No conclusions	(51)	2.15
	- No topic sentences	(9)	0.38
	- Not related to the topic	(9)	0.38
13	Word order	55	2.40
14	Verb duplication	34	1.48
15	Pronoun	31	1.35
16	Conjunction	13	0.56

Table 2: The frequency and the percentage of each type of error

Table 3: The frequency, the percentage and the examples of each type of error

No.	Types of errors	Examples	Explanation
1	Word choice	-I will work with <i>small</i> people.	- The samples had difficulty in
		-I like to contact with another	choosing correct or appropriate
		people.	words.
2	Spelling	- manetment in a small company	- The samples had limited lexical
		- I can learn from <i>exellent</i> people.	knowledge. They cannot spell
			words correctly.
3	Sentence fragment	- Because I would like to have many	- The samples composed
		friends.	sentences by using dependent
		- Everybody to be acquainted well.	clauses. There were no main
		- And to be happy.	clauses to complete the meaning
			of the sentences.
			- There were no verbs in
			sentences.
			- There were no verbs and
			subjects in sentences.

4	Dorte of anarch	And it is appreter management	- The most errors found from
4	Parts of speech	And it is easy to <i>management</i>.Company have happiness about	parts of speech were using nouns
		<i>communicate.</i>	instead of verbs.
		- I want to progress and <i>successful</i> in	- Using verbs instead of nouns
		my work.	was also found.
		- A large company is very	- The samples also used adjectives
		convenience.	instead of nouns and vice versa.
		- I will have <i>permanently</i> work.	- They used adverbs instead of
			adjectives.
			- They did not use parallel parts of
			speech in the same sentences.
			specen in the sume sentences.
5	Subject and verb		- The samples did not use singular
	agreement	- A large company <i>pay</i> high salary.	verbs with singular subjects when
			writing in the present simple
			tense.
6	Article	- I work a management	- The samples used indefinite
		- I would like to work in <i>small</i>	articles (a/an) when they were not
		company.	needed.
		- I want to work for a large company	- The samples did not use
		because <i>large company</i> can give	indefinite articles (a/an) when
		stability in life.	they were needed.
		-I like to work in <i>the small company</i> .	- The samples did not use definite
		(It is that the word "small company" was mentioned.)	article (<i>the</i>) when they were needed.
		was menuoned.)	- The samples used definite article
			(<i>the</i>) when they were not needed.
7	Capital letter	- I have a good progress and The	- The samples used capital letters
,	Cupitur lottor	work	in the sentences when they were
		- and I want to work for a large	not needed.
		company.	- The samples did not begin
			sentences with capital letters.
8	Preposition	-I prefer to work for a large company	- Most of preposition error was
		because I think <i>for</i> my future.	prepositional phrases.
		- Work a small company is good.	- The samples did not use
			prepositions when they were
			needed.
9	Singular and plural	•	- Most of the singular and plural
	nouns	- I can use my <i>knowledges</i> .	nouns errors were that the samples
			used singular nouns instead of
			plural nouns. They used singular
			nouns with plural quantifiers.
			-However, some of them used
			plural nouns instead of singular
			nouns. In this case, they used
			plural nouns with indefinite $articles (a/an)$
			articles (<i>a/an</i>). - Some of them also used
			uncountable nouns in the form of
			plural nouns.
L			Platai nouno.

10	Punctuation	 If I find husband in company I think it easily. It has <i>more people more work</i>. The company have a humane resource. 	 The comma errors were most commonly found from the samples' writing. The samples did not use commas to separate dependent clauses and independent clauses in sentences. They also used commas where they are not needed. The samples did not use commas to separate words or phrases in sentences. They did not use periods to finish sentences.
11	Run-on sentence	 I think that it make me a lot work it will make me tired. I like to work in the large company it is better. 	 The samples did not use periods to finish sentences. Duplication of subjects and verbs were also found in the writing.
12	Organization error - No conclusion - No topic sentence - Not related - to the topic		 No conclusion was the most error found in the organization errors. No topic sentence was also found in the samples' writing. Writing paragraphs with not related to the topic was found in small numbers.
13	Word order	a small company can help people <i>to not work</i> .	- The samples could not order words in sentences correctly.
14	Verb duplication	 I <i>choose prefer</i> to work for It's <i>pay</i> money more than 	- The sample composed sentences by using two main verbs together.
15	Pronoun	 I prefer to work for a large company because <i>they</i> are <i>Every their</i> make a smile for me. 	- The samples could not use pronouns correctly.
16	Conjunction	 A large company should have person who <i>good at any work good at different work</i>. Man who works in a small company is good, intelligence, <i>diligent</i>. 	- All of the errors found were that the samples did not use the word "and" to link words, phrases or ideas in sentences.

The analysis of the questionnaire to discover the causes of errors in English writing committed by the graduate students (main study)

Items	The level of opinions		Interpretation
	X	S.D.	
Prewriting process			
1. You brainstormed before starting to write.	3.7	0.8	high
2. You had an outline before starting to write.	3.4	0.9	medium
Writing organization			
3. You could not write a paragraph because you could not write to respond to the topic assigned.	3.1	0.6	medium
 You could not write a paragraph because you could not write a main idea. 	4	0.8	high
5. You could not write a paragraph because you could not write supporting details to support the main idea.	4	0.8	high
6. You could not write a paragraph because you could not write a conclusion.	3.6	0.9	high
Language use and grammar			
7. You had problems in English paragraph writing because you did not know the grammar rules.	4	0.8	high
8. You could not write a paragraph in English because you knew the grammar rules but you forgot them.	4	0.8	high
9. You had problems in ordering words when you compose sentences in paragraph writing.	4	0.8	high
Vocabulary			
10. You had problems when writing a paragraph in English because you did not know vocabulary.	4	0.8	high
11. You had problems when writing a paragraph in English because you could not choose correct and appropriate words to write.	4	0.8	high
12. You had problems when writing a paragraph in English because you could not spell vocabulary correctly.	4	0.9	high

Table 4: The results and the interpretation of the questionnaire

Mechanics			
13. You had problems when writing a paragraph in English because you could not select appropriate transitional words to link ideas in sentences or between sentences.	3.8	0.8	high
14. You had problems with using punctuations when writing in English.	3.6	0.9	high
15. You could not use capital letters correctly when writing in English.	3.1	0.8	medium

According to the questionnaire's results, the samples did not have problems with pre-writing stage because they had a process of brainstorming and also outlining before starting to write.

For the writing organization, the sample could write to respond to the assigned topic. However, they had problems with writing a main idea, supporting details and a conclusion sentence.

According to language use and grammar, the samples accepted that they had problems in all aspects with high level. They had limited grammar knowledge. They also forgot the rules and could not order words correctly in sentences.

Similarly, the samples had difficulties with vocabulary as they could not use appropriate vocabulary when composing writing. Also, they had problems with spelling.

For mechanics, the samples accepted that they had problems in high level with using transitional words and punctuations. Nevertheless, they reported that they rarely had problems with using capital letters.

Discussion of the study

From the data analysis, it was found that there were 16 types of errors in the paragraph writing produced by the graduate students at Khon Kaen University which were 1) word choice (13.93%), 2) spelling (12.95%), 3) sentence fragment (10.89%), 4) parts of speech (9.24%), 5) subject and verb agreement (8.99%), 6) article (8.78%), 7) capital letter (7.26%), 8) preposition (6.08%), 9) singular and plural nouns (5.02%), 10) punctuation (4.85%), 11) run-on sentence (3.50%), 12) organization error (2.91%), 13) word order (2.40%), 14) verb duplication (1.48%), 15) pronoun (1.35%) and 16) conjunction (0.56%) respectively. The findings were similar to the writing errors found in EFL students which were grammar, spelling, vocabulary and (Orozco, 2002, Sattayatham & Honsa, 2007, Jenwitheesuk, 2009, Peña, 2009) and writing organization errors (Sattayatham & Ratanapinyowong, 2008).

Therefore, it can be seen that the writing errors produced by the learners learning English as a Foreigner language both undergraduate and graduate students are mostly grammar, vocabulary, mechanics and writing organization.

The main factor causing problems in English writing of graduate students at Khon Kaen University is the limitation of vocabulary and grammar knowledge.

The samples in this study had all problems in vocabulary. They had limitation of vocabulary. For example, they were not able to choose appropriate words in their writing. They also spelt words incorrectly.

They were also incompetent in grammar usage. They did not know the rules of the grammar. Some of them also accepted that they forgot the grammar rules. Some were even not able to write a sentence.

The error in writing organization was another problem found in the writing of the samples. They admitted that it was difficult for them to write a main idea, supporting details and conclusion. However, they were able to express their opinions towards the topic provided.

For the part of mechanics, the students were not able to use transitional words to link the ideas among the paragraph. They also had problems with using punctuations and capital letters.

Conclusion

Regarding to the responses from the questionnaire, the graduate students at Khon Kaen University admitted that they had lot difficulties with vocabulary usage. This was also confirmed by the error analysis that word choices and spelling errors were the first two errors found from the students' writing. The students also responded that they lacked of grammar and sentence structure knowledge. For the mechanics in writing, the students thought that they had problem in using capital letters in the medium level, but what was found from their writing was that they had a lot of errors in using capital letters. For the writing organization, the students thought that they had high level of difficulty in all aspects as they could not write the main idea, the sentences for supporting details and the conclusion of the paragraph. These were conformed to the findings from the error analysis that the students had a lot of problems in writing a conclusion and a topic sentence. Nevertheless, the students did not have problem in pre-writing stage because they had brainstormed and planned outline before writing.

In conclusion, the samples wrote less than the required number of words. Also, most of the errors committed by the samples were basically lexical and grammatical. The samples also accepted that they had problems with vocabulary and grammar. Therefore, it can be concluded that major causes of errors were limited vocabulary size and poor grammar knowledge. The students also suggested that the writing training course and the reviews of grammar and vocabulary for writing should be provided for the graduate students.

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Abstract

This article is derived from real experience of how a teacher deals with students who plagiarized in writing course. The researcher has observed 32 second year students who enrolled in Writing Strategies in Term1 of Academic Year 2013 at Walailak University, Nakhon Si Thammarat. Actually, the subject is a compulsory course for English majors, and it is the first one which fully focuses on writing skill. Apart from lecturing and taking examinations, students are assigned writing 5 journals throughout the term so that they will be awarded 40 points as an assignment score.

In view of writing journals, there are some works containing numerous plagiarized passages. Basically, flawless and too smooth works are always taken into account before flawed ones because it is roughly assumed that the owners might have a 'cut and paste operation' from any sources. Teacher may then get access to the Internet, in fact, which is the most possible way to prove it; however, they can copy from any printing materials.

To avoid plagiarized works, the instructor has done three back-to-basics steps as follows; primarily inform a criterion of journal assignment in a course syllabus, individually make comments on students' works, and publicly show those kinds of works to the class. After taking the steps, it is found that at the stage of third assignment, there are few students who partially plagiarized, and they finally quit plagiarism.

Keywords: writing skill, plagiarism

Introduction

As teachers, in general, we hope that our students would be good, honest, and well-behaved. In fact, we cannot differentiate what good, honest, and well-behaved are because all modifiers are the same, or at least nearly the same. However, if one student has only one of the qualities, he or she is undoubtedly considered to be a dream student. Unfortunately, we often get disappointed when one or more of them do the opposite things.

As teachers of English who are responsible for writing course for non native speakers of English, Smit (2004) mentioned that "Perhaps we subconsciously recognize how difficult writing is; perhaps writing has such a reputation for being difficult or it so generally recognized that people do it badly that we are very careful about attributing the ability to people even ourselves" (p. 20). Granted, we, (teachers of English writing), have found that many students have made cut-andpaste operation on their writing assignment. Some of these works are acceptable, but some are impossibly acceptable depending on how much they plagiarized.

The teachers, nowadays, often proclaim that today students are very good luck because they were born in digital age. According to an article titled the Ethics of Information Use: A Guide for Teachers (2001), the writer has commented that "The digital makes all things accessible, changeable, and retrievable. Do we alter our morality and our acceptable codes of conduct for the electronic world?" (p. 4). Do we prepare ourselves in order to face with the enemy (students who benefits from the digital age)? We never want to let them go without doing anything. And, the easiest way to retrieve these kinds of work is just to visit some websites and copy it, and then paste it. And why teachers of digital age do not act the same thing? Get access to Google, type certain passages, and the truth will be revealed then. To examine students' writing assignment, Council of Writing Program Administrators (WPA, 2003) has quoted as saying "the teachers often find themselves playing an adversarial role as 'plagiarism police' instead of a coaching role as educators." We often define ourselves we know our students well, so if flawless assignment from a crème de la crème, it is possible; while a flawless one from the worst, it is absolutely impossible.

In the article titled the Other Side of Plagiarism, Johnson (2009) has stated that "As educators, it is our ethical failing if our assignments do not help students learn necessary academic and lifelong skills" (p. 87). Also, as a teacher, the researcher does not want any folks reproduce such a work. The experience on dealing with the case of plagiarism which works well might help some of us handle the same problems.

The experience that the researcher gained is from a real classroom where students plagiarized from the Internet sources. To tackle the situation by getting back to basics, the researcher followed three steps as follows:

- 1. design a course syllabus
- 2. give personal advice and
- 3. make public announcement

Objective

The objective of this article is to share the experience that the researcher had used in the real classroom.

Limitation of the Study

The observation is made through 32 undergraduate students who enrolled Writing Strategies, a compulsory subject for English majors and the first subject that focuses on writing skill. The course is offered in Tern 1, Academic Year 2013 at Walailak University, Thailand. Actually, the course is scheduled to open in Term 1 for English sophomores annually.

The description of the course is to focus on basic essential writing strategies and the process of paragraph writing; identifying different levels of generality; understanding the components and organization of a paragraph; understanding paragraphs with different levels of generality; understanding and producing different types of paragraphs.

In accordance with the course description, apart from in-class activities, the teacher has assigned 5 pieces of 1- paragraph writing homework throughout the term. After that the teacher spends around one week to check and return them. However, during checking the assignments, the researcher has noticed that certain assignments look too professional which second-year students could not do it.

Review Literature

Writing

According to Walsh (2010), writing skill is one of the important and challenging skills for language learners. Not only a second language or a foreign language, but also a first language is regarded as the most difficult skill to acquire. Hamp-Lyons and Heasley(2006) have showed that "Writing frequently accepted as being the last language skill to be acquired for native speakers of the language as well as for foreign/second language learners" (p. 80).

Tagong, 1991; Patarapongpaisan, 1996; Thammasarnsophon, 1991; Wisessang, 1996; Chinawong, 1999-2000; Lukanaprasit, 1999-2000; Sakontawut, 2003) Sakontawut (2003) (as cited in Dhanarattigannon, 2003, p.22) have expressed that Thai undergraduate students cannot write proficiently, although they had experienced on learning English for six years. Moreover,

Dhanarattigannon herself discovered that "when it comes to writing in English, students find it difficult to write, and they blame this on their limited English proficiency but not their lack of writing skills in general" (p.20).

Speaking and writing involved language production and therefore often referred to as productive skills which language users have to convey or produce the language. On the contrary to the receptive skills; listening and reading, the users just receive and try to understand (Harmer, 1998, p.16).

In conclusion, in the research carried by Tapinta (2006), the researcher explained that since the 1980s, writing strategies were shifted from controlled composition and current traditional rhetoric approaches to creativity-promoted approaches; therefore, Thai students in higher education are trained to pay attention on the purpose and content of the message, not just primarily on the forms of the language. The new approaches to writing relate to the process of planning, drafting (composing), and revising and creative thinking simultaneously. As a consequence of the approaches, most students may find difficult to write or create a piece of work unavoidably.

Plagiarism

Regarding a literal meaning of the word "plagiarism" in Collins Dictionary, it is defined as "the practice of using or copying someone else's idea or work and pretending that you thought of it or created it."

Similarly to Council of Writing Program Administrators (WPA) has defined the meaning of plagiarism that "in an instructional setting, plagiarism occurs when a writer deliberately uses someone else's language, ideas, or other original (not common-knowledge) material without acknowledging its source."

There are so many reasons why students plagiarize. According to WPA, students have plagiarized in the light of uncertainty of their own work, poor-time management, ignorance about the course, and unspecified assignment.

The very convenient and probable way to retrieve models for assignment is from written sources and the Internet. Statistically, McCabe (2005), who conducted a survey to find a number of students who plagiarized during 2003-2005 has revealed that 36% and 38% of undergraduate respondents admit paraphrasing or copying few sentences without footnoting from the Internet source and written source respectively.

Course Syllabus

Focusing on course syllabus, Jeremy Harmer(1991) has claimed that:

We know what the students need to know about the language they are learning but before we start to teach them we will have to decide which parts of this knowledge we want them to have and when. How is the language to be organized and what skills should we concentrate on? This organization is called a syllabus. (p.25)

As stated by Susan B. Fink (2012) in the Many Purposes of Course Syllabi, she has concluded eight major themes for the purposes of use of syllabi in higher education. Two of the purposes are to be an artifact for teacher evaluation/ record keeping tools and a contract of policies and procedures to be followed. By means of course syllabus, both teachers and students regard it as a commitment throughout the term.

Personal Advice

Tinto (1993), as cited in Joe Cuseo's research, has indicated that:

student contact with faculty, especially outside of class, is an independent predictor of learning gain or growth, i.e., its association with intellectual development remains significant even after one takes account of differences in students' ability, prior levels of development, and prior educational experience. (2003, p.4)

In addition, Cuseo, has also proposed practices with the purpose of promoting meaningful relationship between instructors and students outside the classroom. One of the practices called ESL-linked transitional courses, is to encourage an English as a Second Language instructor takes part in an academic discipline-based course that contains a group of ESL students. Consequently, the ESL instructor meets regularly with these students outside the classroom to help them master the course material.

Result of the Study

The researcher had followed the following three steps in details.

Design a course syllabus

A course syllabus has been designed in accordance with the course description. In the course syllabus, it comprises of, in general, following aspects; course title, course code, instructor' name with contact information, period, textbook title, and course description. After that an assessment and evaluation aspect has been described in detail. Grading in this subject will be based on writing journals (one-paragraph assignments), effective score (including attendance and participation), the midterm exam, and the final exam. Lastly, the teacher has proposed grading system, classroom behavior, and a tentative schedule.

On the first day of this subject, students and an instructor will discuss together on the syllabus. It is time to share ideas, give opinion, request information, negotiate with the teacher, and do whatever students and teachers want in respect to mutual agreement. To avoid plagiarism, its penalty has been apparently declared as "please note that any assignments with plagiarism will not be graded."

Relating to plagiarism, writing 5 pieces of one-paragraph journals subsequently becomes the problem that the teacher has to tackle. The titles of each assignment are my favorite food, my favorite place to travel, an unforgettable person, what are they doing?, and my dream wedding; corresponding with verb-tense lesson, and students have around two weeks to complete each of assignments.

Give personal advice

After checking the first assignment titled "my favorite food", it is found that there are 7 students (21.87%) plagiarized from the Internet source. The plagiarism was shown on the work either partly or fully. The teacher gives an explanation of how students' work is considered to be plagiarism and how to avoid it. From the observation, certain students are still doubtful because they believe that the Internet is one of sources on which they can do a research before drafting.

For this reason, the researcher has set the time for students to meet up outside classroom. Any students are welcome to meet at the teacher's office, either ones who had plagiarized or not.

However, this meeting is not a compulsory scheme for them, affecting to only few students come to consult the teacher.

Make public announcement

At the second assignment, still, there are five students plagiarized (15.62%). To markedly restrain the situation, the teacher decided to announce to the class by showing plagiarized works along with their sources. Cautiously, names and identification number have been blurred first. The followings are the examples of plagiarized works.

take an Ingredients of Tom Yam Kung from the refrigerator then remove the shrimp shell but leave the tails. Then cut open the back of each shrimp to remove the veins. Also clean the mushrooms with water and dry them well before wedging each into quarters. Second, Bring water to boil, and then add lemon grass, lime leaves, and shrimps. When the shrimps turn pink, add mushrooms and salts. Third, leave it to simmer for a few minutes. Then remove from the heat. Next, season with fish sauce, lime juice and ground chilli. Finally, put the chopped coriander leaves in the pot before serving. After Tom Yam Kung already to serve I prepare some fruits for the party. I slice the pineapple and place them in one section of my

Figure 1: An example of plagiarized work, "My Favorite Food: Tom Yam Kung"

press.com/2013/11/12/1st-menu-tom-yum-koong/

Preparations

1. Remove the shrimp shell but leave the tails (for good appearance). Then cut open the back of each shrimp to remove the veins. Also clean the mushrooms with water and dry them well before wedging each into quarters.

2. Bring water to boil, then add lemon grass, lime leaves, and shrimps. When the shrimps turn pink, add mushrooms and salts.

3. Remove the pot from heat after boiling. Then season with fish sauce, lime juice, and hot peppers. Serve the soup while still hot and garnish on top with pieces of coriander leaves.

Figure 2: The Internet source of "My Favorite Food: Tom Yam Kung" http://wonderfoodrecipe.wordpress.com/2013/11/12/1st-menu-tom-yum-koong

Second for the cake, place all the cake ingredient, expert the boiling water, into a large mixing bowl using a wooden spoon, beat the mixture smooth and well combined. And then add the boiling water to the mixture, a little at time, until smooth. And next divide the cake batter between the sandwich tins. Remove the cake from the oven and allow to cool completely, still in their tins, before icing. And the most of the cake is chocolate icing, heat $\leq \circ$ and the chocolate and cream in a saucepan over a low heat until the chocolate melts. Remove the pan from the heat and whish the mixture until smooth, glossy and thickened. Finally set aside to cool for one or two hours or until thick enough to spread over the cake. And next spread a little chocolate icing over the top of one the chocolate cakes, and then carefully top with the other cake.

Figure 3: An example of plagiarized work, "My Favorite Food: Cake"

1.77	
:0.uk/to	od/recipes/easy_chocolat $\mathcal{P} - \mathcal{O} \times$ BBC - Food - Recipes : Easy ×
ools	Help
Te	chnique: Greasing and lining cake tins
2.	For the cake, place all of the cake ingredients, except the boiling water, into a large mixing bowl. Using a wooden spoon, or electric whisk, beat the mixture until smooth and well combined.
3.	Add the boiling water to the mixture, a little at a time, until smooth. (The cake mixture will now be very liquid.)
4.	Divide the cake batter between the sandwich tins and bake in the oven for 25-35 minutes, or until the top is firm to the touch and a skewer inserted into the centre of the cake comes out clean.
5.	Remove the cakes from the oven and allow to cool completely, still in their tins, before icing.
6.	For the chocolate icing, heat the chocolate and cream in a saucepan over a low heat until the chocolate melts. Remove the pan from the heat and whisk the mixture until smooth, glossy and thickened. Set aside to cool for 1-2 hours, or until thick enough to spread over the cake.
7.	To assemble the cake, run a round-bladed knife around the inside of the cake tins to loosen the cakes. Carefully remove the cakes from the tins.
Te	chnique: Removing cakes from a cake tin <
8.	Spread a little chocolate icing over the top of one of the chocolate cakes, then carefully top with the other cake.
]	Figure 4. The Internet source of "My Favorite Food: Cake" http://www.bbc.co.uk/food/recipes/easy_chocolate_cake_31070

Conclusion

In summary, to deal with students who plagiarized from the Internet source, the teacher has come up with the three back-to-basic steps, i.e. designing a course syllabus, giving personal advice, and making public announcement.

About designing a course syllabus, it greatly plays an important role in teaching and learning. After teacher and students agree on that course syllabus, it will be held to be a commitment between them. The researcher informs all aspects in general including the notification of penalty for plagiarism that might occur in students' assignment.

Next, giving personal advice is taken into account because certain folks have copied from electronic source and seemed to reproduce in the near future. After class time has been set in case some of the students need to consult the teacher individually.

Finally, when plagiarism still exists, the author has made an announcement explicitly to prevent them from doing the same thing. Seemingly, a fear of being denounced is a key factor in tackling the problem.

Fortunately, the number of students who plagiarized decreased continually owing to public announcement probably, as shown in the table.

Number of Students Who Plagiarized
7
4
2
1
0

 Table 1: Number of students who plagiarized

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LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION

Adaptive Placement Test for Assessing Reading Comprehension Levels of Students Studying Chinese as a Second Language in Singapore

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Abstract

Students improve in reading when they read on-level texts that they can comprehend 75% to 99% of them. Off-level texts that are either too easy or too difficult will lead to complacency or loss of confidence. In Singapore, students learn Chinese as a second language. Although Chinese textbooks are created to provide differentiated learning, they cannot cater for reading needs of all students. There are about 33% of students that are consistently placed three levels above or below their reading levels. Moreover, teachers could not accurately assess the reading levels of these students and they also did not have the resources to create a personalized reading list for them. This paper describes the adaptive placement test system that retrieves reading comprehension tests that are appropriate to students' reading abilities to assess them accurately. A student went through three steps to take the test: First, she filled out a short-survey for the system to estimate an initial entry level. Then, an appropriate test was presented. If she passed the test, she would work on a more difficult test and if she failed, an easier one. This process continued until the performance converged at a level that indicated her reading ability. She could be placed in one of the 15 levels of reading ability. After placement, a list of recommended on-level text would be presented for her. This system will help teachers assess student reading comprehension levels accurately and reduce their workload by providing students a personalized list of on-level materials.

Keywords: Chinese language, Second language, Text analyzer, Text readability, Placement test

Introduction

Curriculum-based reading comprehension materials target at the reading proficiency level of the "average" reader of a particular grade. In heterogeneous classes, reading levels of students can vary three grade levels (Varlas, 2012) and the teaching materials will be overwhelming for some students and too simple for others. While materials are too difficult, it will lead to a loss in confidence and no motivation to learn, too easy, bad habits and unrealistic expectations (Scholastic Inc., 2007). Appropriate texts are *on-level* materials that readers are expected to be able to read with 75% to 95% comprehension (MetaMetrics, 2009; Waring & Nation, 2004). This means that students can answer 75% of the questions or items set for the text, each item is created from a 125-140 word piece of text extracted from the original text and the smaller pieces of text carved cover the entire original text (SRI Inc., 2007).

When students are placed in a challenging text, say within the range of 75% to 85% comprehension level, they will require support such as rereading and using graphic organizers to help them identify viewpoints or analyze characters in the story to

successfully engage with the text (Varlas, 2012; Shanahan, 2012). Providing students with challenging text and intentionally help students learn the text will lead to greater long term learning success than providing them with easier text (Shanahaan, 2012).

However, in a heterogeneous classroom where student reading comprehension levels vary a great deal, it is not realistic for the teacher to place each student in texts that are optimized for their learning. In other words, teacher cannot be expected to teach at every child's comprehension level. Alternatively, teachers can help students improve by engaging them in extensive reading outside curriculum time, in which students are placed at 95% or above text coverage level. Reading at this level will sustained their attention and they will be able to read large quantities of text so that they will pick up new words and be exposed to these new words in different contexts (Liu & Nation, 1985; Hu & Nation, 2000). Reading extensively will therefore reinforce new words learned and will increase students' understanding of the various or even subtler meanings of those words (Waring, 2006). Shanahaan (2013) advices that the shortest amount of time to bring students up one to two grade reading levels would be to let students read three hours a day with a mixed of challenging and easy text. In contrast, Rothman (2012) cautions that simply placing students in texts below their reading level without identifying a match between text complexity and reader level will not result in learning.

The reading problem is especially acute when students are learning a language other than their first language. For example, idiomatic phrases may appear simple as they are high-frequency words and yet, they are difficult to students who are not well exposed to the language (Rothman, 2012). Moreover, students' familiarity and interest in a topic affects their comprehension levels. The more familiar students are with a topic, the better they are able to understand its vocabulary and therefore, the more motivated they are to read texts of that topic (Rothman, 2012). Therefore, it is particularly important to locate suitable materials that are of interest to second language students to help them read extensively, which will in turn, motivate them to read more (Waring & Nation, 2004).

Differentiated Chinese Language Teaching in Singapore Chinese as a Second Language in Singapore

In Singapore, Chinese students learn English as their first language and most of them learn Chinese as mother tongue, or, second language. This result in their English being much better than their Chinese and therefore, they converse in English with family members and friends. The loss of the environment for them to be engaged with their mother tongue resulted in weak command of Chinese and diminishing motivation to use the language. On the other hand, there is a small number of students who are very interested in Chinese and there are also immigrants who are from a Chinese as first language country. The variation of Chinese ability levels within a class is greater than for any other subjects (e.g., English, Mathematics) (Tan, 2011).

Chinese Language Teaching Strategy

In 2007, the Ministry of Education, Singapore, responded to the situation above by providing differentiated instructional materials for students with varying Chinese abilities. At the primary school level, the materials are categorized in modules. They start with the foundation-building phase that spans four years, from Primary 1 to 4. In this phase, weak students will start each unit of Chinese lesson with the Bridging

Module that emphasizes listening and speaking. After the Bridging Module, they will move on to the Core Module which focuses on intentional reading where teachers will provide reading support (e.g., explain meanings of new words, re-reading, strategies to recognize and understand Chinese characters, various writing exercises). While medium ability students will start with the Core Module and stay with it, advanced students will start with the Core Module and move on to the Enrichment Module that features additional reading materials (Table 1) (Tan, 2011). The second phase spans two years, from Primary 5 to 6. It is the directed training phase in which students' abilities and interests are apparent. Weak students will study foundation Chinese, whereas medium ability students, Chinese and advanced students, higher Chinese (Table 2) (Ministry of Education, 2007; Tan, 2011). With the modular design, teachers can spend up to 30% of the curriculum time to design their lessons to suit their students.

Table 1: Three Modules in Foundation Building Phase for Primary 1 to 4 Students

Module

Purnose

Mouule	1 ur pose
Bridging	Cultivate listening and speaking skillsLearn vocabulary of the Core Module
Core	Strengthen listening and speaking skillsCultivate reading and writing skills
Enrichment	Read moreRead more broadly, i.e., from different topics

Note. Adapted from "Changes to primary school Chinese curriculum". Copyright by Singapore Ministry of Education.

Program	Module	Focus
Foundation	• Core	Listening / speaking
Chinese	• Core • Enrichment	ReadingMore reading in more topics, Writing
Higher Chinese	• Core • Enrichment	 Reading / More reading in more topics / Writing Strengthen writing

Table 2: Three Academic Programs in Directed Teaching Phase
for Primary 5 and 6 Students

Note. Adapted from "A modular approach to the design of Singapore primary school Chinese school text: Its appropriateness and practicality for second language teaching," by C. L. Tan, 2011. Copyright 2011 by Singapore Centre for Chinese Language, Nanyang Technological University.

In secondary school, there are five programs created for different ability students. Instructional materials for weak students concentrate on the training of listening and speaking skills whereas more advanced students are trained in listening, speaking, reading, and writing in almost equal proportions (Table 3).

Skills	Foundation	В	Normal Academic	Express	Higher Chinese
Listening/Speaking	65%	50%	40%	35%	25%
Reading	25%	30%	30%	35%	30%
Writing	10%	20%	30%	30%	45%

Table 3: Five Academic Programs and Proportion of Skills Taught

Note. Adapted from "Chinese language secondary school syllabus 2011". Copyright 2010 by Curriculum Planning and Development Division, Singapore Ministry of Education.

Limitations of the School Text Materials

In the classroom, students study textbooks created by the Ministry of Education. The creation of the textbooks was guided by the different types of reading programs mentioned above. In 2011, after 5 years of implementing the programs, Tan surveyed and interviewed 51 teachers to find out what they think about the programs. Although these programs and textbooks were created to cover a wide range of reading abilities, there were four major issues related to placing students on off-level texts, a) too much vocabulary or vocabulary not used in local context; b) reading abilities varied greatly in class and the textbook could not provide adequate differentiated learning for the students; c) there were insufficient supplementary materials to help students learn; d) reading abilities of students cannot be accurately assessed. Among other suggestions to modify the contents of the textbook, Tan recommended that supplementary materials such as audio recording, images and video should be Internet-based.

Similarly, our own pilot findings confirm Tan's (2011) findings regarding the wide reading ability levels in class. We conducted a study to assess students reading comprehension levels using an adaptive algorithm that automatically and continuously adjusted reading comprehension quiz levels based on the student's performance on preceding quizzes. We found that students' reading abilities within a Chinese subject class can vary up to three grade levels above or below the grade level they were in. For example, the reading levels of 22% of students in an advanced Primary 3 class were at Primary 6 level. In a medium ability Primary 3 class, 36% of students performed below Primary 1 level, with a large variation of reading levels for the rest of the students, ranging from Primary 1 to Primary 3 levels. In addition, in a medium level class, there were 66% medium students and 33% weak students (Chung, 2012). In short, there are at least one-third of students in class that are consistently being placed in off-level text, not to mention there are also variations within the band of medium students who may find the grade-level curriculum materials too challenging. All these students need more support from their teachers to improve in their reading proficiency. However, teachers are not able to provide such personalized support for individual students due to lack of time and the inability to accurately assess specific reading levels of students and hence, not able to match the students with suitable reading materials.

Providing On-Level Texts

Heterogeneous classes in which student read three levels below proficiency pose a real problem for teachers (Varlas, 2012). Teachers are not able to provide reading support for all students in class and they also do not have the time and resources to create an on-level list for each student to read outside of curriculum time. An alternative would be for parents to leverage the Internet to find materials that can improve students' reading abilities. Although the Internet has huge amounts of materials that can engage a student's interest, it is difficult to differentiate on-level texts that spur reading ability from off-level texts that do not.

There is, therefore, an urgent need to provide a system that can (a) place a student at her reading level, (b) analyze texts returned from internet search engines (or other online sources) to calculate the text level score, and (c) make personalized recommendations to individual students for on-level reading texts. This system requires three engines to work: an adaptive placement test engine to place the student at their reading levels, a text analyzer to automatically level texts returned by the search engine, and a personalized recommendation engine that indicate texts that are two-, one-level below, on-level, and one-level above individual students' reading level. Students can read extensively the texts that are below their reading levels, read fairly comfortably the on-level texts and they can also read higher level texts with the help of online dictionaries. This paper discusses the development of the abovementioned system, with an emphasis on the work done on the placement test engine.

Placing Students on the Appropriate Reading Levels

As previously indicated, one of the difficulties teachers encountered in class is that student reading ability cannot be accurately assessed. Without this critical piece of information, teachers cannot provide suitable reading materials to help students improve in their reading abilities. We adopted adaptive placement testing to find out students reading comprehension level. As opposed to linear testing that administers a fixed set of questions or items to all students within a class, adaptive testing dynamically present items that are adapted to student ability during the test (Way, 2006; Way, Twing, Camara, Sweeney, Lazer, Mazzeo, 2010). The advantage of adaptive testing is that it can place students regardless of their ability levels, as compared to a linear test that is often accurate at placing only medium ability students (Scholastic Inc., 2007). This is a critical feature for adopting adaptive testing to find out students' Chinese reading comprehension levels in Singapore as the classes here have a heterogeneous mix of students where reading abilities can vary by up to three grade levels. A linear test is normally unable to accommodate such a wide range of ability. Additionally, tests are shorter when they are adaptive, as students need not spend time on items that are too easy or too difficult. Hence, it requires less time to administer adaptive tests. In summary, the dynamic nature of the adaptive test format enables higher accuracy, shorter testing, and instant availability of test results (Lim, Ho, Wong, 1997).

Typical adaptive reading ability tests are presented as a series of testlets, where a testlet comprises a passage and a related set of items. This testlet format is required because each item has to refer to a given passage. To be adaptive, there has to be a difficulty level associated with each testlet (Chalhoub-Deville, Alcaya, Lozier, 1996). Thus a student is presented with an initial testlet, and based on good or poor performance on that testlet, she is given, respectively, a more difficult or simpler

testlet (Way, 2006). Hence, the accuracy of assessment depends on the quality of the testlet and proper calibration of the passages and associated items.

To identify the reading comprehension levels of students, several studies proposed the skill-based cognitive approach (Meneghetti, Carretti, De Beni, 2007; Lim, Ho, Wong, 1997; Chalhoub-Deville, Alcaya, Lozier, 1996). Students apply linguistic and cognitive skills to process what they read. Test items that assess these skills provide information on students' reading comprehension levels. Assessment models invariably include three levels of assessments, namely, factual, interpretive, and applicative (Chalhoub-Deville, Alcaya, Lozier, 1996). To operationalize the assessment model in our system, we adopted the ten question types proposed by Meneghetti, Carretti, and De Beni (2007), which include items which assess recognition of characters in texts, event sequences, inferences, hierarchy of ideas, and mental model of characters in texts or spatial orientations (Chung, Leong, Loo, Si, Soetanto, 2012). As we are assessing young students learning a second language, we also include word pronunciation, vocabulary, and sentence structure items that were found to be effective indicator of reading in a second language (Constantinescu, 2007). In our system, only multiple-choice items were used to enable immediate online scoring for computerized adaptive testing.

The next stage is the development of the testlet bank. Testlets were commissioned from professional writers and school teachers at reading ability levels from 3 to 12, roughly corresponding to the first 10 years of Singapore school grades (Primary 1 to 6, followed by Secondary 1 to 4). The passages and items in these testlets were cleaned up, localized (in the case where passages came from other countries), and edited to create testlets that would be accessible to Singapore students. We then invited four retired local Chinese teachers, each having more than 30 years of experience teaching Chinese, to rate the reading level of the passages only.

Based on prior experience building systems, we know that item calibration needs data from school studies. To build the pilot system, we discussed with the teachers, and decided to use the level of the passage as a proxy for the testlet level. In the future, as data comes in from field usage of the system, the items would be appropriately calibrated, whether by shifting, editing, or replacement. Currently, our testlets comprise a passage and five items which assess students' abilities on word pronunciation (based on the *hanyu pinyin* transliteration of Chinese to Romanized text), vocabulary, sentence structure, low as well as high cognitive level of processing, To date, we have a pool of 250 testlets, which will be used for field testing in a Singapore primary school in 2014.

Our Placement Test

Our placement test is adaptive. It automatically adjusts the levels of the test to the student's ability while he or she is taking the test. The placement test is built based on the Item Response Theory (IRT) statistical framework. IRT provides a procedure to relate the probability of a student's response to an item by her ability (Furr, 2014). All items written for our passages will be evaluated according to the IRT procedure and refined accordingly. Then, based on an estimate of the student's ability from a beginning short survey, the adaptive test engine selects from the testlet bank a testlet that best suit the student.

A typical adaptive test procedure is iterative and it has the following steps (Scholastic Inc., 2007; Weiss, 2004; Thissen & Mislevy, 2000):

- a. Start with an estimate of the student's level using a short pre-test survey.
- b. Search the testlet pool to find an appropriate testlet that the student can perform at 75% success level.
- c. Update the level of the student based on his performance on the testlet.
- d. Repeat steps b and c until the termination criterion is met.

Similarly, our adaptive test engine performs the above steps and it can be easily modified as required. The engine works as follows:

a. Sets a variable starting point for each student. A student taking the test has to fill in a short survey (Figure 1) and the student's entry level is estimated from the answers she provides. For example, students who rate themselves highly and who like Chinese will be given a higher starting point.

Welcome 杨焯恩, tell us about yourself: 1. I am ? years old.	Welcome 杨焯恩, tell us about yourself: 1. I am					
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16	2. I am in Primary 3 .					
2. I am in 🥐 .	3. My Chinese level is very good.					
3. My Chinese level is ?.	4. I like Chinese very much.					
4. I like Chinese ?.	5. I come from Singapore,					
5. I come from ?.	OK O					

Figure 1: Short Survey

b. Based on the starting level, an appropriate test will be presented (e.g., Figure 2). The engine presents the next test based on the performance of the student on the current test. Students who pass will be presented with a more difficult testlet the next round (Figure 4) and students who fail will be presented with an easier testlet (Figure 5).



Figure 2: A medium difficulty passage.

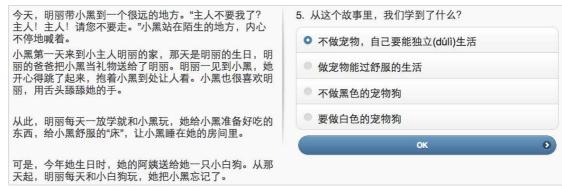


Figure 3: An assessment item for the medium level passage.

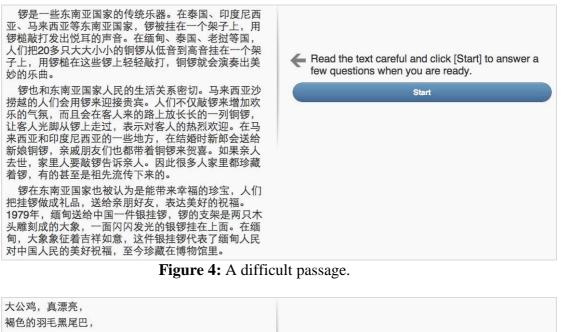




Figure 5: A simple passage.

The engine terminates the assessment when either one of two conditions is met: (a) when the estimated measure of the student's ability is significantly higher than the defined pass-fail point (as given in the IRT approach), or, (b) when the testing time reaches 20 minutes, at which point the student is assigned the reading ability level given by the current estimated measure (Figure 6).



Figure 6: Placement test termination.

Customized Text Analyzer for Singaporean Students

Text Analyzers Available on the Internet

Although there are readability analyzers available online (e.g., National Taiwan Normal University Chinese Readability Index Explorer and National Kaohsiung Normal University Online Chinese Text Readability Analyzer), they mainly classify Chinese text at the first language level and also they classify text using traditional instead of simplified Chinese characters. As first language users have much wider contextual knowledge especially with regard to vocabulary, common usage and natural scenarios, it does not work to merely map a second language reader to a lower level in a first language system. Hence, there is a need to develop a text analyzer that can accurately level text for second language students.

The Customized Analyzer

The goal of our analyzer is to automatically level passages that approximate levels experienced teachers would rate. Currently, it will level texts from level 1 to level 15. The text analyzer is built with a supervised machine learning method known as SVM (Support Vector Machines). The algorithms are beyond the scope of this paper, but essentially the system learns by example to assign labels to objects. We start with a collection of materials that have been appropriately leveled by experts and use these as a training set to create the leveling models. These models are then used to predict the reading levels of new documents presented to the system (Figure 7).

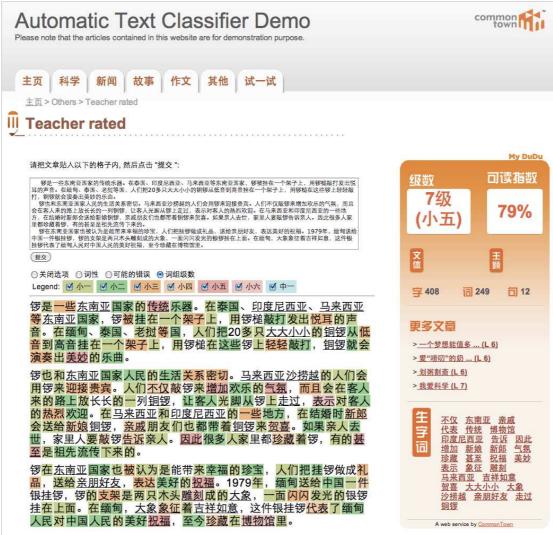


Figure 7: Text analyzer

Recommended Appropriate Texts

Once the reading level for a student is identified, the system will take him to the reading list recommender that consists of a list of on-level texts (Figure 8).



Figure 8: The personalized reading list.

Conclusion

In Singapore, as much as one-third of second language students are placed in off-level texts and their teachers do not have the time to provide customized reading lists to these students. We designed and developed a system that adaptively assesses students' reading levels and automatically make personal recommendations for on-level reading materials for the students. These recommended texts include texts that are just below the students' reading levels to encourage them to read extensively, on-level for them to read fairly comfortably, and texts that are just above their current reading levels to challenge them to do intensive reading, that is, to read with online support such as a dictionary. Together, these on-level recommendations will contribute to the improvement of the reading abilities of students.

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Abstract

Academic writing proficiency is one of essential competencies for college students. To produce an effective written product, an individual student must use the related skill sets and elements: critical thinking skill, language knowledge and writing ability. Rubrics used for writing assessment have the potential for improving writing and critical thinking skills. Nevertheless, constructing hands-on scoring rubrics to be exactly right for the nature of writing courses is not easy. Therefore, this paper provides practical guidance in developing rubrics for writing assessment. The paper also emphasizes the importance of developing critical thinking skills in college students and advantages of constructing hands-on scoring rubrics for writing assessment. Finally this paper discusses benefits of developing and using scoring rubrics for both writing assessment and fostering critical thinking through the use of self- and peer-assessment approach. **Keywords:** scoring rubrics, writing assessment, critical thinking

Introduction

Writing is regarded as a complex act, or *cognitive activity* (Weigle, 2002). Academic writing proficiency is essential for students in tertiary level. The students need to demonstrate their writing performance for a variety of purposes through a wide range of academic written text types such as essays, compositions, journals, reports, including theses and dissertations (Brown, 2004). However, it is not easy for students, especially for the English as a foreign language (EFL) learner to produce effective written work to meet the standards/objectives of a course.

To produce a good written product which is considered as *a manifestation of language users' knowledge* (Matsuda and Silva, 2010), students need to use cognitive processes and strategies when writing. The students also need to acquire language knowledge and strategic competence (Hayes, 1996, cited in Weigle, 2002), communicative competence (Canale and Swain, 1980, cited in Matsuda and Silva, 2010) in order to transform them into *self-initiated* topics (Hamp-Lyon, 1990), and then convey them through a certain type of genre. A well-designed *in-class* and *out-of class* writing assignments can encourage students to better use higher order thinking skills (Gamil, cited in Mat Daud, 2012). Many studies assert that the abilities to think critically and reason logically are highly related to writing process (Chaterji, 2003; Cottrell, 2005; Weigle, 2002). Thus, critical thinking plays as an importantly productive part in the writing process (Beyer, 1985).

Ideally, using scoring rubrics and providing corrective feedback in writing assessment are expected to help students learn to more critically evaluate their own written products. One practical way to fostering critical thinking skills in students when writing is teaching them to assess their critical thinking by using self-and peer-assessment activities (Arter & McTighe, 2001; Mat Daud, 2012; Nicol, 2009; Paul et al., 1997). Well-developed criteria or scoring guides with clear explanations constructed can also help teachers make the grading process in writing assessment more objective (Walvoord & Anderson, 1998).

Background

Why Critical Thinking?

The ability to think critically is one of essential skills for college students. One of the most desired goals of education is to develop learners to be better ones and "have a better future as

functional and contributing adults" (Abrami et al, 2008, p. 1103). Critical thinking is essential for all educational studies. Bailin and Siegel (2003) argued that "critical thinking is often regarded as a fundamental aim and an overriding ideal of education" (p. 188). The students in higher education should be equipped with cognitive strategies and critical thinking skills in order to succeed in the *globalized education* (Shaila and Trudell, 2010), and to survive in the *pluralistic* society (Kurfiss, 1988).

However, despite the fact that thinking and reasoning skills are valued and essential, they are rarely taught to students explicitly in academic writing courses. Most language teachers merely emphasize language knowledge: linguistic knowledge, discourse knowledge, sociolinguistic knowledge, and/or writing processes. Teaching and training critical thinking skills have been conducted mainly through subjects in psychology and philosophy (Reed, 1998). Cottrell (2005), Kurfiss (1988), and Weigle (2002), however, have advocated for involving cognitive skills and thinking strategies in teaching process in any courses of general disciplines.

Many educators have asserted that critical thinking skills are very crucial in producing good writing performance (Cottrell, 2005; Weigle, 2002). Engaging students during the process of writing (planning, organizing, editing) is particularly crucial and important to creating good written product (Reynolds and Moskovitz, 2008, cited in Mat Duad, 2012). All in all, this might indicate that if cognitive strategies, critical thinking activities, and writing tasks are carefully designed and well integrated in the instructional period, these may help students to be better in generating their own idea, and in provoking them to more effectively evaluate arguments in written assignments.

Instruments to Assess Critical Thinking Skills

Since the issue of measuring critical-thinking skills is a complex one, constructing an assessment tool is very complex as well. Abrami et al. (2008) indicated that "researchers in education and human cognition have employed numerous assessment tools that cover a broad range of formats, origins, psychometric characteristics, areas of application, and scope of constructs to be measured" (p. 1104). According to Reed (1998), three major types of instruments commonly used for assessing critical thinking are: (1) Commercial standardized tests; (2) Researcher or instructor made tests; and (3) Teaching students to assess their own thinking.

Commercial standardized tests (e.g., the California Critical Thinking Skills Test, the Cornell Critical Thinking Test, and the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal) have been constructed in item-format with multiple-choice responses aiming at testing "major aspects of critical thinking, including interpretation, analysis, inference, recognition of assumptions, assessing credibility, and detecting fallacies in reasoning" (Murphy, Conoley, & Impara, 1994, cited in Reed, 1998, p. 33). Although these assessment tools have been carefully tested for reliability and validity, they have been criticized that the multiple-choice tests are not valid indicators of critical thinking ability because they are not able to test all aspects of critical thinking but only some expected ones. Keeley and Browne (1986, cited in Reed, 1998, p. 33), point out that multiple-choice tests are not appropriate to test critical thinking adequately because "the test-takers are not free to determine their own questions or apply their own evaluative Thus, the ideas of building a teacher made-test supporting test-takers/students to criteria". construct their own responses have been developed to meet the requirement. For example, the Ennis-Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test (1985) requires test-takers to generate responses on their own after reading an essay on an everyday issue having reasoning errors.

A second approach widely used within the classroom in educational research is researcher- or instructor-made tests. These instruments have been developed to examine the effectiveness of

various experimental methods or models for critical thinking in particular. However, these instruments have limitations in terms of "the resulting variety of instruments and assessment techniques has led to difficulties comparing the results of educational studies" (Reed, 1998, p. 36).

Another way to assess students' critical thinking proposed and developed by Richard Paul, a philosopher, is that instructors need to teach students how to assess their own thinking, including providing them feedback in order to support them to achieve a high level of critical thinking (Paul, 1993). Although this approach is appropriate for classroom situations, having students assess both their own thinking and others' have several limitations. For example, Reed (1998) pointed out that "this method of assessment, for many obvious reasons, does not meet the requirements of rigorous educational research" (p. 37). Thus, all three approaches have advantages and disadvantages.

Purpose of this Review

This paper focuses on how teachers might develop hands-on scoring rubrics for writing assessment and fostering critical thinking skills. The major purpose of this article is to provide fundamental information about the relation between critical thinking and writing— important theoretical and conceptual frameworks about developing scoring rubrics for writing assessment. The paper also provides practical guidance in constructing hands-on scoring rubric for classroom assessment. It ends with a brief discussion about the benefits of the use of scoring rubrics for both writing assessment and enhancing critical thinking skills as well as some desired learning attributes which are essential for learners in higher education.

What is a Rubric?

Generally speaking, a rubric is something that describes what is being measured. Rubrics are equally important in both instruction and assessment processes and the assessment should be well-integrated in the instructional time (Gottlieb, 1999a; O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). The rubric is used for two roles: *a testing tool* and *a teaching tool* (Ferris and Hedgecock ,1998, cited in Weigle, 2002; Gottlieb, 2006). The three important purposes of assessment are to *assess for learning, to assess as learning, and to assess of learning* (Earl et al, 2006). More comprehensive rubrics, as in analytic or holistic scales, are suitable for measuring or evaluating behaviors, performance which require more extensive and in-depth instruction (Gottlieb, 2006), or "qualities of student work such as a long term project, an essay, or a research paper" (Andrade, 2000, p. 13). In contrast, checklists or rating scales are suitable for measuring tasks of short duration (Gottlieb, 2006), and/or assessing overall skills and abilities (McNamara, 1996, cited in Weigle, 2002). Suskie (2009, p. 137) defined the definition of a rubric as follows:

A rubric is a scoring guide: a list or chart that describes the criteria that you and perhaps your colleagues will use to evaluate or grade completed student assignments.

Scoring rubrics provide the expected language skills that the teachers intend to measure and the students, as well, know exactly how their learning performances will be assessed. Thus, the scoring rubrics are essential to instructional quality in terms of its clear learning expectations and explicit standards for levels of accomplishment.

The Use of Scoring Rubrics for Writing Assessment

Since producing a good academic writing such as an essay, a composition, a subject report, or a research paper, is not an easy task, clearly descriptive scoring rubrics used in writing assessment can help students understand exactly what are required and being evaluated (Andrade, 2000; Brown, 2004; Gottlieb, 2006; O'Malley and Pierce, 1996; Weigle, 2002). Many writing Iclc2013-129

specialists have asserted that the use of rubrics for evaluating students' written products is beneficial for providing detailed feedback (Andrade, 2000; Brown, 2004; Gottlieb, 2006; Weigle, 2002). More importantly, the use of rubrics or scoring guides can be employed for the development of critical thinking in writing process. According to Andrade (2000), "thinking-centered rubrics seemed to help students to think more deeply." (p.16)

Scoring rubrics used in self-assessment and/or peer-assessment/evaluation activities can promote students to more critically evaluate their own and others' work (Mat Duad, 2012; Nicol, 2009). In addition, checklist and scoring rubrics used in peer-evaluation and/or self-evaluation activities support the process approach to writing performance and improve the reliability and validity of assessing students' written products (Christison and Palmer, 2005,cited in Bachman and Palmer, 2010; Elander et al., 2006, cited in Mat Duad, 2012; Weigle, 2002). Nevertheless, the scoring rubrics should be carefully defined in order to be easily interpreted by *agents beyond the learner* (Brown, 2004). And teachers should inform students in advance on what criteria will be used to evaluate their written work (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

In terms of the measurement of *language proficiency* and *academic achievement*, Gottlieb (2006, p. 115), differentiated the roles of rubrics as follows:

For language proficiency, rubrics delineate the developmental pathways that represent the second language acquisition continuum. In contrast, rubrics designed to measure academic achievement describe the absolute performance of students in relation to academic content. Unlike language proficiency rubrics where reaching the standards is generally the end point, the designations or levels in rubrics for academic achievement generally extend beyond students "meeting" to those "exceeding" standards. To be equitable, these rubrics should acknowledge English Language learners' levels of English or native language proficiency within their descriptors.

Categorizing, or labeling, the category of linguistic features/aspects of writing for the use in writing assessment is still varied. However, five aspects of writing: *content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanic*, which developed by Jacobs et al (1981) are regarded as one of the best known and most widely used at college level in North America (Weigle, 2002). The following is an example of the categories of linguistic features of an analytic scoring rubric used for statewide assessment in Virginia: *composing, style, sentence formation, usage, mechanics* (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 145). Another example developed by Brown and Bailey (1984) is as follow: (1) *Organization (introduction, body, and conclusion)*; (2) *Logical development of ideas (content)*; (3) *Grammar*; (4) *Punctuation, spelling, and mechanics*; (5) *Style and quality of expression* (Brown, 2004, p. 244).

There are three major types of rating scales commonly used to assess student writing performance: *holistic, primary trait, and analytic scoring* (Brown, 2004; Gottlieb, 2006; O'Malley and Pierce, 1996; Weigle, 2002).

Primary Trait Scoring

This type of scoring emphasizes the specific writing task and *the task-specific scale* (Gottlieb, 2006) which is specifically defined to evaluate "the particular trait or feature you want students to demonstrate in writing" (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 142). The expected performance on the task could be "the primary rhetorical trait elicited by the task, for example, persuasive essay, congratulatory letter" (Weigle, 2002, p. 110); the specific function, for example, "the clarity of the steps of the procedure and the final result(lab report), the description of the main features of

the graph (graph description" (Brown, 2004, p. 243); "a language-based feature emphasizing one or more of the criteria for holistic scoring, such as Idea Development/ Organization or Sentence Fluency/ Structure" (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 142); or "tone and/or vocabulary" (Shaw and Weir, 2007).

In primary trait scoring, a student written product could be evaluated based on the achievement of the text that meets the specific purpose or specific learning objective at a time "which the writer has carried out the assignment" (Weigle, 2002, p. 110). In this case, Brown (2004, p. 243) gave example as follows:

If the purpose or function of an essay is to persuade the reader to do something, the score for the writing would rise or fall on the accomplishment of that function. If a learner is asked to exploit the imaginative function of language by expressing personal feelings, then the response would be evaluated on that feature alone.

Since the primary trait scale is specific to an individual writing task, and a set of primary trait rating guidelines for use have been developed separately for every writing task (Shaw & Weir, 2007), these might be valuable in the classroom levels, especially for second-language learners (Gottlieb, 2006; Hamp-Lyons, 1991a, cited in Weigle, 2002). The scales are beneficial to help students organize their work, and "inform parents of long-term assignments, and allow teachers to plan instruction and assessment" (Gottlieb, 2006, p. 122). However, the disadvantage of the primary trait approach is that it is time-consuming and expensive to implement (Brown, 2004; Gottlieb, 2006, Shaw & Weir, 2007; Weigle, 2002). According to Shaw and Weir (2007), "it's generally used only in research situations or in relation to a course of teaching where information is sought on learners' mastery of specific writing skills" (p. 149).

Holistic Scoring

The holistic scoring rubrics provide an overall description of student masteries at each level from the least to the most proficient (Gottlieb, 2006; Shaw and Weir, 2007; Weigle, 2002). The teacher, or the rater, tends to focus on the total quality of written text rather than the sum of its component (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996), including the "strengths of the writing, not on its deficiencies" (White, 1984, 1985, cited in Weigle, 2002, p. 112).

The most outstanding advantage of the use of holistic scoring is that it consumes less time to mark because a rater can assign a single score for each level once (Shaw and Weir, 2007; Weigle, 2002). However, there are pros and cons for using this type of rubric. Brown (2004, p. 242) stated that advantages of holistic scoring are: (1) Fast evaluation; (2) Relatively high inter-rater reliability; (3) Scores represent standards that are easily interpreted by lay persons; (4) Scores tend to emphasize the writer's strengths (Cohen, 1994); and (5) Applicability to writing across many different disciplines. On the contrary, holistic scoring has several disadvantages. First, a global indicator or a single score, which provides an overview of information, does not allow teachers or assessors to effectively provide corrective feedback or useful diagnostic information for their students, particularly with EFL and L2 writers (Weigle, 2002). Second, because the criteria are not explicitly stated other than for general impression marking, the teachers do not have a clear idea of the importance of each aspect of writing and even the order of acquisition of skill attributes (Shaw & Weir, 2007). This may cause teachers or raters have difficulties in making decision about which aspects of writing should be focused on the most. In addition, despite raters marking the same scores, they may not use the same criteria in evaluating the same Finally, the holistic approach to assessment has been criticized for its work (Weigle, 2002). method's validity (Charney, 1984; Gere, 198; Odell and Cooper, 1980, cited in Shaw and Weir, 2007), and inter-rater reliability (Weigle, 2002). Raters may affect their ratings. Raters. Iclc2013-131

therefore, need to be extensively trained in order to have a clear comprehension about how to use scale in each scoring approach accurately (Shaw and Weir, 2007; Hughes, 2003).

Analytic Scoring

A distinguishing feature of an analytic scoring is that each specific dimension to be measured and scored is separated clearly and more frequently used in formative assessment than for a summative one, or for formal testing (Brown, 2004; Shaw & Weir, 2007). Since the students' writing abilities are scored and reported separately, analytic scores are useful for providing feedback to teachers, stakeholders, and parents (Brown, 2004; Gottlieb, 2006; Weigle, 2002).

The issue of giving weight for each relative importance of various aspects of writing in analytic scoring is varied. According to Hughes (2003, p. 103), a tester's perception toward the importance of any aspect is reflected in weightings attached to the various components in writing. He argues that:

If diagnostic information is required directly from the rating given, then analytic scoring is essential... Grammatical accuracy, for example, might be given greater weight than accuracy of spelling. A candidate's total score is the sum of the weighted scores.

For example, in Jacobs et al (1981, cited in Weigle, 2002, p. 115):

The five aspects are differentially weighted to emphasize first *content* (30 points) and next *language use* (25 points), with *organization* and *vocabulary* weighted equally (20 points) and *mechanics* receiving very little emphasis (5 points).

Unlike Jacobs et al, Brown and Bailey (1984, cited in Brown, 2004) constructed the 100-point scale and gave equal weight (a maximum of 20 points) to each of five major categories organization, logical development of ideas, grammar, punctuation/spelling/mechanics, and style and quality of expression (p. 243). However, Brown (2004) pointed that some writing and assessment specialists have disagreed with the idea of "giving equal weight for the traits which are varied in terms of writing performance features" (p. 243).

A number of analytic scoring rubrics are also varied. The number is generally created between three and seven. For example, three rating scales used for *Ideas of Arguments, Rhetorical Features,* and *Language Control* in the Michigan Writing Assessment Scoring Guide for grading an entry-level university writing examination (Ham-Lyons, 1990; 1991b, cited in Weigle, 2002, p. 115), and seven ones for *Relevance and adequacy of content, Compositional organization, Cohesion, Adequacy of vocabulary for purpose, Grammar, Mechanical accuracy I (punctuation), and <i>Mechanical accuracy II (spelling)* used in the Test in English for Educational Purposes (TEEP) developed by Cyril Weir (1988) (Weigle, 2002, p. 115).

There are several advantages to analytic scoring. First, most assessment specialists agree that analytic scoring is more reliable than holistic scoring and primary trait scoring (Brown, 2004; Shaw & Weir, 2007; Weigle, 2002). Second, the criteria in separated scales will be more useful in rater training, especially for inexperienced raters to easily understand and apply them (Adams, 1981; Francis, 1977, cited in Shaw & Weir, 2007; Weigle, 2002). The major disadvantage of analytic scoring is that it is time-consuming and expensive (Hughes, 2003; Weigle, 2002).

Developing Hands-on Scoring Rubrics

Before getting started, there are some factors to consider in designing a scoring rubric. The factors to be considered are: (a) *Who is going to use the scoring rubric?*; (b) *What aspect(s) of writing are most important, and how will they be divided up?*; (c) *How many points, or scoring levels, will be used?*; (d) *How will scores be reported?* (Weigle, pp. 122-124)

At present, some tips and considerations for developing a rubric are available and provided in various sources. One feasible and practical way suggested is, to save time, to search for and adapt to an already existing rubric that relates to the aspects of writing or critical thinking skills that one wants to measure (Mertler, 2001). A focus or an emphasis of the assessment may be changeable and adaptable, depending on a situation or a specific objective of a test. According to Anderson (1991, cited in Weigle, 2002), the rating scales, or scoring rubrics, can be constructed to serve three distinct functions: (a) *Constructor-oriented scales*; (b) *Assessor-oriented scales*; *and* (c) *User-oriented scales*. Bargainnier (2003) has compiled information about attributes of a quality rubric from various sources (Arter & McTighe, 2001; Wiggins, 1998). The quality of a rubric(s) already produced need to be examined as well. The following suggestions are provided for novices or anyone who wants to assess the quality of a rubric as follows: (a) *Clear criteria*; (b) *Rich descriptive language*; (c) *Focus on positive attainment*; (d) *Differentiation of performance, product, and effort; and* (e) *Universal validity and reliability* (p.4).

Naming scale descriptions for each level of mastery is varied. Here are some samples of the existing rubric category labels which indicate the levels of ability/mastery:

- Unacceptable, Acceptable, Outstanding
- Below Expectation, Satisfactory, Exemplary
- Weak, Unacceptable, Acceptable, Strong
- Beginning, Developing, Competent, Accomplished
- Unacceptable, Marginal, Meets Expectations, Exceeds Expectations
- None, Limited, Moderate, Extensive, Complete

Airasian (2000& 2001, cited in Mertler, 2001) also suggested that a specific type of assignment (performance or product), how to score (holistically or analytically), and time requirements should be decided before designing a specific rubric (Mertler, 2001). Mertler (2001) has compiled information about procedures in developing rubrics from various sources (Airasian, 2000& 2001; Montgomery, 2001; Nitko, 2001; Tombari & Borich, 1999) and suggested as follows:

- Step 1: *Re-examine the learning objectives to be addressed by the task.* This allows you to match your scoring guide with your objectives and actual instruction.
- Step 2: *Identifies specific observable attributes that you want to see (as well as those you don't want to see) your students demonstrate in their product, process, or performance.* Specify the characteristics, skills, or behaviors that you will be looking for, as well as common mistakes you do not want to see.
- Step 3: *Brainstorm characteristics that describe each attribute.* Identify ways to describe above average, average, and below average performance for each observable attribute identified in Step 2.
- Step 4a: For holistic rubrics, write thorough narrative descriptions for excellent work and poor work incorporating <u>each attribute</u> into the description.

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- Step 4b: For analytic rubrics, write thorough narrative descriptions for excellent work and poor work for <u>each individual attribute</u>. Describe the highest and lowest levels of performance using the descriptors for each attribute separately.
- Step 5a: For holistic rubrics, complete the rubric by describing other levels on the continuum that ranges from excellent to poor work <u>for the collective attributes</u>. Write descriptions for all intermediate levels of performance.
- Step 5b: *For analytic rubrics, complete the rubric by describing other levels on the continuum that ranges from excellent to poor work <u>for each attribute.</u> Write descriptions for all intermediate levels of performance for each attribute separately.*
- Step 6: *Collect samples of student work that exemplify each level.* These will help you score in the future by serving as benchmarks.
- Step 7: *Revise the rubric, as necessary.* Be prepared to reflect on the effectiveness of the rubric and revise it prior to its next implementation.

According to Lewis et al. (1999) and Huba and Freed (2000), students should be involved in the development of scoring rubrics such as having students decide upon criteria for grading the assignment.

Why Hands-on Scoring Rubrics for Writing Assessment?

It is rare to find a rubric that is exactly right for one's instructional situation. In writing instruction, although, there are various existing rubrics used in many institutions, they cannot perfectly fit with learning objectives of one's writing course. Thus, hands-on scoring rubrics allow individual teachers to more specifically build criteria which better suit learning objectives of their own courses. Scaled levels, a set of criteria, and descriptions can be edited, revised again and again until the ones are found that have the best match between an assignment and its learning objectives.

In terms of building instruments to assess critical thinking skills, according to Aviles (1999, cited in Bissell & Lemons, 2006, p. 67), "many teachers in general lack the time and resources to design assessments that accurately measure critical-thinking ability", thus, compiling the existing rubrics and adapting them for use in their own classroom situations may be an alternative way which is less time consuming.

Discussion

The major purpose of this paper is to provide a convincing argument for the benefits of the use of scoring rubrics, or rating scales, for both writing assessment and fostering critical thinking. Scoring rubrics are commonly used to grade student work but they can serve another role as well. As previously mentioned, analytic scoring rubrics help teachers have more detailed information to identify strengths and weaknesses for providing corrective written feedback for their students. And many studies have argued that the use of scoring rubric, providing feedback, and discussion with teachers and peers can foster the development of critical thinking in students (Arter & McTighe, 2001; Facione, 2006; Mat Duad, 2012; Nicol, 2009). From research and practice, the well-developed rubrics can help students build their skills at developing reasoned arguments, or communicating their ideas (Towndrow, 2007). The rubrics or scoring guides have the potential to trigger the students' thinking processes more effectively in order to carry out the tasks/assignments both out-of-class (untimed) and in-class (timed) writing to meet the

benchmark. Furthermore, when the students have a clear sense of what knowledge, skills they need to obtain, tasks or performances they need to demonstrate, including clear criteria, these can promote them to be able to produce good written work. Therefore, the teacher-made scoring instruments produced for classroom assessment serves better in this sense.

In the context of writing assessment, having students critically evaluate their own and other students' written products can also foster self-directed learning (Nicol & MacFarlane-Dick's, 2006), which is one of desirable attributes in graduates in the 21st century (Nicol, 2009). Selfdirected learning or self-regulation, which is solidly based on the idea of autonomy, is also essential for life-long learning in life and work. Self-directed/regulated learning involves "a combination of cognitive strategy use, metacognitive control, and motivational beliefs" (Schraw et al., 2006). However, metacognition and motivation alone are not enough (Gunstone & Mitchell, 1998). According to Chang (1999), critical thinking skills and cognitive strategies (problem solving, planning, monitoring, evaluating of learning) can be improved through classroom instruction. In this case, effective learning experiences/involvements could have directly triggered a powerful metacognitive control and a motivation for life-long learning. Thus, it is important that teachers should be able to design instructional models/strategies, writing assignments, and/or scoring instruments in ways that help improve the expected learning outcomes, the desired attributes, and the powerful life-long learning skills needed to succeed, especially at higher education level in order to prepare college students for life and work in the future.

Although self-and peer-assessment approach is valuable to writing assessment, providing sufficient time for discussion is necessary as well. For the development of writing proficiency, students need more time for conferencing with their teachers and peers. One benefit of self-assessment and peer-assessment activities is that it is good for provoking students to consistently monitor their writing more effectively. More importantly, self-efficacy of an assessor directly impacts the quality of providing feedback, comments, and/or suggestions for writing improvements. Students with low efficacy are unlikely to provide effective written comments or feedback on their peers' work and even for their own. They also tend to spend shorter time for discussion with peers (Mat Duad, 2012). Another interesting issue is gaining acceptance between an assessor and an assessee. According to Cheng and Warren (2003), it is not comfortable for students who got used to teacher evaluations to tolerate comments or suggestions provided by their peers, especially the ones with low efficacy. Thus, the outstanding benefit of conferencing activities may better serve the teachers than the students. Because ample evidence gained from discussions and other formative assessment activities can help teachers grade or evaluate student achievement more accurately than having them take a test once at the end of the semester.

Being able to develop a teacher-made scoring instrument for one's own classroom assessment would also provide a fertile ground for developing a rubric in a large-scale writing assessment in one's institution. Developing any scoring instruments for large-scale writing tests is more complex than the ones for classroom assessment. According to Weigle (2002, p. 76), in developing rubrics used in the large-scale writing tests, there are many *interrelated factors* to consider. For example, *task variables, content area, stimulus material, scoring procedures, test-taker variables* etc. These useful lessons learned from the large-scale ones can be applied to the classroom where appropriate. The more direct experience the ones obtain from involving the development of large-scale writing tests, the better skillful test-developer/assessor they are. In summary, both teachers and students can take advantage of the development of scoring instrument for the same purpose: promoting student writing abilities and critical thinking skills.

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Abstract

This survey study was conducted as a continuous 2-year project aiming to assess Thai school students' oral English competence. The survey was undertaken in total 6 times in a row for 6 semesters. The main purpose was to test how proficient over 5,000 Thai primary and secondary school students were in terms of interactional skills, general English usage, subject contents learned, morality, and integrated skill. The research method used was a one-on-one interview, conducted by over 200 qualified and well-trained university students whose major was Business English. The results show that the overall mean scores of the students increased from 70.26% to 77.18% over the course of two years. This suggests (1) the usefulness of incessant assessment of students' oral English competence; 2) proper curriculum modification to strengthen skills that students seem to lack and (3) an important role of English teachers in helping students to enhance the areas students need improving.

Keywords: survey study, oral English competence, assessment

Introduction

In the Thai educational context, a number of primary and secondary school students are found to lack confidence in speaking English with their teachers and classmates mainly because of the predominant use of Thai, their mother tongue. They also lack the opportunity to use English in their daily lives. Moreover, many Thai students could not use English skills effectively, especially in listening and speaking (Jaiyai et. al. 2005). Using oral English assessment thus appears to be one strategy that is advocated to help Thai students overcome this difficulty.

In general, oral English assessment involves the use of a range of assessment strategies because English language learners need a variety of ways to demonstrate their understanding. In fact, the lower the language proficiency, the more important it is to use assessment techniques beyond just fundamental tasks. Overall, developmentally apt assessment provides opportunities for students to demonstrate what they know in an environment in which it is safe to take risks related to learning (Joughin and Collom, 2003).

For the purpose of summarizing the holistic assessment as a result of the continuous 2- year survey project, the researcher will focus on the protocol, results, and recommendations based on the sixth assessment, which is the final assessment, to discuss and put forward the practicality of oral English assessment in Thai schools as a way to help Thai students improve their communicative skill in English.

Literature Review

Oral assessment is used to assess achievement in wide variety of disciplines. It is particularly useful in authentic assessment, in encouraging good learning, and in countering plagiarism. While many students can experience oral assessment as a powerful form of assessment, it needs

to be designed and implemented with particular care in order to avoid pitfalls and maximize benefits.

Oral assessment is one of the oldest forms of assessing students. It can take a number of forms, such as an interview, involving questions and answers, a mock-up of a real-life scenario or a presentation in front of peers (Joughin and Collom, 2003). There are a number of advantages to using oral assessments in classrooms. First, it can reflect real world situations that students may have to deal with after school, particularly in fields where discussions are common. Second, the meaning of the questions that are being asked can be clarified to avoid misunderstanding by the students, thus strengthening their comprehension of the topic in discussion. Third, it is easier to differentiate students according to their level of competency. Finally, it is more difficult to cheat on this kind of assessment or plagiarize from other students or resources.

However, no assessment method is perfect. There are a few cautions to keep in mind when considering whether to use oral assessment. First, some students may be shy or nervous and have difficulty communicating coherently in highly stressful situations, and this effect is often amplified when they must speak directly to the examiner. Second, for students whose first language is not English, this may be more challenging than a written test, where they have time to carefully consider how to phrase their ideas. Last but not least, depending on the size of the class and the length of the assessment, this can be a time consuming process.

When planning and administering the test, examiners can prepare students in advance by explaining how the oral examination works, and if feasible, having practice tests so that the students are aware of what is expected of them. In addition, when questioning the students' knowledge, the questions must be flexible depending on the students' answer. Some students may explain something in the initial response that was part of follow-up questions, or may not include a relevant concept in their answers. Therefore, it is the job of the examiners to use their judgment and change the questions as necessary to establish the understanding of each student.

It is also important to record each assessment carefully as examiners proceed, so that they can review each assessment later if necessary, so justification for students' grades can be provided if asked. Preparing a rubric, or marking guide in advance would be necessary as well. This way, oral examiners can do all the initial marking while the student interviewee is speaking.

Evidently, oral assessment can work well when combined with a written assessment (Joughin, 2010). Certainly, written forms of assessment seem to dominate summative assessment in universities, but oral assessment has a long and honourable history in higher education as well. It is well-established in medicine, law and architecture, and can now be found in most discipline areas. As an indication of its common usage, the ASSHE inventory of assessment practices documents 30 case studies involving oral assessment (Hounsell et. al. 1996).

In light of language study, oral communication must be assessed orally. Apart from language skill that can be assessed, other kinds of knowledge and abilities which oral assessment is considered particularly useful include knowledge and understanding in which oral assessment allows for probing students' understanding through follow-up questioning. In terms of problem

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solving and application, oral assessment can be used to test students' ability to think critically through diagnosing problems in unfamiliar situations as they apply knowledge to scenarios provided. In the area of interpersonal skills, generic or transferable skills, including communication and interview skills in the context of professional situations, are well-suited to measurement through oral assessment. As for personal attributes, it is often claimed that oral assessment can be used to measure personal qualities such as alertness, reaction to stress, adaptability, self-awareness and self-confidence (Hounsell & McCune, 2001).

While oral assessment can work well, it is not without its difficulties. Objections are often made that it is too time consuming, lacks reliability, and is subject to bias. Gibbs et. al. (1988) list five further problems for examiners: balancing the need to ask challenging questions with the need to help the examinee relax; encouraging the examinee to talk while keeping him or her on track; discriminating between what the examinee says and how he or she says it; making a sound judgment on the basis of a small amount of evidence; and justifying a mark in the absence of written evidence, especially in the case of student appeals. They also note three problems for examinees: a lack of skill in what is an infrequently experienced type of assessment; the unpredictability of questions which makes preparation more difficult; and the potential for stress.

With regards to oral assessment in the Thai context, it appears that there is no evidence of large scale studies having been conducted so far. Therefore, this study is said to be one of the largest scale survey studies that look into the speaking assessment tasks to assess learners' oral communication skills. In fact, it is found that of all the direct performance-based assessment tasks, face-to-face interview is the most popular choice among teachers for assessing speaking skills of Thai EFL learners since it seems to most approximate natural conversation, the traditional form of oral communication in everyday life (Chinda, 2009).

Methodology

The study is a survey study with the main purpose of evaluating students' oral English proficiency in large numbers. Over the course of 2 years, the Faculty of Arts, Assumption University at the successive request of a Thai school in Bangkok had been to oversee and conduct the longitudinal oral English proficiency assessment for its students from grade 1 to grade 12 with the principal objectives as follows:

- To evaluate the students' ability to communicate in English on both general and some classroom subject related topics;
- To create awareness among students and teachers about the significance of English as a communication tool; and
- To encourage the students and teachers to engage in English conversation.
- To measure the students' level of morality and find ways to inculcate ethical value in students' life
- To introduce the students to integrated skill from reading to speaking, showing reading comprehension through oral proficiency

Scope of Evaluation

The students' oral English skills are assessed through the evaluation of the following five sub-skills:

- 1. Interaction skills: to assess the students' ability to interact in English with confidence, good eye contact and a willingness to complete the allotted tasks with full cooperation.
- 2. Language competence: to assess the accuracy of the grammar and sentence structure in the students' spoken English. Pronunciation and vocabulary were also evaluated.
- 3. Subject knowledge: to assess students' comprehension of classroom subject content. An evaluation was also made of their critical thinking skills and/or subject knowledge application to real life.
- 4. Morality: to assess the students' level of morality and
- 5. Integrated skill: to assess the students' ability in comprehending given text via oral communication

Method

In accordance with the previous assessments, this final assessment was implemented through an approximately 10-minute one-on-one interview. However, this time the questions used were adjusted as appropriate with new questions added to meet the demands and criteria set by the school. Thus, the evaluation became more dynamic, more intense and more challenging for the student interviewees.

9 subsets of questions for different levels are divided as follows: lower elementary (grades 1-2), lower upper elementary (grades 3-4), upper elementary (grades 5-6), lower secondary M1 (grade 7), lower secondary M2 (grade 8), lower secondary M3 (grade 9), upper secondary M4 (grade 10), upper secondary M5 (grade 11) and upper secondary M6 (grade 12). Altogether, there were 5,262 students who were interviewed in the last assessment. The student interviewees were studying at a private school in Bangkok. They are all males and are required to study about 10 hours of English per week during the school term.

Regarding the interviewers, they were adept students primarily from the Faculty of Arts, Assumption University though students from other faculties were welcome to join. These students were selected by a working team consisting of 6 instructors. A couple of screening rounds were organized as well as training and orientation sessions given to the recruited interviewers. In fact, to be qualified for interviewing, the screened students were ascertained to have upper intermediate and advanced levels of English proficiency, taking into account their G.P.A. and oral English fluency.

The working team also agreed to use a mock interview to warm up and familiarize both the interviewer and the interviewee. The mock session lasted 2 minutes before a start of the first interview. There were no marks given. Another useful purpose of interview mocking is to minimize a tendency of mark strictness of the interviewer in the first interview session.

The interviewers evaluated students' oral skills using different sets of questions. Scores were allotted on the scale between 1- 5.

Mark totals for each skill are as follows:

- 1. Interaction skills10marks
- 2. Language competence 12 marks
- 3. Subject knowledge 8 marks

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4. Morality	5	marks
5. Integrated Skill	5	marks
Total score	40	marks

Results

Table 1: Students	' Overall Performances in	Oral English Proficienc	y (the 6 th Final Assessment)

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	All Students
Mean	28.20	31.07	30.20	32.04	31.29	32.43	32.19	32.96	32.74	33.38	32.96	31.26	31.73
%	70.50	77.68	75.50	80.10	78.23	81.08	80.48	82.40	81.85	83.45	82.40	78.15	79.32
Median	29	32	30	33	32	33	33	34	34	34	33	32	32.42
%	72.50	80.00	75.00	82.50	80.00	82.50	82.50	85.00	85.00	85.00	82.50	80.00	81.04
Mode	29	40	27	39	31	32	34	37	40	36	33	35	34.42
%	72.50	100.00	67.50	97.50	77.50	80.00	85.00	92.50	100.00	90.00	82.50	87.50	86.04
STD	6.58	6.46	5.99	5.98	5.64	5.09	5.67	5.24	5.73	4.83	4.50	5.68	
Max	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	
Min	10	10	10	10	10	16	15	10	10	10	18	12	
Present	472	479	432	450	489	453	458	447	486	455	395	335	5,351
Absent	6	2	5	0	12	9	1	4	6	13	17	14	89

Total <u>5,262</u>

From Table 1, the overall performances of the students from grade 1 to grade 12 of their 6th oral English proficiency assessment (a combination of the 5 skills assessed) were at **79.32%**. In this assessment, the overall percentage is slightly higher than that of the fifth assessment (at 77.18%) by 2.14%. The overall mean score out of 40 mark totals was **31.73**. On the whole, the findings suggest that the students' scores are upward compared with the scores of the previous assessment. However, it is to be remarked that with the inclusion of new, several, specific questions challenging students' critical and analytical knowledge, this could inevitably have an impact on the students' overall scores to a smaller or greater extent.

It is also to note that of all levels M4 students obtained the highest average score (83.45%) while P1 students received the lowest average score (70.50%). However, a generalization cannot be made here since different sets of questions with varied difficulty levels were used with different groups of students. The scores of the students of almost all levels except M6 appear to show improvement with P4, M3, and M4 students securing the highest increase at 4.33%, 3.95% and 3.85 % in order in comparison with the fifth assessment results in December 2010. Interestingly, M2 and M5 students could still maintain their average high scores of 82.40 % in this assessment with reference to the last assessment (see Table 2 for comparison).

	(Sur revious Assessment)													
	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	All Students	
Mean	20.60	22.64	21.54	22.73	22.51	23.68	23.87	24.85	23.37	23.88	24.59	23.57	23.15	
%	68.67	75.47	71.80	75.77	75.03	78.93	79.57	82.83	77.90	79.60	81.97	78.57	77.18	
Median	21	23	22	23	23	24	24	25	24	24	25	23	23.42	

Table 2: Students' Performances in Oral English Proficiency

 (5th Previous Assessment)

%	70.00	76.67	73.33	76.67	76.67	80.00	80.00	83.33	80.00	80.00	83.33	76.67	78.06
Present	471	430	433	496	450	454	462	491	480	408	388	357	5,320
Absent	1	4	3	4	4	1	3	1	8	14	29	6	78
												Total	5,242

5,242

By and large, the results of this 6th assessment point towards progress on the students' oral English proficiency over time. The students, based on the outcomes, seem to have an adequate level of oral English competence. As for the students' sub-skill performances, the scores can be found in Table 3.

As shown in Table 3, the students appear to earn the highest scores in interaction skills, and the lowest in language competence, in all grades. Overall, they also demonstrated sufficient knowledge of general realms of learning for their levels. This implies that the students are quite proficient and confident in speaking English when dealing with real-life and typical matters though when subject knowledge from the classroom is needed, more difficulty in expressing ideas exists. Most seem to handle morality questions well especially for secondary students. Similarly, the majority scored satisfactorily in integrated skill, signally their ability to comprehend text and express their understanding orally well.

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6
Interaction Skills	7.81	8.16	7.99	8.40	8.30	8.28	8.51	8.58	8.67	8.81	8.79	8.44
%	78.10	81.60	79.90	84.00	83.00	82.80	85.10	85.80	86.70	88.10	87.90	84.40
Language Competence	7.88	8.85	8.59	9.22	8.77	9.05	9.16	9.20	9.38	9.26	9.21	8.72
%	65.67	73.75	71.58	76.83	73.08	75.42	76.33	76.67	78.17	77.17	76.75	72.67
Subject Knowledge	5.53	6.22	6.06	6.49	6.27	6.65	6.52	6.69	6.58	6.85	6.72	6.33
%	69.13	77.75	75.75	81.13	78.38	83.13	81.50	83.63	82.25	85.63	84.00	79.13
Morality	3.55	3.86	3.68	3.88	4.01	4.33	4.00	4.31	4.10	4.22	4.19	3.90
%	71.00	77.20	73.60	77.60	80.20	86.60	80.00	86.20	82.00	84.40	83.80	78.00
Intergrated Skill	3.43	3.98	3.88	4.06	3.94	4.12	3.99	4.17	4.01	4.26	4.05	3.87
%	68.60	79.60	77.60	81.20	78.80	82.40	79.80	83.40	80.20	85.20	81.00	77.40

Table 3: Students' Sub-skill Performances (6th Final Assessment)

Discussion and Implications

Interview is considered one of the most prevalent means of evaluating speaking skills (Underhill, 1998; Weir, 1993). Employed in official speaking tests locally and internationally, it is a direct, face-to-face interchange between the learner and the interviewer in which the former's performance is evaluated. Generally, in assessing students' speaking performance from the interview, scoring rubrics used often include the following aspects: pronunciation/accent, grammar/structure, vocabulary, content, fluency, and comprehension. However, it has been argued that rather than conversational competencies, these rubrics are more oriented towards measuring linguistic competencies (Kormos, 1999). This might be the case for the present survey study as well given such a position as evidently the score for language use is more than other aspects of testing.

Examining conversation proficiency assessment, Ussama & Sinwongsuwat (2012) compared scores given by two independent raters' evaluating video-recorded speaking performance of learners with the same low level of English proficiency in interview and role-play interactions with a rubric containing these items. Initial findings of the study revealed that the total scores from both test tasks were not significantly different at the 5% level. It was suggested that both interview and role-play interactions produced similar results when used in assessing the overall oral English performance of the learners with the traditional rubric. It is therefore possible to use role-play interactions as another effective tool for evaluating students' oral proficiency. To make it more practical, these two instruments can even be combined for greater effects in any future attempt for oral assessment.

From the analysis, it is observable that students' lower scores in language proficiency may indicate difficulty in utilizing right and proper English grammatical structure, leading to unclear or confusing utterances. Thus, the school under study should investigate ways to enhance the students' accuracy while maintaining fluency in English in addition to ensuring that subject matter taught in class is not simply wasted due to learning loss. One way is to update the English curriculum from time to time as appropriate to strengthen skills that the students seem to lack. Correct English pronunciation should be taught constantly perhaps in mini lessons to make this more enjoyable as well as vocabulary enrichment.

English teachers thus play an important role in helping the students to enhance the skills concerned. More dynamic and interactive teaching methods should be developed and implemented that would fit the context of learning especially in English classrooms at the school. Meanwhile, the explicit teaching of morality is needed to support ethical ways of life as this is the basis of important lifelong learning for all. The students should also be instructed on effective strategies they can use to improve integrated skill which is currently required in most standardized English tests such as the TOEFL.

This final assessment had indeed been quite a challenge for both the interviewers and interviewees given several improvements in the process. With more assessment in the future, we can certainly hope for continuous improvement and development of the students in their oral English competence. Implementing oral English assessment with other Thai schools would also enable comparative studies that can pave the way for solemnly and concretely improving Thai students' English proficiency.

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SOCIOLINGUISTICS AND MULTILINGUALISM

Language and Symbolic Power in Pierre Bourdieu Potential and Limits as Sociolinguistic Paradigm

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Abstract

In our paper we analyze Bourdieu's sociolinguistic paradigm. According to Bourdieu language is not just an instrument of communication, but mean of a "symbolic power", responding to a social space structured in different objective positions and characterized by relations of domination and subordination between social groups in different positions, struggling for stakes of different social fields. Symbolic power is the power of dominant positions to impose their worldview to the entire social space, seeking to legitimize their rule. Linguistic expressions with value in the "linguistic market" fixed by dominants positions and embedded in them as "habitus", serve as markers of "social distinction", of the right and estimable, reaffirming symbolically their dominance and authority, serving thus to the social reproduction.

Bourdieu's perspective is still very interesting and insightful. We will present examples from mainland China in the era of globalization. Yet his perspective is perhaps too rigid, highly oriented to explain "social reproduction". No glimpse of liberating potential uses of language by reflexive individuals outside the power structure. Furthermore, Foucault shows how there is an *episteme* underlying all symbolic space of an era and a genesis of the subject itself before his projection into the social space of struggle and domination. The "technologies of the self" of the last Foucault are also forms of resistance to the symbolic power of the constructed subject.

Bourdieu's perspective is still very interesting and could be complemented with broader Foucault's genealogy of power/knowledge and nuanced by studies of unconventional and resistant uses of language.

Keywords: Language/Symbolic Power/Bourdieu

Introduction

Pierre Bourdieu, French Sociologist (1930-2002), is considered one of the most influential social scientists of the twentieth century. He taught at the prestigious Collège de France. It is the author of numerous books and papers, which cover virtually every discipline of sociology. His book *Distinction* is one of the most cited in sociology.

We will study the perspective of Bourdieu on language and communication, showing its potential as critical linguistics but also its limits as a sociological paradigm.

On one hand, Bourdieu works on the *structure* of the social space seen as multidimensional and composed by autonomous and interrelated "fields", structured in different objective social positions and by relations among positions in terms of power and domination. On the other, he works on the *phenomenology* of the subjects who internalize the structuring structures of the social space as "habitus", and struggle and compete for their resources at stake of the different fields, with their dispositions and position-takings strongly conditioned by their position. He studies the overall

reproduction of the social space, how the dominant positions keep dominant retaining power, wealth and prestige, and how the dominated positions remain dominated, generally in an unconscious and unintentional way.

Bourdieu's Field Theory

The theory of Bourdieu is known as *field theory*, even if he pretended to be not a theorist. Bourdieu proposes a *relational* thinking, because for him what exists in the social world are *relations*. "No interactions between agents or intersubjective ties between individuals, but objective relations which exist 'independently of consciousness or individual will" as Marx said" (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 150). Bourdieu understands society as a dynamic and multidimensional social space characterized by different objective *positions*, which can be mapped out in a graph of distances. The positions are determined by the volume (amount of capital of different species) and structure of capital (internal diversified composition of economic, social, cultural, and symbolic) of the agents in each position, and also by their trajectories deployed over time. Economic capital basically represents monetary resources. Cultural capital includes knowledge, skills, and education, often expressed in titles and diplomas. Social capital is based on group memberships, relationships and networks of influence and support. Symbolic capital finally relates to prestige, status and recognition in society. "These positions are objectively defined, in their existence and in the determinations they impose upon their occupants, agents or institutions, by their present and potential situation (situs) in the structure of distribution of species of power (or capital) whose possession commands access to specific benefits that are at stake in the field, as well as their objective relation to other positions (domination, subordination, homology, etc.)" (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 150). Capitals are the socially effective forms of power that structure the social space, which are finally not an invariant configuration, but a contingent and dynamic product of history. For Bourdieu social space consists of multiple *fields*, relatively autonomous, depending on the different social resources coveted. There are political fields, cultural fields, religious fields, artistic fields, bureaucratic fields, scientific fields, etc. All are *fields of struggles*, battlefields where the agents seek to conserve or to subvert the power relations, struggling for positions of primacy.

In the social space, and in the different fields that compose it, there are therefore *dominant* and *dominated* positions according to the overall level of capital, with "strategies of conservation" in the agents located in dominant positions and "strategies of subversion" in the agents located in the dominated positions (Bourdieu, 1984b: 198). In the social game, the *position-takings* of the agents in different *positions* are highly conditioned (even if not fully determined) by the system of *dispositions* ("habitus") inculcated by the family and school and associated with each different position. If the social space of positions constitutes the structure of the social, the habitus and position-takings ultimately determine access to resources in dispute and classifications in the social spectrum of rulers and ruled.

Language and Symbolic Power

What represents language in Bourdieu's field theory? It represents not only a mean of communication, but a mean of a *symbolic power*. What is the symbolic power?

Bourdieu was not limited either to place the "potential classes" of his mapped out social space in a range of positions on the relations of production, i.e., in the economic field, but opened the analysis to consider multiple positions in social and cultural fields. Dominant positions not only correspond to those who treasure high economic capital, but also cultural, social, and symbolic capital. Bourdieu argues that in the stage of struggle for primacy in the social space, potential classes embark on struggles for domination of the symbolic space of representations of classes, struggles for classification, valuation and devaluation of positions, as well as legitimation and delegitimation of certain positions over others. In words of Bourdieu, "the different classes and class fractions are engaged in a symbolic struggle properly speaking, one aimed at imposing the definition of the social world that is best suited to their interests" (Bourdieu, 1992: 167). An instrument of what Bourdieu calls "symbolic violence," this kind of "soft power" exercises violence over the social system in an invisible manner, by manipulating symbols and systems of symbols. "Symbolic power is that invisible power which can be exercised only with the complicity of those who do not want to know that they are subject to it or even that they themselves exercise it" (Bourdieu, 1992: 164).

Language serves not only as a mean of communication but as an instrument of symbolic power. As a form of symbolic domination, it tends to be embodied in the "habitus" of individuals, appearing as natural and innate. But what exactly is the "habitus" according to Bourdieu?

Bourdieu introduces the notion of habitus to correct the possible structuralist bias of his theoretical approach. Habitus represents the subjective internalization of the social externality. It is the way that social structures are recorded in the mind and body, creating structures of subjectivity. It is history embodied that guides the practices of agents. The field structures the habitus and the habitus gives on its behalf meaning and value to the field (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 188). Bourdieu defines habitus as "system of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures" (Bourdieu, 1990: 53). Habitus represents the generative and unifying principle of the practices and ideologies characterizing a group of agents. Habitus is instilled in individuals by two basic institutions, the family and the school. The habitus are *cognitive* (orienting knowledge), *conative* (orienting action), and emotional (orienting desire) schemas, coherent, robust, and durable, associated with each position in the social space. Schemes are learned, taught, and "embodied" in the body of the social agents, without them noticing. Habitus is expressed in different worldviews, lifestyles, tastes, manners, conduct, action, and so forth. The way of use of language is an example of habitus that can serve to distinguish between an upper-class and a lower-class use of language.

Language is also a practice of *distinction* (Bourdieu, 1984a) that serves to keep the distances between the different objective social positions. Linguistic expressions with value in what Bourdieu calls the "linguistic market" (Bourdieu, 1992) serve as markers of social distinction, civility, good taste, education, good family, good "habitus". They contribute to the legitimization of the ruling positions in the social space. There is a *linguistic capital* that constitutes, like all capitals, a form of power. This symbolic power of language is expressed through *discourses* with value in the linguistic market. This value is related to the *power relations* in the linguistic field and to the capacity of certain positions to impose their own view to the whole field. Language represents

therefore not only communication among individuals, but rivalries and conflicts between social positions struggling for hegemony and domination.

Language as taste is socially stratified and is explained by habitus and symbolic domination. There is a richer, cultured and refined use of language in the ruling classes and a poorer, rough, and colloquial use in the dominated classes. The use of language acts as a marker of social distinction, becoming an instrument of legitimation of the ruling classes and symbolic domination of the dominated.

The linguistic capital can be converted in other forms of capital, like the other forms of capital. Those who use better the language are usually those who come from good families, with economic, social, and cultural capital. Usually they perform better in school, which value their use of language. At school and at home the same language is spoken so because of this familiarity their probability of success is greater than that of the children of workers with poor use of language. Its higher probability of school success leads to a higher probability to be admitted to a good college. They finally obtain better college diplomas with symbolic and cultural value, which gives them access to higher positions in the labor market, accumulating more economic capital. We can understand thus the language not just as mean of communication but as a social instrument for the reproduction of social space and its ruling positions.

In sum, the correct and proper use of language is also habitus, history, and education of upper classes embodied, and serves to the process of social reproduction, as marker of legitimization of the ruling classes. Those who occupy dominant positions in the social space would be so legitimized in their domination not only because of their higher economic or social capital, but also because of a greater symbolic capital, which would be expressed in a better and richer use of language, in lexical and syntactic superior skills. Those who occupy dominated positions in social space instead are characterized by poor and often vulgar language, for a vocabulary limited and lacking in elegance, by reduced expressive capabilities. All this also serve to legitimize their dominated position in the social space, which general rules and measures of assessment and classification are dictated by those in positions above. We have so that language also serves the general process of social reproduction of the structures of inequality and domination.

Potential and Limits of Bourdieu's Critical Linguistics

Bourdieu build his model in relation to the French society of the 1960s and 1970s. He already had the intuition of its potentiality for other societies, such as by instance Japan. Today his framework could be applied worldwide, also to non-Western societies, proving its great analytical potential. We can find an example by instance in the discourses on "*suzhi*" in Post-Mao China. *Suzhi* is a Chinese term that could be translated as "human quality", even if it has not exact definition. It gained greater popularity in governmental discourses, media, and among common people, since the beginning of the economic reforms launched by Deng Xiaoping in the 80s. *Suzhi* implies a distinction between those who have *suzhi* (the new middle classes from the rich Eastern coastal cities) and those who lack of *suzhi* (the peasants and migrant workers coming from rural and poor inner provinces) (Anagnost, 2004). It is expressed in educational background, civility, right manners, and also in a correct and cultured use of language, with a proper voice modulation, intonation degree, and so forth. We can see by instance differences between uses of language among "nongmingong" (rural

migrant workers) and "*zhongchan jieji*" (middle classes), also between "*dongbei ren*" (people from the North) and "*nanfangren*" (people from the South). *Suzhi* represents in sum a marker of social distinctions between "backward" peasantry and urban modernity. It serves to the class-making and empowerment of the nouveaux riches in China since the reforms and opening up of the 80s. It is an example of the symbolic power of language, operate through discourses that respond to power relations and struggles over dominance of the social space.

We see thus the potential of Bourdieu's critical linguistics, as a tool of social analysis that transcends the French society of the twentieth century, and it is useful to study the dynamics of social reproduction in the global era, in very diverse societies, Western and Eastern.

However, even if the study of language as a form of symbolic power certainly serves to unmask the structures of inequality and domination still present in our current societies, we find also some limitations in its theoretical framework.

On one hand, there is a lack of a general understanding of the genesis of the subject, today through rational technologies of "governmentality" (Foucault, 2008, 2009) before its projection as an agent in the social space. The "technologies of the self" (Foucault, 1988) also serve as action of the subject on itself, allowing him to escape his positioning and habitus. There is an absence of a theoretical analysis of the *episteme* of the current era previous to the social dynamics, which was exposed by instance by Foucault in his genealogical study on the structures of knowledge/power of modern societies.

Bourdieu's model explains very well the *social reproduction*, but not much the *social change*. Its conceptual apparatus is often too rigid. In its worldview there is a lack of what Deleuze called "lines of flight" (Deleuze and Guattari, 1987) that can bring other possible worlds and change the rigid structures of domination. There is in his theory as well a lack of a study of subversive and liberating uses of language beyond the social conditioning, the self-organization and self-reflexivity of the subjects. We find that although Bourdieu intended to transcend the dualism Structuralism/Phenomenology, certain unconscious structuralist bias can be observed in his work, which in our opinion the notion of "habitus" do not overcome, which always points to the overall structuring structure. All this implied a certain "sociologist reductionism" in Bourdieu, which tends to explain every human phenomenon, such as language, exclusively through the sociological perspective.

In sum, Bourdieu's perspective on language and symbolic power is still of great interest and rigor to analyze cultural and symbolic dimensions of the social dynamics in the era of globalization. It is a very useful theoretical framework for Sociolinguistics and Critical Linguistics, and very interesting for the analysis of the formation of new classes in new emerging countries, such as in East Asia. However, we find that it should be complemented by the Foucauldian analysis of the genesis of the subject prior to the social structuration, and by the phenomenological studies of the actual potential of transforming the structures of domination by the subjects.

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This Way to Baguio

Baguio City is dubbed as the Philippines' Summer Capital being the only city in the tropical country with a relatively cool climate throughout the year. Nestled atop the mountains of the Cordillera region, Baguio boasts of the conveniences of city life (with malls, universities and hospitals) and the laid back atmosphere of the countryside. Because of these unique and attractive qualities, Baguio attracts migrants from the lowlands in the neighboring provinces of Ilocos, Pangasinan, Tarlac, Pampanga and, surprisingly, as far as Mindanao (with a growing population of Muslims entrepreneurs). Though originally designed during the American period to host only a population of about 20,000; the city is now home to more than 250,000 permanent and transient residents as a large portion of its population are students in the major universities in the city like Saint Louis University, University of the Cordilleras, University of Baguio and the University of the Philippines. Baguio is also a favorite summer destination of local and international tourists, primarily because of its climate. A relatively large Korean population calls the city home. Enterprising Koreans have established English academies in the city with teachers coming from the local population of young teachers or undergraduates who teach English parttime. Because of the composition of its population, a variety of languages and dialects are also used in the relatively small space of Baguio.

The ethnoliguisitc diversity is astounding. The original population is *Ibaloi*, but because of the large migrant population also using *Ilocano*, *Pangasinense*, *Kankanaey* and other Cordilleran languages. The lingua franca of the locals is *Baguio Variety Ilocano*.

We Accept Landscaping

Baguio can boast of its literally breath-taking landscape and its equally interesting linguistic landscape. Previous studies on the language situation of Baguio have shown that as a result of language contact, many features of languages have merged to make the *llocano* (a major Philippine language largely spoken in the Ilocos region) used in Baguio unique as the city's lingua franca.

In defining linguistic landscape, studies refer to Landry and Bourhis', 1997 definition:

The language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government building combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region or urban agglomeration. The linguistic landscape of a territory can serve two basic functions: an informational function and a symbolic function. (Landry and Bourhis in Gorter, 2006)

In the last decade, scholars have turned their interest not only on studying authentic language in conversation or print media but also its use in commercial or public signs. Interesting studies reveal that these signs show the underlying language policy and/or preferences in a given community. Studies in Gorter's Linguistic Landscape: A New Approach to Multilingualism deal with studying the dominant language, *interlanguage*, and language contact through the analysis of language used in and for signs. This study attempts to study public and commercial signs predominantly found in Baguio City's business district with these main questions as guide: What do these signage reveal about the language policy and/ or preference (linguistic landscape) in the city?; and, What do these signage reveal about the use of language (English) by the residents?

Wanted Bedspacer

Gorter (2006, p.1) expands Landry and Bourhis' 1997 definition of linguistic landscape:

...the literal study of languages as they are used in the signs, and on the other hand also the representation of the languages, which is of particular importance because it relates to the identity and cultural globalization, to the growing presence of English and to the revitalization of minority languages.

He likewise points out that the terms linguistic market, linguistic mosaic, ecology of languages, diversity of languages or linguistic are often used synonymously with linguistic landscape. Gorter's definition is particularly interesting because it reflects the language situation in Baguio city. Despite the number of Philippine languages used by the residents, the signs are predominantly composed in English. I would hazard to note that this is also the case in the whole country which is reflective of the official position that English enjoys in an Outer Circle country like the Philippines.

Filipinos welcomed English with open arms in 1898 when the Americans ended 300 years of Spanish colonial rule, then established a public school system with English as a medium of instruction. According to Bautista (p.7 in Kachru 2006) the Americans had a "distinct agenda to educate the Filipinos and uplift and civilize and Christianize them, to fit the people for the duties of citizenship. And in that part of the colonial world English was again introduced as a tool of "enlightenment", of "light" and of "civilization". As in most Outer Circle Countries today, the Philippines recognizes the use of English as one of its official languages. In fact, one can easily see that English is preferred over local languages in various domains like media, education, government and religion. Where does this leave local languages? They are like bedspacers (PE term for a tenant who pays only for a literal space of one bed instead of a whole room) in an English dominated linguistic landscape.

Over the decades, English in the Philippines has evolved distinct features which led to the development of an Outer Circle Variety of English, Philippine English (PE). Distinguishing features of PE include lexical, syntactic, semantic and phonological features. Like other varieties, features of PE are largely accepted as a local standard; thus, most Filipinos actually use PE for all purposes. In describing PE, Malicsi (___) says,

"...the difference between the two (PE and AmE) result from interference by Philippine languages, and the systematized forms of Filipino language professionals, nearly all of whom learned their English from Filipino teachers who, in turn learned from other Filipino teachers, with almost everyone using limited dictionaries and traditional grammar books as primary sources for language learning."

Malicsi uses the term "drift" to describe the continuous development of distinct PE features from Inner Circle models as standard. English is also popularly referred to as a global lingua franca, and its role as such is to facilitate communication between peoples with different mother tongues.

In the analysis of the data collected in the form of commercial and public signs written predominantly in English, Kachru's *World Englishes* is the theoretical framework used to analyze the language used to compose the signs. The theory of linguistic landscape is used to analyze the overall data to reflect the linguistic context of Baguio City.

Wanted: English Tutor

The last decade was witness to the rapid growth of Korean population in Baguio. Korean students as early age 4 come to the city to study in English academies set-up mostly by Koreans with an all-Filipino faculty. They choose to study in the Philippines primarily because it is cheaper than studying in the U.S. or Britain. They choose Baguio because of its climate and even cheaper standard of living compared to Manila. This has contributed to the already diverse ethnolinguistic population of Baguio which is home (at least temporarily) to Koreans, Japanese, Chinese and American or British expats who have chosen the city as their retirement home.

Given the local and international diversity in its population the city has to graciously play host to all of them. Local, public and commercial signs all throughout the city are predominantly in English. This is because the target audience is also linguistically diverse; and, in order to address all effectively, English has sort of taken the place of a written *lingua franca*. This is a common observation in Asian countries which are also tourist destinations like Thailand, Japan, Hong Kong and Singapore. This phenomenon may also be attributed to *globalization*, defined by Bolton as:

Through globalization, we now inhabit a familiar universe in most destinations throughout the world...Added to which is, and perhaps more tellingly, in many cities around the world, we also have the vernacular equivalents of such brands with local versions of McDonald's and copy-culture Starbucks clones...Through globalization, the world has become more connected, more consumerist, increasingly corporatized and often increasingly mundane. (Bolton 2012, p.30)

Globalization has enabled us to conceive of the world as a global village where there is constant interaction among neighbors (countries) and what literally facilitates this interaction is English. Think of the internet as an enabling medium for this to take place. One does not actually have to travel to see places and know other people, he just has to go on-line. Incidentally, Baguio is also home to BPOs and on-line English academies catering different nationalities.

Follow the Signs

When we look for signs and look at signs, we do so to get the information we need, like where to park, how to get somewhere, where to get something. But signs reveal more than just basic information. They reveal a lot about the people who made them. Bolton (2012) notes in the recent years there have been a global 'intrusion' of English in the public spaces. A number of noteworthy studies have been done on this. He further notes "...In these studies, the use of English language signage is variously explained in terms of prestige, style and modernity (Ross),

'creativity' (MacArthur 2010)...'Western consumerism' (Dimora 2007) and 'prestige and wealth' (Dimora 2007)." (Bolton 2012, p. 31) An increasingly multilingual world is the product of globalization with English as the lingua franca. However, linguists have also noted that this works both ways, with English also coming in contact with local languages, it is also 'glocalized' by adapting to the users' repertoire of languages. The result is that the language used in signage is PE, reflecting interlanguage features from the repertoire of local languages in Baguio City. In gathering data for this paper, it appears that English, albeit PE, is the preferred language whether for public, private or commercial signage.

In most cases, PE used for signage reflects features previously documented as Standard Features of PE like misuse of prepositions, erroneous subject-verb agreement, misuse of tenses and lack / inappropriate use of articles. In the light of Kachru's *World Englishes* framework, these features which were previously seen as deviations may now be considered as innovative features in the Outer Circle varieties. In the past, these were seen as 'errors' from the standards using Inner Circle varieties like American or British English as models. Smith and Nelson (in Kachru 2006) propose that models be replaced with more liberal guiding principles of *Intelligibility* (Does the target audience can recognize the word?), *Comprehensibility* (Do they understand the meaning?) and *Interpretability* (Are they able to grasp the meaning behind the word?). Smith and Nelson argue that understanding is 'interactional' between speaker and listener. Familiarity with a variety of among members of a speech community enables them to understand (correctly decipher messages) and be understood (accurately encode messages).

The succeeding examples illustrate common signage seen all over Baguio's central business district. Those included in this paper have texts that appear in more than 3 similar pieces of signage. The signage illustrates the widespread use of PE and the general preference for PE in composing signage text over Filipino or the local lingua franca, Baguio Ilocano. This may be because the city is generally a hub for local and international tourists hence, the necessity to use English for signage. However, contrary to previous studies analyzing signage in multilingual communities which show both local language/s and an English translation, signage in Baguio are predominantly composed in English (PE) only. It appears that although for spoken communication the lingua franca is predominantly Baguio Ilocano an initial observation of language used for signage PE appears to be the preferred language even as these are addressed to local audience. There seems to be a difference between the community's spoken and written lingua franca. This preference is a result of the functional nativeness of Filipinos in English. Bautista (2000) describes the Filipino's relationship with the English language by describing children in relatively affluent households being taught English as a first language (L1). However, even among middle class families children are bilingual, if not multilingual. Richards and Tay (in Bautista 2000, p. 8) redefine the concept of a native speaker according to three elements: childhood acquisition, dominance in repertoire and proficiency. The study validates the second element by highlighting the preference for and dominance of English in written communication, particularly in the language used for signage. Kachru (2005) explains that this functional nativeness has reconfigured the traditional concept of *nativeness*:

...The roles of English in Asia have already acquired functional nativeness...and that Asia's English must be viewed in terms of this nativeness, that includes the uses of

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English: 1. as a vehicle of communication across distinct linguistic and cultural groups at one level of interaction; 2. as a nativized medium for articulating local identities within and across Asia; 3. as one of the pan-Asian languages of creativity; 4. as a language that has developed its own subvarieties indicating penetration at various social, functional and educational levels; and, 5. as a language that continues to elicit a unique love-hate relationship yet that has not seriously impeded its spread, functions and prestige status. (Kachru 2005, p. 25)

This functional *nativeness* has allowed Filipinos to use English creatively infusing it with local lexicon, syntax and semantics to serve their purpose and, also reflect their culture. The language used in signage reflects this creativity and helps construct a unique linguistic landscape through signage.

Gorter (2006, p.1) views the study of linguistic landscapes as a study of multilingualism as well: "In those cases linguistic landscape refers to the social context in which more than one language is present. It implies the use in speech or writing of more than one language and thus of multilingualism." A linguistic landscape is alternatively referred to as linguistic cityscape because of the significant number of signage in urban shopping areas. The signage collected for this study were all collected from Session Road, Public Market area, and other busy commercial districts.

The following examples illustrate how creativity and innovation in the use of English come into play. Although some examples may be dismissed as errors in usage, others may be seen in the light of Kachru's WE framework as features of PE. Bautista and Gonzalez have been able to document features of standard PE, while these are standard in the variety widely used in the Philippines, these deviate from AmE standards and may thus be considered "errors" by people who take a rather conservative stance towards the use of English. Consider Image 1 which drops the preposition "off" in the expression "drop off", so that "drop zone" may prove to be a semantic puzzle for non-PE users.

Image 1



DROP ZONE AREA ONLY. NO PARKING



No stand by here!!!



Image 3

Images 2 and 3 illustrate variations on the use of "standby" / "stand by" for "bystander". This is an a commonly used lexical item in PE and often colloquially used to refer to a person idly waiting for someone or something. "Tambay" in Filipino roughly translates into "bum" in AmE.

Image 4 presents us with the lack of gender distinction in Philippine languages. So that the sign finds it necessary to specify that "waiter" means male or female even as there is a feminine counterpart "waitress".

Image 4

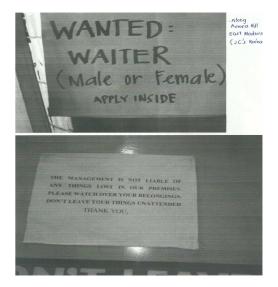


Image 5, 6, 7 and 8 show the challenge in spelling accuracy.

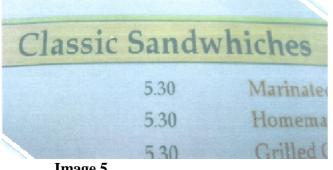






Image 6



Image 7



Image 8

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"Pears" is spelled "pers", "sandwiches" as "sandwhiches", and "flush" as "flash" illustrate the approximation of pronunciation and spelling. This appears to be an interlanguage handicap as most Philippine languages spell words exactly as they are pronounced.

Images 9 and 10 below are both signs using verbs in the imperative but used instead the past form of "close" and "observe". Most of the time "close" is used too to mean "turn off" something as in "close the light" or "close the faucet". This is common in PE.





Image 9

Image 10

Innovations are also commonly seen in the borrowing of words from Filipino and integrating them in a predominantly English construction as in the examples below. "Piso print" (Image 10) announces the relatively cheap printing cost offered by this shop. "Have your hair in a *pusod*" instead of in a "bun" is a result of the general idea among Filipinos that "bun" means a kind of bread. Borrowing in these cases is functional and are indicative of the users' familiarity with both English and Filipino. According to Melchers and Shaw (2011), borrowing relies on the familiarity of readers with both languages. Going back to the example "standby" is what Melchers and Shaw (2011) refer to as "pseudo loan" word because it appears to be in the target language but is a coinage in PE or a lexical innovation. Pregnier (in Rosenhouse and Kowner 2008) suggests that "borrowings generate new signifiers" more than being simple functional, using the Filipino terms may be interpreted to mean that the user implies something more that announcing that one pays only P1.00 for every page printed but appeals to the potential customer's idea that the amount is something negligible and, therefore, cheap (affordable for anyone, even a struggling student trying to make ends meet). Choosing to use "pusod" referring to a neatly tied bun among women may be interpreted not to simply mean to keep one's hairstyle neat but also in a certain style only familiar among Filipinas. Pregnier (in Rosenhouse and Kowner 2008, p.45) further suggests that borrowing in this sense fulfils essential functions: "designing a new reality; 2. indicating a virtual reservoir for neologisms to invigorate the vocabulary with new denotative and connotative values; and, 3. adding a 'quasi magic' touch to the discourse..."





Image 10



Lexical innovations also come in the form of using proper names or brand names which have become so popular that they have come to be used by almost everyone to refer to the common name for the term "photocopy" (Image 12).





This sign is inappropriate because the term "Xerox" actually refers to a brand of a photocopying machine. Thus, the term "photocopy" should have been used. Another thing disturbing in this sign is that it can be interpreted with two meanings. First, it perhaps offers photocopying services. Second, it talks about a manuscript that has already been photocopied and is calling for the attention of the person who requested the service. This sign is located in an establishment in Maharlika Building where it is located near the comfort room.

A "convenience store" in AmE brings to mind a 7-11 that are a common sight in the Philippines but what does a "convenient store" mean? Is this used an adjective to describe what the supermarket offers its customers?



This Way Out

What do all these reveal about our linguistic landscape aside from the general preference for English over any other Philippine language? Soyinka (in Kachru, 2005) sees innovation (some might disagree and continue to look at these as deviations) as a "response to the colonial past of the language". Soyinka (in Kachru, 2005, p. 21) says that "English has turned into 'a new medium of communication', and thus represents 'a new organic series of mores, social goals, relationships, universal awareness'---all of which go into the creation of a new culture". Although there is a diversity of Philippine languages in the community of Baguio, the landscape reveals that over all these languages, English appears to be the most dominant. Even as the target audience is mostly also local. And in the use of English, the signage gathered for the study reveal the liberal use of the language allowing for innovations and creativity of the users.

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Abstract

Multilingualism is a present day phenomenon (Cook, 2001; Crystal, 1997). In the Philippines, the McFarland study (1994) revealed that there are 110 languages based on the concept of mutual intelligibility. On this basis, languages are considered distinct from another when the speakers of any one of them cannot readily understand the other unless they deliberately study it (cited in Fontejon, 2000, p.1). More recent surveys show an estimated 171 languages spoken in the country (www.ethnologue.com).

Considering the number of languages that Filipinos use in various speech communities, they frequently engage in code switching. In fact, code-switching is quite a common practice in many bilingual communities in the world and that studies have indicated that code-switching is socially and linguistically rule-governed" (Yamada, 2003, p.16). Code-switching occurs when one shifts from one language to another in the course of a conversation (Parker & Riley, 1994) or in the same discourse (Numan & Carter, 2001, p. 275).

Code-switching is not a matter of random choice but a strategic selection of certain language deemed appropriate in a particular situation by a set of cultural rules (Pascasio, 1978 in Bautista, 1996, P.76). Code-switching is also regarded as "a developmental aspect in acquiring a second language and or as a reflection of the community's language use. Moreover, code-switching tends to be used as "an aside for explanation, for establishing communicative 'intimacy,' or as a bond of identity" (Kachru, 1990, p.62). . It has been observed that bilingual teachers and students may habitually alternate between the two languages that are used in the community (Valdés-Fallis, 1978, in Díaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

Mattson and Burenhult (1999) identified 3 functions of code switching from the perspective of the teacher. This includes topic switch, affective functions, and repetition. From the perspective of the students, Eldridge (1996) identified 3 functions of code switching: equivalence, floor-holding, reiteration, and conflict control (pp. 305-307).Clearly, code switching is used strategically by both students and teachers to serve pedagogical functions and forge relationships that better facilitate the negotiation of meaning in the classroom.

However, attitude towards code-switching has historically been negative. "As one of the most engaging aspects of bilingual speech, code-switching is nevertheless a highly stigmatized form of conversation as some assert that code switching bastardizes the languages used. The irony is that such false and unfounded notions are promoted not only in popular culture but also by so-called fathers of modern linguistics, Leonard Bloomfield and Ferdinand de Saussure" (Boztepe, 2006, p.2).

Today, with the implementation of DepEd order 74, s 1999, which institutionalizes mother tonguebased multilingual education (MTB-MLE), the phenomenon of code switching needs to be reexamined. The order defines MTB-MLE as the "the effective use of more than two languages for literacy and instruction." This is based on "notable empirical studies such as the Lingua Franca Project and the Lubuagan First Language Component," which suggests that "in terms of cognitive development and its effects on other academic areas, pupils who are taught to read and write in their first language acquire such competencies more quickly" (www.deped.gov.ph/). Clearly, the goal of MTB-MLE is improvement of the teaching-learning process through the use of the learner's language of consciousness. In the multilingual context, it is highly probable that the child's mother tongue is a mix of the languages spoken by immediate family members. This is indicative of one's hybrid identity. Furthermore, in tertiary institutions, where English continues to be the medium of instruction, it may be observed that teachers and students alike code switch from English to the local languages to serve pedagogical functions.

Keywords: code-switching, teacher talk, and attitudes

Introduction

This paper presents the findings of a study that investigates the use of code-switching in teacher talk in content area subjects at a state university in Central Visayas. It also discusses the attitude of students, teachers, and administrators on the use of code-switching in the classroom. Data were gathered from two sources: a) the Discourse Analysis of Teacher Talk in English, Science, and Mathematics classes of first year Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEEd) and Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSEd) students in a state university in Central Visayas, Philippines; and b) the questionnaires given to fifty-two teachers, eighty-six students, and nine administrators to determine their attitude toward code-switching.

Based on the data collected from the survey and the Discourse Analysis, it may be concluded that code-switching from English to Cebuano is prevalent in the three classes observed. Of the two hundred fifty six (256) turns taken by the teachers fifty two percent (52%) had code-switching. It appears that teachers in English, Science, and Mathematics classes code-switch from English to Cebuano primarily because it serves pedagogical functions, i.e., code-switching better facilitates learning among students. Secondly, teachers code-switched for social reasons, i.e., code-switching marks the identity of both teachers and students and establishes solidarity. Findings from this study also show that students, teachers, and administrators have positive attitude towards the use of English and Cebuano in the classroom.

Consistent with the findings of both foreign (Kachru, Myers-Scotton, Pandit, & Sridhar, 1978; 1993; 1998; 1978 cited in McKay & Hornberger., 1996) and local studies (Bautista, 1999 cited in Yamada, 2003), code-switching from the prescribed medium of instruction to the local languages by teachers and students is a norm in multilingual classes. Moreover, the findings in this study are consistent with the observations of the aforementioned foreign and local studies: code-switching is used strategically by bilingual or multilingual speakers. In the context of the classroom, it serves pedagogical purposes and advances solidarity through identity marking.

Theoretical Underpinning of the Study

Pertinent theories in discourse, sociolinguistics, and second language acquisition are considered in this study. Refer to the preceding page for the diagram of the theoretical framework

Discourse Theories

The study of discourse, according to Fasold (1990:65, in Jaworski & Coupland, 1999), is "the study of any aspect of language use." Likewise, Brown and Yule (1983, in Jaworski and Coupland, 1999) emphasized that discourse analysis also requires analysis of language in use.

According to Cook (1999) discourse analysis examines how stretches of language become meaningful and unified for the users. It is a rapidly expanding field which provides insights into the problems and processes of language use as well as language learning. The following are some theories that are used to ground the interpretation of studies using discourse analyses.

Speech Act Theory

The term *speech act* is defined by Cohen (1996, in McKay & Hornberger, 1996, p. 384) as a functional unit in communication. Austin (1962 in McKay & Hornberger, 1996) believes that "utterances have three kinds of meaning namely: *propositional* or *locutionary*, *illocutionary*, and *perlocutionary force*. The first kind is the *propositional* or *locutionary* which is the literal meaning of the utterance. So, if a pupil says to a teacher or sends a note, 'It's hot in here,' emphasizes the warm temperature of the classroom. The term *illocutionary*, however, is related to the social function that the utterance or written text has. The statement, "It's hot in here" may mean as a request to turn down the heat or may sometimes mean a complaint if it is repeated or expressed emphatically. And the result or effect that is produced by the utterance in that given context is referred to as *perlocutionary force*. So, if the utterance leads to the action of turning down the thermostat in the room, the *perlocutionary force* of that utterance would be greater than if the request were ignored" (p.384).

On the contrary, Parker and Riley (1994) have only identified two facets of speech acts: *illocutionary act* (what is done) and *locutionary act* (what is said) which are similar to Austin's theory of speech acts, except for *perlocutionary* act which is not mentioned. The *illocutionary act* can be achieved either with an explicit performative or a non-explicit performative. A non-explicit illocutionary act can be performed either directly or indirectly. The *locutionary act* can be expressed either literally or nonliterally.

Finch (2003) posited that speech act theory sees all exchanges as events of some kind. They are intended to accomplish something, whether the straightforward acts of informing and requesting, or the more complex ones of giving pleasure and warning.

Although some of the definitions above make theoretical sense, problems still arise in assigning functions to sentences because some sentence meanings do not necessarily match with the speaker's pragmatic intention (Cohen, 1996 in McKay & Hornberger, 1996). They do not achieve their communicative purposes.

Hatch (1992) believes that using the speech act theory is another way of analyzing the content of communication. She distinguishes between linguists' and philosophers' views on understanding

speech situations. According to Hatch (1992), "linguists try to understand how speakers might be able to produce an infinite number of sentences given a very finite set or rules for sentences." On the other hand, philosophers have tried to understand how an infinite number of sentences might reflect a very finite set of functions. However, all these vary according to the intentions of the speaker while speaking as well as the sentence meaning. In this way, there is no utterance that is completely context-free in terms of meaning or function. For example, a person's way of saying, "It's cold in here," could be interpreted in different ways. It may be a directive. Some may interpret it as a sarcastic apology while others may think it as a request.

Indeed, the utterance alone does not tell the hearer how to interpret the speaker's intention. Austin and Searle (1969,1979 in Jaworski & Coupland, 2001) have classified five categories of speech acts: directives (*suggestion, request, command*), commissives (*promise, threat*), representatives (*assertions, claims, reports*), declaratives (*declaration*), and expressives (*apology, complaint, thanks*).

Hatch (1992) presents the following observations of the classifications of utterances: A directive speech act is shown when a request is being made so that someone will do or stop doing something just like in the utterance below:

Speaker: *We need these papers photocopied before our meeting at 5 p.m.* Hearer: *That's true.*

In English language books, directive function is always introduced with the imperative and the polite imperative. Social constraints suggest that when we make a request, we expect that request to be complied with (Hatch, 1992).

Commissives are statements that function as promises or refusals for action as presented in the utterance: "*Don't worry, I'll be there*." This shows how the speaker commits himself/herself to the person/s spoken to.

In accepting and declining an invitation, for instance, the appropriateness of commissives varies across language and culture groups. Not only that, it also varies according to social relationships and gender. According to Hatch (1992), a language learner who does not know how to politely decline an invitation in the host language may try to transfer forms that work in his or her first language.

Representative as a speech act can be judged for truth value. It may vary in terms of how hedged or aggravated the assertion might be (Hatch, 1992). In other words, one makes claims more polite or more frustrating. For example, when some says, "*Some are very old and some are new*" as he answers to a question like: How do you find the contents of the "Balikbayan" box you received lately?

Declaratives are speech acts that when uttered, bring about a new state of being. For instance, "*I now pronounce you husband and wife.*" This statement changes the status of the couple. Only the priest, the pastor, the judge, or the mayor has the "power" to utter these words in the wedding ceremony.

Expressives are statements of one's joy and disappointment as well as likes and dislikes just like in: *What a great day!* Hatch (1992) points out that all languages have utterances that can be classified as having an expressive function. Cook (1989) tells that acts of thanking, apologizing, welcoming, and congratulating are examples of expressives.

Implicatures

Grice (1975 in Jaworski and Coupland, 1999) proposes a model of communication based on the notion of *Cooperative Principle* which leads to the idea that participants converse as a group towards attaining an objective. Thus, in following the Cooperative Principle, the participants follow specific conversational maxims, such as be informative, be truthful, be relevant, and be clear. Adhering to these maxims, meaning is produced in an ambiguous, direct way. Yet, most meaning is implied through the two kinds of implicatures: conventional and conversational implicatures follow from the conventional meanings of words used in utterances while conversational implicatures result from the non-observance of one or more conversational maxims. It is believed that when participants assume that the Cooperative Principle is being observed but one of the maxims is disregarded, indirect interpretation through, Cook conversational implicature is sought by them.

Moreover (Cook, 1989) stresses that the Politeness Principle, like the Cooperative Principle may be formulated as a series of maxims which people assume are being followed in the utterances of others. Lakoff (1973 in Cook, 1989) has formulated three maxims namely:

Don't impose Give options. Make your receiver feel good.

The frequent utterances in which no new information is communicated are explained in the maxims of politeness principle. Cook (1989) points out that in English, orders are often given in the form of elaborate questions such as: May I ask you to... Could you possibly... Would you mind.... All these introductory questions give the option of refusal; apologize for refusal, and add in praise to make the hearer feel good.

Indeed, these two principles are always in conflict with each other since politeness and truth are often "mutually incompatible." People are aware of these. This is why some people may resort to surrendering truth to politeness and gives birth to the term "white lies."

Ethnography of Communication

Ethnography of communication involves the study of language and culture. Hymes (1962 in McKay & Hornberger, 1996) posits that this new field focuses on the patterning of communicative behavior which constitutes the system of culture, its functions as well as its patterns. The primary aim of the ethnographic approach is to provide a framework for the collection of analysis of descriptive data about the ways in which social meaning is conveyed, constructed, and finally, negotiated. The significance of ethnography of communication is that it seeks to account mostly for wh-questions such as: what can be said, when, where, by whom, to whom, and in what manner. All these seek to account for the process of acquiring knowledge. The relationship of language form and the use of patterns and functions of communication are the principal concerns in ethnography of communication.

Hymes (1972, in Jaworski & Coupland, 1999), views language as knowledge, but extended the object of sociolinguistic inquiry or what he called the ethnography of communication, to communicative competence. According to Hymes, communicative competence has four elements namely: a) whether and to what degree something is accurate (linguistic competence); b) whether and to what degree something is appropriate (social appropriateness); c) whether and to what degree something is feasible (psycholinguistic limitations); and d) whether and to what degree something is done (observing actual language use).

The above gives a broader concept of language which includes basically the purpose of the study. For Hymes, the object of inquiry was geared towards rules of speaking within a community and not on the structure of isolated sentences. Thus, a three-fold classification of speech communication has been identified by Hymes (1972 in Jaworski and Coupland, 1999). This includes speech situations, speech events, and speech acts. Speech situations which include ceremonies, sports events, bus trips, etc. provide a wider context for speaking, but not purely communicative. On the other hand, speech activities are communicative and governed by rules of speaking just like political debates, conversations, lectures, and the like. Then speech acts which are the smallest units of the set as presented in orders, jokes, greetings, compliments, etc.

Communicative Domains

Fishman (1972 in McKay & Hornberger, 1996) explores "who speaks what language to whom and when in those speech communities that are characterized by widespread and relatively stable multilingualism." He added that language choice is discussed in terms of nine domains namely: the family, the playground and the street, the school, the church, literature, the press, the military, the courts, and governmental administration. Further, he explains that not all languages are used in all languages; there are certain languages that are suited only to particular domains. In Paraguay, for instance, the use of Guarani is preferred with friends, family, and servants while Spanish is used in the government, in business transactions, and in speaking with foreigners.

Sociolinguistic Theories

The sociolinguistic theories discussed in this section focus on the relationship between language and identity. Anzaldua (1987), author of the book *Borderlands: The New Meztiza* exemplifies this relationship when she said:

So, if you really want to hurt me, talk badly about my language. Ethnic identity is twin skin to linguistic identity - I am my language. Until I can take pride in my language, I cannot take pride in myself (p.59, cited in McGroarty, 1996, p.3).

Identity Marking

Code-switching caters to similar functions on *identity marking*. In a speech situation, a speaker may use a particular code to signal a specific type of identity. A speaker may use English or French for modernity, sophistication, or authority in many parts of the world (Kachru, 1978; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Pandit, 1998, Sridhar, 1978 in McKay & Hornberger (1996). Sanskrit is used for nationalistic and traditionalistic image in India; Arabic and Persian for Islamic identity; Hindi-Urdu for to signal a "macho" image in South India; and local languages for ethnic and tribal solidarity in East Africa.

Theory of Rights and Obligations in Code-Switching

Scotton (1993 in McKay and Hornberger, 1996) posits that in a series of multilingualism studies in East Africa, code-switching is explained in terms of a theory of rights and obligations. She believes that members of a multilingual speech community are conscious of the range of codes that would suit a particular type of communicative exchange. Any attempt of deviating from the neutral to the unmarked choice of codes or symbols used in transmitting messages would determine the identity and attitude of the speaker.

Theories in Second Language Acquisition and Learning

The theories of language acquisition give primary importance to learner's innate characteristics, emphasizes the essential role of the environment in shaping language learning, and in integrating learner characteristics and environmental factors in an explanation for how second language acquisition takes place (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p.31).

Interlanguage

According to Ellis (1997), the term "interlanguage" was coined by Larry Selinker, an American linguist, in recognition of the fact that second language (L2) learners construct a linguistic system that draws, in part, on the learners' first language (L1), but is also different from it and also from the target language. Rionda (1996) cites that interlanguage is a dialect the learner produces when attempting at communication. It is the kind of language that is used differently from that of the native speaker.

Nemser (1971, in Ellis, 1985) cites three assumptions underlying interlanguage theory. These are: the approximate system is distinct from the L1 and L2 at any given time; the approximate systems form an evolving series; and the approximate systems of learners at the same stage of proficiency roughly coincide in a given contact situation.

Corder (1967 in Ellis, 1985) sees interlanguage as "a dynamic continuum along which an L2 learner can move toward an increasingly target like system." Further, he points out that some strategies used by the L2 learner were similar with those by which L1 acquisition takes place. The concept of interlanguage involves the following premises about L2 acquisition:

The learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlies comprehension and production of the L2. This system of rules is viewed as a "mental grammar" or simply, the interlanguage.

The learner's grammar is permeable. This means that the grammar is open to influence from the outside (i.e. through the input) as well as the inside. Omission, overgeneralization, and transfer errors show evidence of internal processing.

The learner's grammar is transitional. Learners change their grammar from one time to another by adding or deleting rules and restructuring the whole system which results to interlanguage continuum. When facing the complexities of L2 learning, learners construct a series of mental grammars or interlanguages.

Researchers claim that the systems learners construct contain variable rules. They argue that learners are likely to have competing rules in each stage of development.Learners employ various learning strategies to develop their interlanguages. The errors committed by learners would reflect to the different learning strategies they employ. For instance, omission errors would suggest that the learners are in some way simplifying the learning tasks given by them. Thus, ignoring grammatical features which they are not yet ready to process.

The learner's grammar is likely to fossilize. This means that learners stop learning when their interlanguage contains at least some rules different from those of the target language system. Often this happens when learners refuse to learn and this cannot be remedied by further instruction.

Interactionism

Some interactionist theorists have developed their ideas mainly within Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research itself. Hatch (1992), Pica (1994), and Long (1983) in Lightbown and Spada (1999, p.43), among others, argued that much second language acquisition takes place through conversational interaction. This is comparable to the first language (L1) theory that gives great importance to child-directed speech. The views of Michael Long are based on his observation of interactions between learners and native speakers. Though he agrees with Krashen's comprehensible input, he is more concerned with *how* input is made comprehensible. In adapting a language, he believes that interacting with other speakers will help the learner show signs of understanding. In short, when one immerses himself/herself to the language, he/she will likely learn.

Long (1983 in Lightbown & Spada, 1999) implies that in language acquisition, modified interaction is necessary.

Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1982, in Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p.39) asserts that one learner acquires language in only one way and that is by exposure to comprehensible input. He explains that if the input contains forms and structures just beyond the learner's current level of competence in the language (i + 1) then comprehension and acquisition occur.

In recent years, Krashen (1982, in Lightbown & Spada, 1999) has emphasized the value of undirected pleasure reading as a source of comprehensible input. He firmly believes that input is the source of acquisition. However, he points out that some people who are exposed to extensive comprehensible input do not achieve high levels of proficiency in L2.

Affective Filter Hypothesis

The "affective filter" is an imaginary barrier which prevents learners from acquiring language from the available input (Krashen, 1982 in Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 39). The term "affect" refers to motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states. A learner who is observed to be angry, tense, anxious, or bored may "filter out" input. Thus, acquisition is a problem. When the filter is "up," it shows that the learner is stressed, self-conscious, or unmotivated. However, it is "down" when the learner is motivated to learn and is relaxed. These attract practitioners since it gives immediate teaching implications. Teachers can easily hypothesize that learners come from different upbringing and their individual differences must be considered.

Bilingualism and Attitudes toward Languages

In the study of bilingualism, Birner (2007), people may become bilingual either by acquiring two languages at the same time in childhood or by learning a second language after acquiring their first

language. Lightbown and Spada (1999, p.3) posit that majority of the children in the world are exposed to more than one language in early childhood. That children who hear more than one language virtually from birth are called "simultaneous bilinguals," whereas those who begin to learn a second language (L2) latter are called "sequential bilinguals." In most researches, simultaneous bilinguals are in contact with both languages in a variety of settings and there is a reason to expect that they will progress in their development of both languages at a rate and in a manner which are not different from those of monolingual children.

Moreover, they advocated that "when children attend school in only one of those languages, there may be considerable differences in the amount of metalinguistic knowledge they acquire in two languages" (p.3). It has been noted that when children are immersed in a second language for long periods in schooling, their first language is virtually cut off. Children may begin to lose the family language before they have developed the age-appropriate mastery of the new language and this is known as *subtractive bilingualism* (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Thus, parents of learners are encouraged to use the language used by the majority and which is most comfortable by them. Torres (1988) points out that Spanish-speaking parents of children in bilingual programs, for instance, endorse the value of bilingual instruction where maintenance of the home language and age-appropriate attainment in English literacy skills.

Early work in the study of language attitudes is traced in both basic conceptualization and form of measurement to psychologists Gardner and Lambert (1972 cited in McKay & Hornberger, 1996) who are interested in the language attitudes of Anglophone and Francophone Canadians, adults and children toward English and French. Both believe that attitude has cognitive, affective, and conative components (involves beliefs, emotional reactions, and behavioral tendencies related to the object of the attitude) and consists of an underlying psychological predisposition to act or evaluate behavior in certain ways. Thus, attitude is connected to a person's values and beliefs and promotes or discourages the choices made in all areas of activity, whether it is academic or informal.

Along with community members such as learners and parents, teachers may view their principal linguistic responsibility in inculcating "correct language" which includes a variety of language forms (Beebe, 1988; Milroy, 1985 cited in McKay & Hornberger, 1996). In understanding and appreciation of the multiplicity of language forms and functions firmly, teachers can become developers of sensitivity toward many varieties of language rather than pedantic linguistic enforcers. According to Valdman (1988), there are multiple pedagogical norms for language teaching and that the choice of the range of norms to be used while teaching is conditioned by learner's proficiency level in the second language (L2) and general linguistic sophistication. This is also true for speakers of dialects different from the standard.

On the other hand, DelFatorre (1992) claims that teachers need to be sensitive to the many currents of language-related opinions and evaluation in their communities. They must also look into student and parent attitudes and expectations regarding language instruction which include the sometimes implicit evaluation of different language forms and the tensions between emphasis on the prestige forms and the solidarity-related aspect of language that sets up covert prestige forms. All these are political in nature. However, McKay & Hornberger (1996) claim that if protests occur, "teachers must be prepared to defend their choices by responding to both literal concerns

about language forms and the symbolic dimensions of the fears of parents and other community members that a language form such as mild expletive, even if commonly used in speech, should not appear in any text that students might encounter" (p.26). Therefore, to help teachers make reasonable instructional decisions, they must be sensitive to language variation and make sound professional judgment regarding choice of materials.

Methodology

Research Design

This study is a combination of the exploratory-qualitative-statistical and exploratory-quantitativeinterpretive types of research design. This is because a) the data were taken from naturalistic setting; b) the data gathered are both quantitative and qualitative, and c) the data underwent both statistical and interpretive analysis (Grotjahn, 1987 cited in Nunan, 1992).

Sources of Data

The data for this study were gathered from two sources: a) the questionnaires given to the teachers, students, and administrators to determine their attitude toward code-switching, and b) the Discourse Analysis of Teacher Talk in English, Science, and Math classes.

Respondents

This study sampled three groups of respondents: the teachers, students, and administrators. It considers teacher talk three the in classes of first vear Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEEd) and Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSEd) from the College of Education in a state university located in Central Visayas, Philippines. There are fifty-two BEEd I students and thirty-four BSEd I students in three classes. Therefore, a total of eighty-six students participated in the English, Science, and Mathematics classes studied. Although the discourse analysis focused only on teacher talk, the transcriptions shown present both teacher and student turn-taking to show the context of the turns taken by the teacher.

Moreover, to determine respondents attitude toward the use of code-switching in the classroom, fifty-four teachers, eighty six students, and nine administrators filled out the questionnaires. In addition, three teachers, i.e., one for English, Science, and Mathematics classes respectively were observed. Administrators are composed of two assistant campus administrators. One is in charge of Administration and Special Concerns and the other of Academics, Research, and Extension. The deans and assistant deans from the four colleges namely College of Arts and Sciences (CAS), College of Business Administration (CBA), College of Education (CEd), and College of Industrial Technology (CIT) were included in the study. The CBA has no assistant dean. In sum, nine administrators responded to the questionnaire.

Research Environment

The present study is conducted at one of the external campuses of a state university in Central Visayas, Philippines. This 77-year old educational institution is established and created by virtue of Republic Act 9299, otherwise known as the conversion of a state college into a state university. This university is composed of two main campuses and four external campuses in the province.

The external campus where this study is conducted has two campuses commonly called as Campus I and II. The first campus, Campus I, is located in the northern part of the city near the bay. It has

two departments namely: College of Arts and Sciences (CAS) and the College of Industrial Technology (CIT). The other campus is situated near the National Highway with College of Business and Accountancy (CBA) and College of Education (CEd) respectively.

Data Gathering Instrument

Two types of data are generated in this study: qualitative data and quantitative data. The qualitative data, i.e. audio recording of classroom interactions were gathered using micro audio recorder. Based on the data gathered, the frequency of code-switching in teacher talk was determined. The conversational functions of code-switching in teacher talk were also identified using predetermined categories adopted from two sources: a) Gumperz, McClure & Wentz (1977, 1975); and b) Myers- Scotton (1993, in McKay & Hornberger, 1996).

Quantitative data to determine the attitudes of students, teachers, and administrators toward the use of code switching in class discussions were gathered using questionnaires. The questionnaire had 15 statements, and respondents indicate their attitude toward the use of code switching in teacher talk during class discussions based on a four-point Likert Scale with descriptions ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. Please refer to appendix D, E, and F for the questionnaires for teachers, students, and administrators respectively.

Data Gathering Procedure

Prior to the conduct of the study, the researcher conducted piloting of the research instruments among second year BEEd and BSEd students in the College of Education in the same locale on November 12-16, 2007. The actual taping among first year BEEd and BSEd classes in English, Science, and Mathematics was conducted on November 19-29, 2007 as scheduled. This means that the data gathering lasted for two weeks. However, it was halted for one week due to Foundation Anniversary celebration of the said university where classes were suspended for one week. So, the conduct of study was extended for another week.

The tape recorder, in order to be inconspicuous, was placed in a small blue-colored netted bag where the condenser microphone is closer to the respondents' area of discussion. The respondents were unaware that their discussions were recorded so that they would not be inhibited or mill around the gadget during the discussions.

In relation to research questions 1 and 2, the audio recorded data were transcribed using Jefferson's Transcription Notation (Atkinson & Heritage in Jaworski & Coupland, 1999, pp.158-166). The statistical tool used to determine whether there is a significant difference in the attitude of teachers, students, and administrators toward code-switching in teacher talk in the English, Science, and Math classes is Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Only the teacher talk was analyzed in terms of relative frequency of the use of code-switching and their conversational functions. The categories used in classifying the conversational functions of code-switching were adopted from Gumperz (1972), and Gumperz, McClure and Wentz (1977,1975). More conversational functions of code-switching adapted from the works of Myers-Scotton (1993, cited in McKay and Hornberger, 1996) were also added.

Member checking and debriefing were used to validate observations and interpretations done by the researcher. In member checking, the points of view of the teachers, students, and administrators

were taken in order to validate the member's interpretation of the data. In this study, the researcher interviewed one of the teacher-participants to validate the interpretation of the data. Debriefing refers to the process in qualitative and interpretive research wherein the researcher discusses her observations with a colleague who is both familiar with the study as well as the principles and theories in qualitative-interpretive research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, cited in Davis, 1997). In this study, the researcher discussed her observations with her adviser, whose MA study also employed qualitative approach. This is done in order to protect the study from threats to validity and reliability (Davis, 1997).

Moreover, for research questions 3, 4, & 5, relative frequency (percentage) analysis was used. As regards question 6, the researcher used the statistical tool Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine whether there is a significant difference among the attitude of teachers, students, and administrators in the use of code-switching in the classroom. According to Urdan (2005, p.101), the purpose of analysis of variance (ANOVA) is "to divide up the variance in some dependent variable into two components: the variance attributable to *between-group* differences and the variance attributable to *within-group* differences, also known as *error*." In other words, ANOVA determines the degree of agreement/disagreement among participants within a group, e.g. the student respondents; and participants across groups, e.g. students versus teachers, given statements in the questionnaire.

Findings

The data gathered showed that code-switching or the use of English and Cebuano in the classroom is evident in teacher talk as well as in teacher-students' interactions. As evidenced by the transcripts presented, CS, particularly from English to Cebuano is prevalent in the classes observed. The two types of code-switching: *situational* and *metaphorical* as advocated by Blom and Gumperz (1972 in McKay & Hornberger, 1996, p.56) were also identified. This indicates that teachers code-switching). The switch has a stylistic or textual function in the sense that is made to signal a quotation, to mark emphasis, to indicate the punch line of a joke, or to signal a change in tone from the serious to the comic (*metaphorical code-switching*).

Moreover, the questionnaires filled out by teachers, students, and administrators indicate their positive attitude toward code-switching from English to Cebuano and vice-versa primarily because students can interact more freely and effectively with their teachers and classmates when teachers code-switch and allow their students to do the same.

It is worth noting that the three groups of respondents share a common perception on the use of code-switching in the classroom. This is shown in the aggregate mean of 2.85 for teachers, 2.96 for students, and 3.00 for administrators. The respondents have positive attitude toward the use of English and Cebuano in the classroom because CS facilitates student-teacher and teacher-teacher interaction and encourage students to participate in classroom discussions. Moreover, students can relate to the examples better, understand instructions for activities more clearly and perform class activities well if code-switching is allowed in the classroom. It is noteworthy that administrators strongly agreed all of the above statements, while teachers and students' responses ranged from agree to strongly agree. This means that the administrators in the school under study were keenly aware of the importance of CS in the classroom and would mostly support initiatives on this line.

In terms of conversational functions observed, Inquiry ranked first in English and Science classes. For the Mathematics class, Inquiry and Proving/Justifying share the top rank. This is probably because proving is an essential skill developed in Mathematics. Proving/Justifying also ranked second in English and Science classes.

In sum, it can be seen in the data that a) teachers, students, and administrators have positive attitude toward code-switching from English to Cebuano and vice-versa in the classroom; b) CS serves several conversational functions among them Inquiry and Proving/Justifying, which are essential in facilitating learning among students; and c) teachers code-switch strategically. They shift from English to Cebuano and vice-versa primarily for pedagogical purpose and secondly, to establish solidarity with students through identity marking. In addition, Kachru, 1978; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Pandit, 1978, Sridhar, 1978 cited in McKay & Hornberger (1996), "particular code is used to signal a specific type of identity." These advocates posited that such code may signal modernity, sophistication, or authority.

Conclusion

From the findings of the study presented in the foregoing section, the researcher concludes that code-switching from English to Cebuano is prevalent in the classes observed.

In fact, of the two hundred fifty six turns taken by the teachers fifty two percent (52%) show codeswitching. It appears that teachers in English, Science, and Mathematics classes code-switch from English to Cebuano primarily because it serves pedagogical functions, i.e., code-switching better facilitates learning among students. Secondly, teachers code-switched for social reasons, i.e., codeswitching marks the identity of both teachers and students and establishes solidarity.

Particularly, this study shows that students, teachers, and administrators agree on the use of English and Cebuano in the classroom. This study also shows that teachers, students, and administrators have positive attitude toward the use of English and Cebuano in the classroom.

Further, this study shows the most commonly observed conversational functions: Inquiry, Proving/Justifying, Focusing, Suggestions/alternative-giving, and Addressee Specification. It may be deduced that the conversational function Inquiry ranked first in terms of its frequency of occurrence because as mentioned by Gall (1984) " as much as eighty percent of all school time may be devoted to questions and answers alone" (cited in Borich, 2000, p. 239). This is probably the reason for the teachers' code-switching from English to Cebuano. The teachers code-switched to ensure that questions are understood by students so that the appropriate responses are generated. Moreover, such could increase participation in classroom discussions.

Consistent with the findings of both foreign (Kachru, Myers-Scotton, Pandit, & Sridhar, 1978; 1993; 1998; 1978 cited in McKay & Hornberger., 1996) and local studies (Bautista, 1999 cited in Yamada, 2003), code-switching from the prescribed medium of instruction to the local languages by teachers and students is a norm in multilingual classes. Moreover, the findings in this study are consistent with the observations of the aforementioned foreign and local studies: code-switching is used strategically by bilingual or multilingual speakers. In the context of the classroom, it serves both pedagogical functions, i.e., to better facilitate learning; and social purposes, e.g. advancing solidarity through identity marking.

Primarily, this brings into question the recent promulgations by some lawmakers and heads of academic institutions to use English only in the classroom. If indeed, the use of CS facilitates learning such laws and policies, e.g., Gullas Bill, well-intentioned as they may be, would have deleterious effects on the teaching-learning process. Secondly, that students and teachers consider the need to code-switch to establish solidarity for identity marking. Any policy or promulgation in relation to the use of media of instruction in the Philippines should consider theories and studies on ethnic identity. According to Anzaldua (1987), "so, if you really want to hurt me, talk badly about my language. Ethnic identity is twin skin to linguistic identity – I am my language. Until I can take pride in my language, I cannot take pride of myself (p. 59)."

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Abstract

The study looks into the important issues concerning the development of bilingual learning of the third-grade bilingual students in the Thai context. The research sample consists of 67 primary students at third grade from three classrooms and their six Thai teachers (three Thai teachers and three native English speaking teachers). The data are collected through classroom observations and semi-structured in-depth interview with the teachers. This study is based on an interpretive approach concerned with subjective meaning in a particular context with the collected data analysed inductively. The study reveals that the students can manage to communicate well in English. They have been exposed to considerable amount of language from which they learned much more than grammar rules. Their main social task is to acquire communicative competence. The role of the environment has become more meaningful for the students' communicative ability. Overall, the bilingual education results in satisfying English proficiency and academic performance while the students' proficiency in their native language has been further developing. The results of this study help to advance the debate surrounding the effectiveness of a bilingual learning programme suggesting that a bilingual learning programme provides an effective instructional approach for elementary bilingual students.

Keywords: development of bilingual learning, communicative competence, effective bilingual learning

Introduction

In Thailand, Thai-English bilingualism has been flourished throughout the country. From the study on Thai-English bilingual children (Suwanarak, 2013), it is apparent that the education of bilingual children is dependent on the degree to which the children have access to instruction that is challenging, but comprehensible. They need an accepting institute and social environment which promotes academic achievement and values communicative competence of both Thai and English languages as well as cultural and language diversity.

Research Aims and Questions

This study looks into the important issues concerning the development of communicative competence of Thai-English bilingual children in Thailand where English currently has great additive value and investigates the effects of bilingual learning from the view of the teachers who are in the process of bilingual education. The implications for teaching approaches and the implementation of comprehensive bilingual programs are also focused. With this regard, two research questions are then developed: 1) To what extent do the Thai-English bilingual students in a bilingual learning program achieve communicative competence?; and 2) What are the effects of bilingual education on the students' learning achievement?

Literature Review

Aspects of Bilingual Language Development

According to Volterra and Taeschner (1978), the early stage of developing bilingual children is basically monolingual. The important concern is whether the two languages of bilingual children develop autonomously or interdependently. With this regard, interdependent development would be a consequence of systematic influence of one language on the development of the other, resulting in patterns or rates of development that differ from what would be expected in monolingual children.

These theoretical and practical concerns have resulted in research that compares the development of bilingual children to that of monolingual children acquiring the same languages. On the other hand, this may be an inappropriate frame of reference because it stigmatises bilingual patterns of development and risks attributing differences that bilingual children exhibit to deficits in children's ability to acquire two languages at the same time (Cook, 2002). Alternatively, the linguistic competencies of bilingual children, like those of bilingual adults, should be examined and evaluated on their own advantages (Grosjean, 1997). Such comparisons are prevalent in experimental research; consequently, this can have important real world implications.

Communicative Competence in Second Language

Communicative competence has been somewhat neglected in EFL literature probably because of its intangibility and intrinsic difficulty in labeling it. Widdowson (2002) defines communicative competence as an unstable concept that is simply understood as the ability to produce spoken utterances which are marked for illocutionary function. Nevertheless, he specifically argues that no syllabus can produce communicative competence. The responsibility, therefore, lies on the teacher who will be in charge of putting this communicative syllabus into practice.

Communicative competence includes what Chomsky had defined as *linguistic competence* as well as the rules of language in context that are analysed under the heading of pragmatics, attitudes, values and motivations that are usually left out when discussing a language (Cited in Skehan, 2003). One of the main components of an individual's communicative competence is a set of conceptual structures or schema to face and handle different kinds of problems that entail a variety of linguistic resources, such as asking for things, complaining, answering negatively and others which are equally complex.

Communicative competence in a second language could be based in the schema that children bring from their first language, though the first and second languages differ to a great extent in their grammatical and lexical realisation. It is then the role of teachers to build on this already acquired competence. If teachers ask the right questions, they also may help their children to develop their communicative and thinking skills. As well, a preference for references rather than display questions will promote communicative competence.

Effects of Bilingualism

There have been some disputes among researchers on the effects of bilingualism and various studies show divergent results. Many studies (e.g., Federman, 2000; Lopez, 2003; Mora, 2000) find insignificant or negative effects of bilingual programs on labour-market outcomes such as educational attainment and earnings whereas a lot more research on the relationship between

learning a second language early in life and cognitive ability reveals more positive effects whereas other studies. Bialystok (1986), for example, indicates that children's bilingualism positively affects their increasing ability to solve problems involving high levels of control of linguistic processing.

Considering the effect of bilingual education on academic achievement, Gordon and Hoxby (2002) discover that there is positive effect of bilingual education on achievement in multiple subjects although these effects are concentrated in the earlier grades. Similarly, Green (1998) comes across a positive effect of bilingual education on academic achievement. As well, August and Shanahan (2006) obtain similar conclusions that students in bilingual education programs outperform other English learning. Likewise, Genesee et al. (2006) realise that there are positive associations between native-language instruction and various measures of English proficiency and academic achievement.

Diaz and Klinger (1991) indicates that the positive effects of bilingualism are connected to low levels of second language proficiency that a new threshold hypothesis is formulated. The effects of bilingualism on cognitive development are most likely mediated through the processes and experiences related to early stages of second language learning. Likewise, Robinson (1992) summarises in his study that children whose experience with two language systems seems to have let them with mental suppleness, dominance of concept information, and more diversified mental abilities. The children perform better on standardised tests and tests of basic skills in English math and social studies.

By and large, these previous studies show mixed effects of bilingual education on academic achievement. They use a host of techniques to control for the nonrandom placement of students into bilingual education. Their data sets are either aggregated to the grade level or contain English proficient students along with English learners. However, none of them considers the effect of bilingual education on English proficiency.

Sampling

The study, focusing on its bilingual programme of study, was carried out in a private elementary school in Bangkok, Thailand. The adequate sample for the study was 67 primary students in three classrooms and their six teachers (three Thai teachers and three native English speaking teachers) which could accurately represent the population being targeted, satisfactorily produce meaningful findings and fully answer the research questions.

Methods

The data collection method involves observations of students' interaction in three bilingual classrooms and individual interviews with their teachers. Through the observation, the researcher witnessed the students' communicative competence and possible effects of their bilingual learning. Consequently, the teachers were semi-structurally interviewed as the research aim is to get as closely as possible to their views on students' bilingual learning and its effects on students' communicative competence.

Data Analysis

Qualitative data from the observation and interviews were analysed by using an interpretive approach. To increase validity with the data, a researcher in TESOL reviewed the transcriptions for data groupings and common themes that might have arisen and could answer the research questions.

Findings and Discussion

Communicative Competence of Bilingual Students

The students in the context of this study have Thai as a first language and attend a bilingual school, learning English as a second language, for its added social value. Through the classroom observation, it was apparent that the second language was developing and the first language was also in a developmental stage. English was somehow given to the students as a second language rather than skilled and developed; as a result, the students did not have a full understanding of the reach of using English proficiently.

A significant component in the development of communicative competence in this context is the use of what has been called *code-switching*. Apparently, all the teachers observed that when the students run short of vocabulary, they had various responses: keeping silent, speaking in a very soft voice, changing the course of the conversation, or asking for help with "*How do you say* ... *in English?*" or "*What is it (in English)*", alternate to body language or use their mother tongue. Nevertheless, they did not use it randomly; they either code-switched, code-mixed, or integrated.

From the above example, this usually happened in an English class; the teacher made a question and a student answered in Thai. The teacher pretended not to hear and the student repaired communication by using English.

Considering communicative competence in both Thai and English languages, the Thai teachers and the native English speaking teachers admitted that the bilingual students in this context were Thai dominant bilinguals. Although they were fluent and natural, their accuracy in English could not be considered high. Nevertheless, they chose to the request of lexis when unable to find the word they needed on their own. For example, they regularly used "*How do you say … in English?*" or "*What's … called in English?*". They were made entirely mindful of the distinction within the two systems from the start. They had notions of translation, fixed phrases, and autonomous skills in the target language (English) that did not correspond to their mother tongue (Thai): "Can you say that again, please?" or "Shall we read it?". The Thai teachers also noted that the students could name concepts in English which were unknown to them in Thai, but which had been acquired in the target language. The most frequent cases observed had to do with labeling items, food and ecological matters.

Regarding their age of acquisition, the third-grade students were childhood consecutive bilingual. All of them had acquired Thai as their mother tongue before they truly started their English bilingual learning. Less affecting factors for the students would mark them as *additive, exogenous, and monocultural* bilinguals, considering social status, presence of L2 in the community, and group membership respectively. At school, when they used English as the target language, it was for the reason that there were audiences and authority. Therefore, a significant

motivator must be a teacher. When they were getting older, this factor would gradually be lost and teachers would choose other means to ensure the use of the target language in class.

From the interview with all the teachers, communicative competence of the students was revealed. It was remarkable that the students had the same shortage of language for the explanation of the process applied when they had to give an explanation for a lexeme they were unlikely to handle. The teacher explained that, for example, one of the students seemed to have a greater ability to describe the process. He could talk about the elements used in a science laboratory. Only a word was missing and he alternated to the highly drilled: "*How do you call it* ... *in English? I don't know it*". Not only his linguistic ability of the students was employed, their communicative notion of the code helped facilitate him to ask that question when he was in need. He knew he was entitled to it and he could ask that question to the teacher who supposedly knew English better than him.

One of the native English speaking teachers added that if he did not give an answer to a student and used a longer wait time period without losing eye-contact, the student might resume the conversation: "Why do we need it?" This simple notion showed a developed code of communication and indicated that the students were not aware of his/her lack of vocabulary, and through paralinguistic features, decided to bring the dialogue to a closing stage. Two other Thai teachers also mentioned how the students tried to produce a noticeable *topic change* (Coulhard, 1977) which was a late-acquired strategy, to avoid the conflict evidence of his linguistic problem.

Considering how communicative competence grew in the pre-linguistic period of the bilingual students, some aspects of communicative competence, particularly morphological and syntactic aspects, were developed simultaneously, but the order was remarkably altered. All the teachers agreed that the students needed to be encouraged by teachers. By means of constant interaction, observation, trial, and error, the students learned about the importance of turn-taking in the form of topic initiation, maintenance or change and the appropriate use of speech acts which would all lead to the development of coherence and cohesion in conversation.

One of the native English speaking teachers shared his experience of seeing how the students were recreating a short story he had read in class. They were not reading or memorising parts of the story, but were recreating it with their own utterances within their own reach, unique and adapted to the context. This appeared to be the first stages of meaningful communication at beginner level; the students made use of learned utterances which had been widely practiced and little combination was detected.

The students also had a sense of texture and sequence in the story. The resources they used were not very sophisticated; however, *and* and *again* were observed as a sample of early cohesion. Another kind of consistent devices already developed was the use of *well* and *umm* or *urr* meant to fill the space of thinking time. The students resorted to well-rehearsed structures with basic structures of subject and verb. It was noticeable that they could develop and sustain their turn. The value of their exchanges relied on the successful use of lexical accuracy rather than on grammatical accuracy to complete the story. The teacher considered that the ability of telling a story was a skill that the students had already acquired in their mother tongue.

Noticeable, turns in conversation between teachers and students were somewhat longer at this stage than earlier in their bilingual learning. The teacher remarked that the students could keep the topic and maintain the story all the way through. This was in line with Foster (1990) indicating that cohesion was achieved by devices that joining individual utterances together. The teacher could observe respect for turn-taking, no overlapping and a good command of cohesion. Nevertheless, understanding of many students of the inclusive pronoun was still imperfect.

The students also showed a usual linguistic skill like the framing for questions in the classroom. Another native English speaking teacher emphasised that the students did not feel intimidated to ask questions because they were used to being exposed to a dialogue pattern between teachers and class. Most of the students could solve the problem of using the framing of questions more quickly and had a sense of comfort with the language and the dialogue situation. They could imitate intonation of usual questions.

Regarding the communicative competence of the students in this context, the idea of linguistic accuracy prevailed. They could be guided into the ability to make themselves understood with the less number of mistakes. They could be guided into it if the teacher did not restrict the language used to a set of classroom phrases, if they were not overloaded with grammatical or system-based explanations, and if they were allowed to use the language in activities that engaged them.

Obviously, all the teachers gave similar views that obstacles for the development of communicative competence were little exposure to the target language or a teacher who constantly interrupted the students' production for the sake of accuracy. The comfort of using English was usually fostered through the bilingual teaching. Being able to make use of the language, the students showed that they tried to create a sense of independence in classrooms. The language structures were shown on the wall to expose the students to everything the language could give them.

To conclude, any approach to the understanding of communicative competence development must consider the students' roles, the input and the relationship between the teacher and the student (Foster, 1990). The way the interaction between the communicative competence experienced by the student and the student's psychological make-up of the student plus the right environment administered by the teacher would design the model of communicative competence in the early years of bilingual education. Unlike the acquisition of a first language, the beginning of the second one would make use of resources of the native language to build the new one.

Pragmatic development, in addition, appeared to involve a major role for input, including explicit teaching. The students were already equipped with a set of pragmatic rules that they would in turn transfer to the second language. Understanding other people and situations was an existing part of their cognitive development; as a result, this enabled them to move comfortably in the sociolinguistic sphere of the new language. The students transferred the patterns of their first language, no matter how difficult they might be. In fact, it was the students' maturity that would allow them to expand what they wanted to say.

Hence, competence is unquestionably a combination of innate and acquired knowledge, the basis of English and the environment input provided by the teachers and the school. The teachers are supposed to set up the right knowledge and understanding for the creation of communicative competence because this discarded aspect of language relies more on the fostering than on the actual teaching of the notion. To some extent it is necessary to review needs in order to see whether the assessment tools are appropriate for the development of communicative skills. The significance of this growth will help the teachers construct their students' communicative competence with the aim at creating an independent speaker of English.

Effects of Bilingual Education on the Students' Learning Achievement

From the researcher's observation and the teachers' views, the bilingual education results in satisfying English proficiency and academic performance while the students' proficiency in their native language has been further developing. Both native language (Thai) and second language (English) have been integrated from kindergarten through third grade. Percentage of time the students are exposed to Thai and English in the core subjects (i.e., Reading, Writing, Math, Social Studies, and Science) is 50/50 whereas the English subject is instructed by native English speaking teachers.

The teachers noticed that the bilingual learning programme may foster more direct attention to language use. As one of the teachers stated, "*Students are more aware of their different languages as they are encouraged to use both regularly*." In accordance with this, Cromdal (1999) considered it as the intermixing of languages that may result in increasing metalinguistic knowledge correlated to bilingualism.

The improved performance of core subjects observed by the teachers may also be due in part to these students being taught academic concepts in their native language. In the earlier grades, the bilingual students had taken Math and Science classes mostly in their native and likely stronger language; this may have increased comprehension of the lessons and enabled the students to learn the material more effectively. All of the teachers had similar views on this and one of them clarified:

"A possible reason for the bilingual students' improved comprehension is that a bilingual learning programme may foster more direct attention to language use."

As well, in situations where concepts were taught in both English and Thai, memory for these concepts may be especially strong, as encoding in two different contexts may lead to deeper encoding and more retrieval routes. Thus, bilingual education may affect performance in and out of the classroom in many ways, and teachers should understand these effects (Genesee et al., 2006).

All of the teachers were well aware that making bilingual education more extensively accessible entailed current development setbacks. Participation during early elementary school years positively shaped achievement. According to Hakuta et al. (2000), it could take four to seven years to develop enough proficiency for successful academic performance. Some students may not have enough English-language proficiency in the early grades to perform successfully on the English-based learning and tests, thereby delaying the benefits in their academic achievement. The effect of early bilingual education involvement was related to the fact that the students were likely to learn the most fundamental reading, writing, and comprehension skills. If they enter later elementary grades without such skills, potential positive effects of later bilingual education would be diminished (Collier and Thomas, 2004).

The teacher participants accepted that either success or failure of bilingual students may well to some extent agreed on the strength of both native and second language supports and how skillful the teachers were at integrating both languages for facilitating academic success of the students. Research evident (e.g., Cheng, 1996; Gordon and Hoxby, 2002; Lindholm-Leary and Howard, 2008; Mora, 2000; Slavin and Cheung, 2003; Suwanarak, 2013) appears to support academic and social advantages of the primary language in bilingual learning settings because it facilitates the learning process, decreases frustration, enhances intellectual capacity, and deepens the understanding of intricate concepts.

In line with this, the teachers also supported the extensive use of the primary language and culture in successful bilingual learning. Students were allowed to process information and discuss concepts in their primary language. Evidently, all the native English speaking teachers found creative ways to help their third-grade students to understand key concepts in Math and Science by including a mixture of primary language strategies that facilitated comprehension. With this regard, one of the native English speaking teachers added: "A Thai teacher in this regard can be a great assistance. At times there appeared to be little difference between bilingual and typical English-only classrooms in the role of the primary language."

Primary language support, therefore, became the powerful effect in effective bilingual learning as it provided comprehensible input, understanding of abstract concepts, and equal access to the core curriculum. On a regular basis, it was used to provide access to abstract concepts by employing a variety of instructional practices. Accordingly, incorporating student's native language apparently promoted formation of cognitive academic language proficiency because the students were better able to gain a deeper understanding of concepts, which could then transfer to academic learning and understanding (Skehan, 2003).

Another effect of bilingual education learning was relevant to modifications of instructional practices in order to help the students to understand the core curriculum and facilitate academic success. Most of the support component was dependent on individual teachers' creativity and willingness to experiment. The teachers shared the same opinion that success in this endeavor would only occur with teachers who had plentiful resources and materials, and perhaps training opportunities.

Moreover, when developing a primary language support component in a bilingual setting, all the teachers agreed that parents could provide invaluable assistance in helping to make instruction understandable for the Thai students. Using parents for lesson previews, clarification, and conceptual development could provide a powerful bridge when a teacher was trying to help students to understand abstract concepts taught in bilingual classes.

This was compliant with what Lopez (2003) and Mora (2000) suggested in their studies that parents could help clarify abstract ideas, especially when the curriculum called for common

cultural issues. The potential for parental support in conceptual development was endless, particularly when teachers became adept at using the strengths of the family to enhance their curriculum.

This notion of parental support was very different from what was typically expected in various schools. Some parents may have more resources and abilities to help their children than others. Thus, it was imperative for the teachers to understand their students' society and families in order to ask parents to help in ways that they can be successful and will enhance the educational experience for students. Nevertheless, some parents might be over worked, stressed out, or unable to support. Teachers need to use a slightly different approach to help out their students. For this reason, without parental involvement should not be a reason for students' failure.

Overall, sustainable development of bilingual proficiency could be a positive effect of bilingual education. The teachers are expected to provide a quality language support component in their classrooms as well as staff development activities should be accompanied by appropriate materials and technology to implement the suggested strategies. A material-rich classroom is essential for mainstream teachers to be able to create learning environments that provide English language learners with increased access to the core curriculum.

The status of both Thai and English languages also needs to be proactively raised within bilingual classrooms to help all students and parents see the value of biliteracy. Speaking a second language is not only seen as an asset but as a problem to be fixed. Even though none of the standards address status of the language, it is imperative that language and culture be valued and honored within the school and classroom setting to increase the likelihood of student success.

Implications

Both a review of the literature and the interview conducted in this research identified the academic rigor of a bilingual programme as contributing factor leading to successful fulfillment of helping students become bilingual and bi-literate. The literature regarding successful bilingual programmes is overwhelming positive if certain key elements exist. It is the same element that parents should consider when choosing a programme or determining if this education model is a good fit for their children and family.

The quality of the teaching staff at the bilingual programme should be considered because it is critical to its success. All classroom teachers should be credentialed and bilingual in the languages taught by the programme. They need to be passionate about the bilingual learning goal about developing the students' language proficiency. Regular and open communication with staff is very important. Also, professional development opportunities to facilitate their own growth as educators should be supported.

Research in determining key factors should also include a broader perspective of those associated with a bilingual programme. Constituents to include may be parents of current students, parents of incoming students, depending on the timing of the survey, teachers at the school and staff who administratively support the school. Each of these groups has a unique perspective and may identify elements others have not considered.

Conclusion

The results of this study help to advance the debate surrounding the effectiveness of a bilingual learning programme and are aligned with previous research (e.g., Collier and Thomas, 2004; Genesee, 1983; Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Lindholm-Leary and Howard, 2008; Thomas and Collier, 2002), suggesting that a bilingual learning programme provides an effective instructional approach for elementary bilingual students.

On the whole, the bilingual learning programme has positive effects and is beneficial in multiple ways. Early benefits of bilingual learning should not disregarded. The third-grade students begin to show improvements in core subjects are hardly found when they were in earlier grades. This indicates that the students undergo a more immersive bilingual experience. The results suggest that balanced-language instruction to some extent promote academic achievement in bilingual students. Hence, the more bilingual experience and the more balanced exposure to both of their languages the students have, the more advantages they gain for promoting their learning success.

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MODERN LANGUAGES

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Abstract

The author, a native English speaker, has studied two additional languages over the past 10 years—Mandarin Chinese and Thai. For the former, he learned through a typical authority-driven process that required Chinese vocabulary memorization, followed by oral and written output during which the vocabulary was to be used correctly. For the latter, he was exposed to the Automatic Language Growth (ALG) method in which, at the beginning stages, he was required only to listen to instructors speak Thai without learning the grammar of the language or without producing any output. In both situations, the author kept track of his progress. In order to determine whether textbook-based and instructor-based study followed by output or the ALG approach was more effective, the author compared lists of words learned after his first 20 hours of language study. He found that although he did not acquire more vocabulary with the ALG approach, he seemed to remember the vocabulary more easily. This would suggest that ALG is a more effective process for long-term foreign-language learning. In the short term, however, most of the vocabulary he learned initially in Chinese permitted him to speak in some simple sentences, including simple greetings and polite phrases, while the Thai words he learned initially were nearly all nouns, making it impossible to put together even the simplest sentences. Nevertheless, the author suggests that the ALG method be considered an alternative teaching approach at the first stages of foreign-language education for those students hoping to acquire a comprehensive foundation.

Keywords: automatic language growth; language-learning methods; Mandarin Chinese, learning; Thai, learning; vocabulary, acquiring

It is fair to say that the primary goal of researchers and educators involved with teaching a foreign language is to develop an effective, efficient, and highly successful pedagogic process that will produce fluent bilingual students. The learning of a foreign language subsequently enhances multicultural understanding and expands career opportunities for those with international aspirations. But over the past 100 years or so, such an accomplishment has been elusive.

Statistics pertaining to foreign-language education in America, for example, are especially telling. The lack of foreign-language learning success in American schools is, of course, the result of many factors aside from the possibility of a flawed system of teaching. In 2006, Pullum wrote:

Why Americans, with . . . staggering wealth of resources and (for example) the most highly ranked graduate schools in the world, do so poorly by any measure on . . . command of foreign tongues is a complex question with a mainly sociological, political, historical, educational, and social-psychological answer.

To Pullum's comment can be added a historical-cultural tradition of expansion and settlement by the progeny of early European colonizers on a large landmass, without the impingement of and subsequent motivation to learn a second language.

Thus, according to Asher (2013), approximately 95 out of every 100 American students who begin to learn a foreign language eventually give up. With such failure comes the notion that learning a foreign language is next to impossible and why 30 of the 50 American states no longer require foreign-language proficiency of their high school students.

The success rate of foreign-language learning in Europe, where languages have migrated and jostled for prominence over centuries, is observably better than in the United States. A 2010 study revealed that approximately 60% of adults in the European Union said they could speak a foreign language (though only about 30% of that group said they knew the language well) (CEDEFOP, 2010). But this could be the result of linguistic necessity when living on a small continent comprising, by the EU's count, 23 official languages (Briney, 2011) and not necessarily due to the presence of a superior language-teaching technique.

Certainly, no foreign-language teaching method has been designated far and away the best, even in Europe. Instead, as any foreign-language section of a large bookstore, full of hard-copy tomes, CD-based software, and resources promising fluency in 10 days, will testify, foreign-language teaching has been a hodgepodge of techniques with wildly varying degrees of success. Some, first developed nearly eight decades ago, are still being used today.

Therefore, it was the modest objective of this study to compare two foreign-language learning methods (an authority-oriented, resources-based teaching style and the automated language growth [ALG] method) to determine which one was the more successful with a beginner-level adult student as measured by vocabulary learned after the first 20 hours of instruction. The research question was formulated as follows:

In the first 20 hours of study, is an authority-driven foreign-language teaching approach or the automatic language growth teaching approach more effective based on acquisition of vocabulary?

Initially, this research was to determine superiority quantitatively and limit extraneous factors through a simple summation of foreign words learned and remembered by the same student exposed to both teaching methods. However, important qualitative caveats were identified during the course of this study that made an unequivocal pronouncement regarding the better teaching technique problematic.

Overview of Foreign-Language Teaching and Learning Techniques

This review of the various methods to teach and learn a foreign language has been gleaned, in part, from literature dealing with the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL). Nevertheless, many of these pedagogic techniques have been applied to the learning of other languages as well.

Recently, Asher (2013) decried the method of teaching a foreign language according to the usual secondary-school style:

Please listen and repeat after me.

Let's analyze this sentence to point out the grammar rule for the day. Open your books and complete the exercise on page 25. Memorize this list of vocabulary. Open your books to page 63 and translate the first paragraph. Let's practice putting the appropriate direct object in the correct place in this sentence.

This is an apt reflection of language learning through input that is passive (ie, reading from a textbook or similar educational resource and guided by an instructor, followed by rote memorization of semantics and syntax). Comprehensible output is expected as an end result. It is this type of teaching, driven by authoritative resources and reinforced by an authority figure (that is, the instructor) that is referred to in this paper as **traditional pedagogy**.

Yet the EFL literature has described a series of teaching styles that were initially predominant then faded in popularity as another style was developed and applied. H. Brown (1994) lists these styles as

- **Grammar-translation** (19th century)
- **Direct (immersion) method** (learning is accomplished primarily by prohibition to use any language but the one being learned) (early 20th century)
- Audiolingualism (during WWII) (heavy emphasis on memorization and drilling)
- Alternative methods (group learning, suggestive learning, etc) (1960s into the 1970s)
- Communicative language teaching (CLT) (1970s to present)

H. Brown (1994) implies that these teaching styles were tried consecutively and ultimately replaced by CLT as the 20th century was drawing to a close. This may have been true of foreign-language teaching in those nations where English is spoken natively, but all of these teaching styles are used to some extent in many non-English-speaking areas in the world today (McKay, 2002), not only to teach English but other foreign languages as well.

It is at this point that a closer look at CLT is in order. Based on the notion articulated by Hymes (1972) that learners of a foreign language should be able to *communicate* in that language, rather than using that language to pass examinations based on previously drilled input and subsequent memorization of linguistic form (the basics of **audiolingualism**), CLT became a prominent foreign-language teaching method by the 1970s. By 1994, H. Brown declared that CLT was the generally accepted norm in the field of foreign-language education. McKay (2002) perhaps gave the most accurate definition of CLT when she wrote that it was a "foreign-language teaching style that promotes the ability to use the language in a meaningful, appropriate, and authentic way" (p. 54).

Of course, it is, proper also to review foreign-language learning styles as well. Willing, in 1987, described four types:

- **Concrete** (direct processing of information)
- Analytical (focus on language problems and gain solutions through hypotheticaldeductive reasoning)

- **Communicative** (the learning side of CLT; learning within a social context)
- Authority-oriented (reliant on the directions of others for explanations; sequential, highly structured)

One teaching-and-learning style has received limited mention in the foreign-language education literature, however—the **automatic language growth** (ALG) system (J. Brown, 2002). Simply put, this is a style of teaching that, essentially, tries to re-create the learning of a foreign language in the same context as one learned his or her first (native) language.

The ALG approach has yet to attract the attention of a large number of language-education experts and foreign-language instructors, which perhaps is surprising since ALG derives from the concept first put forth by the well-known linguist and educational researcher, Stephen D. Krashen, that language should be learned according to a *natural approach*. In 1977, he joined forces with Spanish teacher Tracy Terrell to investigate what they termed a "naturalistic" language-acquisition technique in the classroom (1983). Their method mainly featured less emphasis on grammar instruction, as compared with other teaching approaches, and limited explicit correction of student errors. But its most important aspect, especially as related to ALG, was that language output from the students was not expected until they had been exposed to a considerable amount of language input. In other words, the use of the foreign language by each individual student was allowed to develop at its own pace. In 2003, Krashen was still supporting this teaching-and-learning style:

The energy devoted to futile attempts to show that grammar study is effective has diverted energy from a more worthwhile endeavor, trying to determine the true potential of comprehensible input. In my view, the studies supporting comprehensible input . . . underestimate its power. What would happen if we fully utilize comprehensible input . . . ? (p. 84)

The implications of a naturalistic perspective, which led to development of the ALG method, are important. First, the success of naturalistic language learning suggests that the failures of foreign-language learning—as previously cited in the United States—is not the fault of a language's complexity but in the teaching-learning methodology. Then there is the related implication that the human brain is not physiologically capable or conditioned (a difference that goes beyond this study) to acquire a second language according to the styles used predominantly in the classroom. Instead, it is believed that the brain most effectively acquires a new language in the same way it acquired the first (native) language—without grammar learning and without immediate requirements to produce correct language output.

The ALG method also invalidates the notion of a "critical period" of foreign-language acquisition, as first theorized by Penfield and Roberts in 1959 and supported further by Lenneberg in 1967. Their idea was that language was learned ideally early in life and, as an individual approached adulthood, he or she lost the ability to learn another language as fluently as their first (native) language. This theory has never drawn a large number of adherents primarily because, even after 50 years, it has been difficult to prove. Additionally, if true, it would invalidate the well-researched and heavily supported contention among foreign-language-education experts that non-native speakers of a language can communicate in and teach the

language as well as native speakers despite contradictory non-pedagogic attitudes that tend to marginalize the role of non-native speakers in foreign-language education (Kubota, 2009; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999).

The ALG method then, attempts to replicate conditions of language learning that we experienced as babies trying to learn our first language. But, the vast majority of foreign-language learners are no longer babies, so does ALG really work? Is language input (hearing the language), without output (speaking the language) until a much later stage of proficiency, an effective learning strategy? The answer would be yes, according to Bénédicte de Boysson-Bardies, a first-language-acquisition expert, who wrote, *How Language Comes to Children* (2001). He contends that speech is the realization of language learning; that is, speech is important but at a *later* point in language development, not at a nearly *initial* point.

Consequently, **ALG** is defined here as a combined teaching-and-learning approach that begins in the first stage of foreign-language education with input and the near total absence of grammar teaching and required output.

Methodology

Because foreign-language learning is largely the process of acquiring words and their related meanings, I decided the best way to compare the effectiveness of the tradition-bound, authoritydriven teaching technique to the ALG method was very simply to compare vocabulary learned after a defined length of time. Specifically, I counted the words a single participant had learned after the first 20 hours of language study involving two foreign languages. The answer to the research question—In the first 20 hours of study, is an authority-driven foreign-language teaching approach or the automatic language growth teaching approach more effective based on acquisition of vocabulary?—would be shown by indicating which teaching method had resulted in a greater number of words known, and remembered, by the participant–student after 20 hours

The single participant in this study was yours truly. Briefly, I am an American middle-aged adult whose native language is English. I began studying Mandarin Chinese approximately 10 years ago at a large university in the American Midwest. At the time I undertook the analysis described here, I was teaching English at an international university in Bangkok and learning Thai in that city from a well-established language school.

I learned Chinese from textbooks and instructors emphasizing pronunciation, use of tones, and vocabulary building. Approximately once a week, I was tested one-to-one by a graduate-teaching assistant who was a native Mandarin Chinese speaker. I learned Thai through the ALG method in which I was exposed exclusively to the language by a two-teacher team. The teachers would pantomime and speak Thai to each other as the class of approximately 12 students sat and listened. Twenty hours was the chosen cut-off point for this investigation only because at the time this study was developed, I had only completed 20 hours of Thai-language learning.

Here I must interject some comments regarding a researcher using him- or herself as the study participant. I am well aware that many research methodologists (eg, Gay et al., 2006) warn of the potential perils involved when the investigator is also the study participant due to the increased risk of bias. However, others (eg, Jones & Somekh, 2006) insist that such studies can be carried

out effectively because an individual, as the primary research instrument, can control one's own biases even when being the research participant as well. This, they explain, is done through objective self-observation. "In observation the self [is] consciously gathering data By various means of recordkeeping, traces of those [data] are stored for careful scrutiny and analysis after the event" (Jones & Somekh, p. 138). In this instance, I believed the data I was collecting were so simple and were to be analyzed so simply (by totaling a list of words) that bias would be minimized.

All the data used here were either document-based, gleaned from notes (for Chinese learning) or from word lists based on recent memory (for Thai learning). My Chinese language learning, including my textbook (DeFrancis, 1977), lesson progress reports, a language-learning diary, test papers, and lists of words learned and subsequently remembered had been dated and archived so were ready-made for this type of study. I could easily identify the 20-hour mark.

In contrast, taking notes and studying out of class were mildly discouraged by my Thai instructors using the ALG method. In anticipation of this investigation, then, after the first 20 hours of language exposure, I listed every Thai word or phrase that I knew.

Next, I compared the two lists, totaling the number of words I knew in each language, to determine which list contained more words.

Results

Tables 1 and 2 show the breakdown of learning activities during the first 20 hours of language study for Chinese and Thai, respectively. Note that *Table 2* lists only one activity, reflecting the ALG approach.

One critical difference, in terms of this study, between my experience learning Chinese versus my experience learning Thai was that I studied Chinese in America. Therefore, it is safe to assume that all the Chinese I had learned up to the 20-hour point was through my studies. However, I learned Thai while living in Bangkok. Therefore, I had to distinguish between those words I had learned in the classroom and those I had likely picked up while in Thailand.

Table 1: What Was Done in the First 20 Hours? (Chinese Mandarin)

- Learning Chinese tones in self-directed computer lab, followed by self-tests until passed (3 hrs)
 - Learning Chinese pronunciation in self-directed computer lab, followed by self-tests until passed (10 hrs)
 - Becoming familiar with the pinyin system (1 hr)
 - Becoming familiar with 'odd' grammar (e.g., the stative verb)
 - (1 hr)
 - Learning simple 'greeting vocabulary' from textbook and completing textbook exercises (3 hrs)
 - Learning simple classroom-context commands as said in Mandarin (1 hr)
 - Working with a native-Chinese-speaking tutor to review problems, ending with a graded recitation, in dialogue format, involving simple greeting

- **Table 2:** What Was Done in the First 20 Hours? (Thai)
- Listening to Thai exclusively as spoken by two teachers using over-emphasized body language and facial expressions, with frequent pointing to self-drawn pictures or posters in the classroom (20 hr)

For example, the Thai word, *sà-tăa-nii*, is said (among many other Thai words) over the public-address system for riders of Bangkok's MRT (subway) system and BTS (sky train) system to announce every upcoming stop and is immediately followed by the English translation. It becomes quickly evident to non-Thai speakers using the city's mass transportation that *sà-tăa-nii* must mean *station*. These types of words are listed in *Table 4* but designated with an asterisk (*). If these designated words are subtracted from the total, then I learned 31 Thai words and phrases, the same number of Chinese words and phrases that I had learned at the same stage of my Chinese-language learning. The same word total for both languages is probably a mathematical coincidence; nevertheless, the results fail to provide evidence that either the traditional or ALG method is comparatively more or less effective as a foreign-language teaching system.

Table 3: Vocabulary Learned in the First 20 Hours (Mandarin Chinese)
(Shown according to the pinyin system)

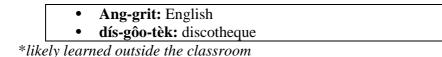
- **ni3**: you
- hao3: good
- **Ni3hao3**: How are you?
- **ma**: [particle to denote yes/no question]
- Xie4xie: Thanks.
- **Bu2ke4qi4**: You're welcome.
- **Dui4bu4qi3**: I'm sorry.
- **Mei2guan1xi**: Never mind.
- lao3shi1: teacher
- Zai4jian4: Goodbye.
- **shao3**: much
- qian2: money
- **Duo1shao3qian2?**: How much is it?
- **bu2**: no
- **Dui4le**: Correct.
- Bu2dui4: Wrong.
- **dong2**: understand
- **Dong2 bu4dong2?**: Understand?
- You3 mei2you3 : Want, don't want?
- wen4ti2: problem
- Mei2wen4ti2: No problem.
- You3 mei2you3 wen4ti2?: Any problems?
- **nin2**: you [formal]
- Nin2 gui4xing4?: What is your formal name?

- Wo3 xing4....: My formal name is
- Jiao4 . . .: Call me . . . [less formal name]
- Ni3 ne: And you?
- ren2: person
- **shi4**: to be
- Mei3guo2: American
- **Zhong1guo2**: Chinese

Table 4: Vocabulary Learned in the First 20 Hours (Thai)(Shown according to the Paiboon system [Becker & Pirazzi, 2009])

 sôm: orange pûu-yÎng: woman lék-lék: very small pûu-chaai: man à-roi: delicious mŭu: pig nŭu: mouse nguu: snake kon: person gâao: nine sìp: ten bpɛɛt: eight săam: three sɔɔng: two gà-təɔi: ladyboy* nung: one mâi: no Sà-wàt-dii: Hello* kâ/kráp: [gender-specific softener for 'sà-wàt-dii']* sà-tăa-nii: station* tà-nön: street* sɔɔi: alley* gɔ: island prík: pepper ɛp-bpən: apple ûuan: fat fà-ràng: Caucasian Westerner* And words that sound English: tɛk-sîi: taxi sék-sîi: sexy kəm-píu-dtəə: computer tú-ritan: durian À-mee-rí-gaa: America biia: beer Kɛɛ-naa-daa: Canada 	0000	
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Discussion

Based strictly on word count, I knew nearly a half dozen more Thai words after 20 hours of learning than Mandarin Chinese words after 20 hours of learning. But if I subtract those Thai words most likely learned by living in Bangkok rather than acquired in the classroom, the totals are identical and the research question cannot be answered based on this study.

Nevertheless, a review of my language-learning experience and a more considered analysis of the results suggest other factors that may indicate some advantages for learning a foreign language by using either method under discussion here.

For example, note that much of the vocabulary I had learned in Thai was predominantly composed of unrelated nouns. The only phrase I had learned was the traditional Thai greeting, $s\dot{a}$ -w $\dot{a}t$ -dii (kráp), and that was not likely learned in the classroom. In contrast, after 20 hours of Chinese, I knew some very simple, basic polite phrases that would have enabled me (barely) to utter a few full phrases had I been on the streets of Beijing at that time.

Additionally, the tables do *not* show the words and phrases I was taught but did not remember at the 20-hour mark. According to my archived notes, when I was learning Chinese, there were many words I was taught (primarily through my exposure to them in the textbook) but were not learned (*Table 5*). Succinctly put, I forgot. I then had to re-learn the words at some point beyond the 20-hour cutoff designated for this study.

On the other hand, while learning Thai according to the ALG method, I attempted to make connections between what I was hearing and what I thought the meaning was. Amazingly (to me, at least), once I made the connection, I never forgot the word. Succinctly put, I either learned the word or I didn't. Nevertheless, the ALG method sometimes seemed to result in a painstakingly slow learning process. During many sessions, especially in the beginning, 15 to 25 minutes would pass without me understanding a single thing being said by the instructors. Over the first 20 hours, I learned a Thai word at a rate of approximately 1.5 per hour.

Yet many students at the Thai language school have remarked, when informally queried by me in preparation for this study, that once they learned a word, however slowly, they never seemed to forget it even without follow-up study to reinforce the knowledge. Of course, with improved retention of knowledge, no matter what speed the knowledge is initially obtained, a firmer foundation for language learning is developed. This can better support a cascading effect of expanded language acquisition (vocabulary, phrases, and, eventually, longer sentences) as the connections between sounds and meanings increase exponentially. The purpose of the ALG method is to accomplish this, initially, without learning grammar or producing comprehensible output. Whether such improved language-knowledge retention is a student misperception or is indeed occurring at an improved rate over other learning methods requires further investigation.

It is interesting to note, though, that, as an EFL teacher, I have heard this same remark after using the Total Physical Response (TPR) method developed by Asher (1966, 1969)—the same James Asher who has been previously cited in this paper for complaining of the poor state of foreign-language learning in America.

Table 5: Vocabulary Incompletely Learned in the First 20 Hours (Mandarin Chinese)

	(Shown according to the pinyin system)
٠	Some phrases were learned, but the individual words in the phrases were not yet
	recognized (e.g., ke4qi4, qi3, duo1)

- Shi4 was overused.
- Particles (*e.g.*, **le**, **ne**, **de**) were used but their meaning and grammatical necessity were not known
- All-purpose measure word 'ge' was taught, but not used. Its 'purpose' remained a mystery.
- Difference between 'mei2' and 'bu2' not understood.
- 'Ma' was known to mean 'mother,' 'horse,' 'hemp,' or 'to swear,' but which tone meant which was not clear.
- A suspicion that the word '**duo1**' did not really mean 'how,' since other 'how' questions seemed to start with another word (later learned to be '**zen3me**')

The following words were taught, but not remembered:

- **shui3guo3**: fruit
- **biao3**: watch (n)
- **niao3**: bird
- **zhuo1zi**: table
- yi3zi: chair
- **kuai4zi**: chopsticks
- **xiao3har2**: children
- **huar4**: painting

The following classroom phrases were taught, but not remembered:

- Gen1 wo3 shuo1: Say [it] with me.
- Qing3 zai4 shuo1 yi2ci4: Please say it again.
- **Ba3 shu1 da3kai1**: Open your book.
- Hui2da2 wo3de wem4ti2: Answer my question.

With the TPR method, a beginning foreign-language student is commanded to act out the meaning behind the foreign language used by the teacher. For example, a student will walk to a classroom door and close it after hearing the teacher say, "Please close the door," in the language being learned. Asher developed this teaching method based on his observation that children learn their first language by physically responding to the language of the parents. Therefore, the TPR method is similar to the ALG method in that both are derived from the belief that a second language should be learned like the first. In addition, many students and instructors have an anecdotally based belief that the physical response reinforces their retention of the language, just

as the mental action of making connections between meanings and sounds may reinforce vocabulary retention with the ALG method. Unfortunately, a limitation of this study is that it only takes in the first 20 hours of foreign-language learning. A longitudinal analysis covering hundreds of hours of learning would perhaps be more revealing here. Such an investigation would not only continue to monitor the comparative progress of language learning using the ALG approach and other learning processes but also help determine when the ALG method should decrease and learning of the grammar and writing of the language should commence.

It should be emphasized here that the ALG method is not an indirect condemnation of grammar teaching. In fact, grammar learning and an expectancy by ALG instructors that students will eventually produce comprehensible output are part of their overall language-learning view. For example, the Thai school that I attended offers ALG-based fluency lessons for up to 1,200 hours but then adds courses in reading and writing in Thai, with more complex speaking and listening activities. This is necessary at some point in language learning, even when using the ALG or TPR approaches. The one major shortcoming of both these methods is that it is difficult to act out abstract meanings, whether that "actor" is the student (with TPR) or the teachers (with ALG).

Nevertheless, if language knowledge gained actively through a physical response or mental matching is better retained than knowledge gained passively from teacher instruction and resource materials, this question can be posed: Is the brain processing language information obtained through required physical and heightened mental activity differently from language information acquired passively?

The answer to this question is outside the focus of this small study but it does suggest the possibility of an investigation that could provide some interesting and unique results, especially if conducted by a multidisciplinary team of foreign-language–education experts and neuroradiologists. The former could work toward producing convincing language-proficiency–based evidence of improved language retention with active learning while the latter could use advanced medical-science armamentaria, such as computed-tomography or magnetic resonance images of the brain, to identify any physiologic changes with such learning. This type of multidisciplinary research has already been attempted to determine if the learning of a foreign language late in life will stop or slow the development of Alzheimer's dementia (Craik et al., 2010; Gold et al., 2013; Schweizer et al, 2013).

Conclusion

This study, combined with the considerations discussed here, would seem to indicate that a traditional, authority-driven teaching style may be the preferred method for those wanting to communicate in a foreign language at a simplified level immediately. But if retention for long-term learning is the goal, the ALG method might be the more effective method ultimately.

Granted, the results shown here are equivocal. However, they do suggest that the ALG method may have some value and should not be dismissed out of hand. Certainly, given the poor foreign-language learning outcomes in places such as America, foreign-language educators should be open to considering this approach as an enhancement, if not an alternative, to currently used teaching-and-learning processes.

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Abstract

Religious language is abstract language with subtle meanings. However, it has also very ambiguous meanings. Therefore, it seems to be opened for different interpretations and meaning constructions. Buddhadasa Bhikkhu believes that the interpretation of religious words or language relies closely on the different levels of experiences and conceptions of the religion of Buddhists. To achieve the coherence between the religious words and their interpretation, which are also based on the core of Buddhism, Buddhadasa Bhikkhu presents the concept "Human Language, Dharma Language" (Bhasa Khon Bhasa Dharma) to classify the religious language into two levels. The first one is Human language which focuses on secularity or objects. The second one is Dharma language which focuses on dharma of which nothing is inherently secular. His presentation of this concept "Human Language, Dharma Language" (Bhasa Khon Bhasa Dharma) is considered as an important tactic to explain the teaching of Buddhism. It gives new points of view among Thais and allows them to understand the teaching of Buddhism more easily. Therefore, the above concept of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu shows his lingual wisdom as well as his propagating of Buddhism, obviously.

Keywords: Lingual Wisdom, Human Language, Dharma Language.

Background

Buddhadasa Bhikkhu is the famous Buddhist scholar in Thailand. He is the great contemporary reformist of Buddhism in history of Siam. He interpret the doctrine of Theravada Buddhism and religious practice of Thai Buddhism by using of analysis and reasoning which is the result from the development of science and the growing of the middle class in Thai society. The printing of the mode of books "Dharmaghosa" or the promotion of Buddha's teaching conclude his lecture more than 50 books which can accepted as the works of Theravada Buddhist thinker are greatest in history of Thai Buddhism. Donald K. Swearer, a American scholar who experts in Buddhism evaluated highly the role and status of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu in history of Theravada Buddhism. He said that Buddhadasa's concept is the pattern and most influence beginning from Buddhaghosa the great commentator, and evaluated the role of Buddhadasa equal the great Indian Buddhist thinker as Nagarjuna (Seri Pongpis, 1981, p.119).

Another well-known works of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu are "Manual of Mankind", "Essence of Buddhism", "Following of Noble Person" "Mountain of Buddhadharma's Way", "Human Language and Dharma Language" and so on. His many works were translated into foreign language such as English, France, German, Chinese, Japan, Lao, Sri Lankan, and Tibet. The works which were translated into English printed more than 20 titles (Amnuey, 2003, p. 13)

On the other hand, he begin the teaching which is called "Dharma Lecture" with "Human language" which is the "Language" that is thought by him for affection of Truth. It was called "Suenmok words" for example Me-and-Mine, Enlightenment, Attachment. Hence his old name "Ngeaum" is changed into a new name "Buddhadasa" which means to motivate for giving himself to be the slave of Buddha. His works as teaching or writing are full of lingual

wisdom which is ability in creation of new words or group of word including to bring it for explanation and to give the new meaning of well-known words. Otherwise it still present religious wisdom which can apply the technique of communication and apply religious teaching, faith and valuable ancient ritual for comfortable to practice for giving the good result to man and environment in the contemporary society. The presentation of concept "Human Language and Dharma Language" for using of explanation of Buddhist teaching is the method of Buddhadasa's promotion of Buddhadharma especially (Chamnan, 1976, p.69).

The Objective of Research

- 1. To study the theory of human language and dharma language of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu
- 2. To evaluate the theory of human language and dharma language of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu

Definition of Important Words

Human Language: It means the normal language which is used in the way of material world or feeling way of normal person and depend on matter, does not true fundamentally.

Dharma Language: It means the transcendental language which is used in abstract way beyond material world, does not depend on material world. It talks truly with wisdom and give only correct meaning of absolute truth.

Literature Review

It is strategy or wisdom in cultivation of Buddhists for understanding of Buddha's teaching automatically as well as the Buddhist scholars in the past have done the concept of language such as "Normal Language and Transcendent Language". The reading of religious books or listening of Buddhist teaching often have many difficult words because it composes the Pali language and words which relate to abstract condition. It is obstacle to obtain and understand the religious doctrine for the new learner. Otherwise language and religious words still have many classes and it can be interpreted so many way according to the basic of learner. Whatsoever there are many religious words which the learner of Dharma often misunderstand because they mix it with the meaning which is used generally.

"I have realized what title I will speech, at last I think, the title which most of you don't understand profoundly truth which was often explained, listened in many time, but didn't understand it, and suspect that why we don't understand, I think and realize it still find answer, because most of people know only normal language which is often spoken by people, it is called worldly language, people does not understand transcendent language and never think that there is another language which is different and most opposite the normal language" (Buddhadasa, 1995, p.9).

Buddhadasa have wrote the books on Buddhism which emphasizes the problem about language correctly. He have presented the concept "human language and dharma language" for pointing the difference on understanding about two levels of language or the religious words. Especially, in the level of material and abstract, he explain "*The human language is in the way of material world which is the feeling way of normal person and depend on matter, does not have the truth as fundamental. It talks only the worldly words, it talks only things which can see by eyes of normal person. But the dharma language is the abstract way of word which we cannot see, does not depend on material world, because it see the abstract state by wisdom, it talk correctly and give the correct meaning. It is spoken by the Dharma-* *Wiseman. This is dharma language, abstract language which is beyond the material world*" (Buddhadasa Bhikkhu, 1994, p.11).

Methodology

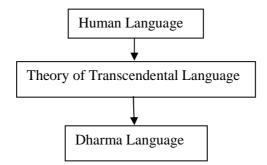
To collect of datum which concern the Theory of Human Language and Dharma Language of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu. The method of research is the descriptive and analytic. The concepts of Human Language and Dharma Language will be studied by means of a documentary examination and investigation as well as by its analysis. The study and presentation of the materials found from the primary sources and the secondary sources are:

1. The information in the primary sources ; The literature works of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu as "Manual of Mankind", "Essence of Buddhism", "Following of Noble Person" "Mountain of Buddhadharma's Way", "Human Language and Dharma Language."

Later renowned thesis and dissertation concern the works of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu also are carefully looked into, as they are treated as the systematic works on Buddhism.

2. The information in the secondary sources: The explanatory works on Buddhadasa Bhikkhu written by various scholars and supporting literature.

The research based on using the theory of Transcendent Language for analysis of human language into the dharma language as following framework:



Findings

The explanation of concept 'human language and dharma language' of Buddhadasa as is presented in above paragraph. Buddhadasa Bhikkhu remind the definition of words especially. The definition of words based on the method of Transcendent Language to give the meaning in two ways namely:

1. The definition of religious words which often are used new correctly from normal level to transcendental level. In this group, it is definition or explanation of words as Buddha, Dharma, Sangha, Sasana, Karma, Nibbana, Magga-phala, Sunyata and so on.

2. The definition of words which is the conceit thought respond to meaning of religion. The words are the conceit concept which the literature calls the thought in kind of typological conceit, and they are the deeper conceit. The words are necessary to have fundamental knowledge of religion in the interpretation or explanation for receiving the completed meaning. The kinds of conceit concept are the words as God, demon, hell, paradise, immortal water, light, dark, bad-smell thing, singing, dancing ect.. The definition of these words is called the 'symbol'. It call the name of something with using the another words, do not call uprightly, for example, light is the symbol of wisdom, dark is the symbol of ignorance, immortal water means highest Dharma, angle means the teaching of Buddha. The speaking of symbol and comparative word is the model in teaching of Dharma is used

from the time of Buddha. What is well known is the comparison of human in the world as the four kinds of lotus according to the level of wisdom. Whatsoever we can critique the form in explanation of human language into the dharma language on four features as 1) the explanation of material words into the abstract words, 2) the explanation of material things into the material things, 3) the explanation of abstract words into the material words and 4) the explanation of abstract words into the abstract words namely;

1. The explanation of material words into the abstract words as Buddha, Dharma, Sangha, Sasana, Nibbana, Mara (demon), Loka (world), Jati (birth), Marana (dearth), Life, Human, Hell, Animal, Peta (ghost), Asura (evil), Paradise, Immortal Water, Stopping, Light, Dark, Mother-and-Father, Friend, Enemy, Bad-smelled Things, Dancing and so on.

Table 1:				
Words	Human Language	Dharma Language		
Buddha	The Buddha and his life, body which was born in India two thousand years ago, had been Nibbana and was burn.	The true Dharma which is said by Buddha "One can see Dharma, he will see Tathagata (Buddha). One can see Tathagata, he will see Dharma." The person who do not see Dharma, although catch the robe of Buddha, it doesn't means seeing the Tathagata.		
Dharma	Scripture or book which is called Dharma in Tipitakas cabinet or the voice of Dharma.	The whole Dharma which is not only book, scripture, palm leave, or deep meaning sermon, but it means every things which can understood difficulty, or can understood easily.		
Sangha (community of monk)	Priest, monk	Dharma is in the man's mind, it means virtue, do not means person, because the outside thing or person is similarly, but it is different on the virtue in the mind which can make man to be Noble Person as Sotapanna, Skithacami, Anacami, and Arahant.		
Sasana (Religion)	Church, Vihara, Pagoda, Yellow Robe, Doctrine.	The true Dharma which can be refuge of human being. Dharma can be the way leading to cessation of suffering.		
Nibbana (Liberation)	Nibbana is the place, crystal palace, imagined city. All are received from thinking, therefore everyone want to go to Nibbana.	The cessation of desire and suffering.		
Mara (demon)	Giant or monster have afraid body.	It is some state which interrupt the goodness and ability for reaching the cessation of suffering.		
Loka (world)	Earth or world is round or flat.	The truth, virtue or nature is in the world as suffering, uncertainty, and so on.		
Jati (birth)	A child deliver from mother womb.	The beginning of perception "Me-and- Mine" happen once in our mind daily. It happen in the mind of normal man in many time, and happen in the mind of good man in sometime. It happen in the		

Table 1:

		mind of Noble Person a little bite, or still			
		don't happen.			
Marana	Dearth or died person is brought	One can destroy evil perception. The			
(death)	to burn or bury.	perception of 'Me-and-Mine' disappear.			
Jiva (life)	The being is not died, can move,	The state is immortal, it is Nibbana or			
	walk and eat.	eternal life. The life is not born, is not die			
		again.			
Man	The highest being have life and	Virtue helps to be the man, it is higher			
	body.	level of mind.			

2. The explanation of material words into material words as Duty, Bharmacariya, Refuge and so on.

Word	Human Language	Dharma Language	
Bharmacariya	Refrain from the misconduct	The action destroy some desire by effective.	
(Noble Life)	of sexual behavior.	If one practice dharma truthfully, strictly,	
		unmistaken, it is called Bharmacariya.	

3. The explanation of abstract words into material words as the word 'Karma'.

Table 5:			
Word	Human Language	Dharma Language	
Karma (Duty)		Kammatthana (Meditation) is the practice of Dharma. One practice dharma with honesty, correct, diligent, effort, intellect, and most of virtue.	

4. The explanation of abstract words into abstract words as Magga-phala, God, Sunyata and so on.

	Table 4:				
Words	Human Language Dharma Language				
Magga-Phala	The working reach the goal	One can destroy the suffering or desire			
(way-and-goal)	according to the desire, hence	which is the cause of suffering correctly			
	it is worldly.	with practice of Dharma step by step.			
God/gods	God have the power in doing,	Mystic power does not Self, does not			
	inspiration, creation of all	angle, does not be anything. But it is the			
	things. He create the world	nature, truth, law of nature. It is called in			
	and Universe	Pali "Dharma".			
Sunya	"Sunyata" is the Pali word,	One have every things as he can, avoid			
(emptiness)	"sunya" means empty, "ta"	the perception of 'Me-and-Mine', that is			
	means –ness, therefore	the empty of Self or Oneself.			
	"sunyata" means emptiness,				
	nothing, or wasteful.				

If we realize language in rhetoric form, Buddhadasa's human language and dharma language is rhetoric form which is used many kind of rhetoric language in consistence as descriptive rhetoric, comparative rhetoric, elevate rhetoric. More clear understanding, there is main words and sub-words which is understood till feeling and thought was happen. The rhetoric form is used by Buddhadasa to consist lecture most clearly in comparative rhetoric. It means language comparing the truth for clearness in meaning, image, emotion and feeling.

Conclusion and Suggestion

The Buddhadasa's explanation of religious language in level of transcendent language help us to across the many imagination in god story and mystic thought in traditional Buddhism. It is the challenge to Thai Buddhist for realizing, to recognize, and understanding of scripture and teaching of Buddhism in deepest and rational level. It is most necessary at time of the class opening of communication between traditional lawful monks who must teach the Buddhist of modern world. The Buddhadasa's concept on human language and dharma language have important significance, because it is fundamental for understanding of Buddhism based on experience of wisdom. Under the frame of concept, it is the true context in meaning of Buddhism. Although it is the presentation which we should not understand the Buddhist scripture according to the words as the most of people understand, because it leads to wrong attachment of ideas. The division of human language and dharma language is helping to see the doctrine or essence of Buddhism. It leads Buddhist to leave the wrong ideas and include the looseness of wrong attachment in the Self, until leads to the cessation of suffering at the end. In the same time, it is to create the understanding of Dharma and solve the problem on the conflict of Buddha's words, it can say that the presentation of concept on human language and dharma language of Buddhadasa had created the harmony in the difference between religion. He reminds that the conflict and misunderstanding between the difference of religion happen from the holding on the doctrine according to the "words" as "Human language" which is worldly rhetoric more than the language beyond the world, or "Dharma language". If we understand the latter form, there is no conflict in all religion, because one will say same language which is dharma language. (Seri, 1981, pp.40-41)

Buddhadasa Bhikkhu had tried for explanation and interpretation of doctrine in many religion relatively as explains the meaning of God in English. It is similarly in the voice and meaning with word 'Kod (in Thai)' which means 'Dharma' or 'law of nature' (Nikij, 1980, p 149). In the other hand, the symbol 'crucifix' of Christianity was explained by Buddhadasa Bhikkhu that it is the destroying of 'I or Me' and 'Mine' which is important passion of man. Therefore Buddhadasa Bhikkhu have many good friends both Christian and Muslim. His works on lecture and books are full of linguistic wisdom which is ability in creation of words or group of new word, and conclude the explanation and to make the new meaning to well known words. Otherwise he presents the religious wisdom which can apply to technique and communicate the religious doctrine, belief, and valuable tradition, apply to comfort for good practice into the person and environment in contemporary. Howsoever, beginning from the presentation of concept "human language and dharma language", he had interested the using of language in another form as to bring the theory of psycho-analysis of Sigmund Freud and Alfred Adler to interpret the doctrine with presentation in article "The Experiment on Buddhist Psycho-analysis (superiority complex)" (Buddhadasa,1984, p.79). Sigmund Freud realizes that all behavior of man begin from the motivation of Sub-consciousness (Unconsciousness), especially sexual instinct. While Alfred Adler critiques that it begin from the effort to instead inferiority complex. In other hand, Buddhadasa Bhikkhu do not agree with them, he critiques and concludes that every things go on with controlling of persistence (Ahangara, Mamangara or Me-and-Mine) which is called by him 'superiority complex'. He explains that there is no inferiority complex, in the human mind there is only superiority complex. The presentation of persistence is to create the words for comparing with concept "inferiority complex", he critiques and explains that all human behavior, concluding both plant and animal are under motivation from power of superiority complex, they want to be

important person, want to be big person or have the attachment of me-and-mine at all. To use the theory of psycho-analysis for to critique Buddhist views is the effort for applying dharma with the modern science and to create the interested words for communication with the contemporary young person and technocrat meaningfully. He had created the words and sentence "Suenmok Form" which have value, meaning, and proverb. These words are not created new at all, some words was applied as the Buddha had done in the past, for example, to bring the word 'Nibbana' which means decease and it is the words of people in Indian society to be absolute idea of Buddhism, and give the new meaning which is the state of peace happening from the ability to destroy of lust, greed and fool in mind (Preecha Changkhunyean, 1997, p 479). In the case of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu, he create and apply the new words such as birds do not see the sky, fishes do not see the water, man do not see the world, eating, love, dignity, cleaning, light, peace. It is the beginning to explain the Dharma clearly both meaning and significance. It is the way of presentation of wisdom in promotion of Dharma and linguistic wisdom of Buddhadasa Bhikkhu and is valuable for leaning worldwide at the future.

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Teleseryes as a Tool of Filipino Language Development

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Who will forget the remarkable role of Gerald Anderson as Budoy? Who is not amazed to Marian Rivera's role in Amaya? Were you not entertained by Kokey, the friendly alien? Very recently, are you not enchanted to the magical language of Wako-Wako?

Budoy, Amaya, Kokey, Wako-Wako and many other teleseryes have one thing in common, that is, they used words which really amazed the audience thus contribute to the development of the rich word bank of Filipino dictionary.

This paper is conceptualized to serve the following goals:

- 1. Enlighten the readers on the nature of the teleserye as well as the underlying literary genre.
- 2. Determine the impact of the words being used by the characters to the hearts and minds of some selected Filipino audience.
- 3. Determine the important roles of these teleseryes to the development of the Filipino language.

In the end, this paper intends to draw opinions from the readers of this paper as to their own conceptual frameworks concerning the contribution of teleseryes in the development of the Filipino language.

The Language Development

According to the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, language development is the process of learning to understand the meaning of words and knowing how to put words together in an appropriate order. They noted that the process of understanding ideas requires receptive language, and the process of explaining ideas requires expressive language.

Language is very important in one's society. In the Philippine culture, language unites Filipino people. Though there are lots of different dialects in the country, these do not separate Filipinos all over the world.

Another aspect which unites Filipinos together is the casting of teleseryes. Filipinos worldwide are fond of watching it. Television companies introduced 'primetime' as a time where members of Filipino families are in their respective homes after a day of work. Filipino audience, while taking a rest before going to bed, is fond of watching television programs dubbed as teleseryes.

Teleserye as a Genre

Philippine drama is a popular way of expressing a Filipino culture. It is where Filipinos can relate their feelings and thoughts simply because these dramas depict the lives of their fellows.

In most cases, dramas narrated and exhibited by writers and producers are those that really touches the hearts of the Filipino audience.

Basically, Philippine drama can be classified into different forms and genre. One of the most popular is the so-called 'teleserye' which is a television form of melodramatic serialized fiction.

Wikipedia discussed the origin of the word 'teleserye'. Accordingly, it is rooted from two words: "tele", a short for "television," and "serye", a Tagalog term for "series". It is now used as the generic term for most Filipino soap operas on television. The term officially came into existence in 2000 when ABS-CBN aired its first official form of teleserye, *Pangako Sa 'Yo.* Year 2001 when GMA used "teledrama" to equate with that of the ABS-CBN's 'teleserye'.

Teleseryes evolved into a genre with its own unique characteristics. More often, they are working as a reflection of the social realism of the Filipinos. Values and cultures are always seen in the storyline. They attract a broad audience of different ages and gender, and command the highest advertising rates in Philippine television.

In present times, many classical love stories popularized before were taken into contemporary versions. Mara Clara, Mula Sa Puso, Flor de Luna, Katorse, and others are among the popular tv dramas/film before. These days, teleseryes evolved into a new range, it's now lighter, adventurous and comedic.

One thing is very much noticeable in these teleseryes, that is, the presence of Kontrabidas. These people give so much colors to the story. They make viewers mad and even make untoward remarks to the teleserye itself, its casts, director, and writers. But mind you, viewers kept on watching it even at the end of the day, they are the ones *pikon* and *iyamot*.

The endings of the revived teleseryes are sometimes quite different from what has been classically written. These days, story lines sometimes showcase a noted change in a character. Modern drama serials have also opened up the possibilities for a series return through cliffhanger finales (Kokey) while others end up with a live performance of the characters.

A Closer Look at 'Budoy'

There are lots of teleseryes that showcase unique forms of languages. This paper take into account, and focus on Gerald Anderson's Budoy.

Budoy is a Philippine drama television series produced by ABS-CBN. It tackles the story of a mentally challenged guy, and his family, relationships and social issues. It casts Gerald Anderson, Jessy Mendiola and Enrique Gil.

The story is about a well-renowned family of doctors, the Maniegos. Bound to success but with no child, Dr. Anton Maniego (Tirso Cruz III) performs an artificial insemination on his wife Luisa (Zsa Zsa Padilla). She gives birth to their child "Budoy". Budoy's birth is a family blessing, but later on turns into the family in shame when they discover that Budoy is suffering from Angelman syndrome, which delays his intellectual development. On Budoy's fifth birthday, he goes 'missing' after his grandmother, Dra. Alberta Maniego (Barbara Perez) gave

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him to a caretaker (Arlene Mulach) to save their family from shame. After Budoy's caretaker dies, Elroy caretaker's hired maid for Budoy, adopts him.

Meanwhile, to save Luisa's sanity, Grace (Mylene Dizon), the wife of her brother-in-law (Christian Vasquez), suggests to their family to present a fake Benjamin (Enrique Gil) "BJ" is, in fact, Grace's son.

Years later, Budoy is recently moved out of his other home with his guardian Elena (Janice de Belen). They later live with her father Renato (Dante Rivero) and Budoy befriends Max. He works at Maniego University and finds his old friend Jackie and befriends BJ. Budoy learns that the school is going to kick him out because of an accident. So, at a party in BJ's house, Budoy speaks with people who work for BJ's father's company to give some money to donate so he can be able to go to college. Everything starts to be fine until BJ bragging that he and Jackie did it. Then they get accepted to *Pilipinas IQ*, a game show, so the school for special children can be built. They win, but Jackie still upset with BJ. After they exit the game show, it starts raining. Jackie tries to run away from BJ since he wants to apologize. Budoy, who went to see the game show, followed them and tried to stop BJ from hurting Jackie. BJ hits Budoy knocking him out, and leaves him. Thunderstorms start growling, and Budoy later wakes up. He tries to find them but ends up falling and rolling down a hill. Then, his foot gets zapped and hits his head in a rock.

Weeks later, he luckily survives, but the Maniegos already figured out that Budoy was their real son and BJ isn't. This makes them more associated with Budoy, especially Jackie. Budoy starts recovering from the syndromehttp://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Angelman_syndrome. Meanwhile, BJ gets in a car accident, but survives. He starts getting upset about the fact that Budoy keeps receiving the love of his parents. With Budoy out of the hospital, his parents decide that he would live with them. The more they are with Budoy, the more upset BJ gets. One day Budoy wanted to play with BJ, he started getting angry, throwing his beer causing a fire. Budoy starts panicking and later goes into a temporary state where he is focused. He gets a fire extinguisher and stopped the fire. BJ tried to talk to him and Budoy replied in a regular voice, then BJ knew he was starting to change. In order to consolidate BJ's familial and academic bases, BJ and his biological mother, Grace devised plans to exile Budoy in the Maniego University and that's the start of secretive strategic battle of Budoy and BJ. Budoy decides to find BJ's mother with the help of his father's private investigator. Grace figures out and destroys Budoy's plan. BJ had enough of Budoy stealing everything, he intends to jump out of a build until he finds out the truth about his mother. Grace tells the truth that she is BJ's biological mother and kept the two a secret. His father tells him that his mother was dead. Budoy intellectual capacity started to increase to that of a genius. He even got accepted to Pilipinas IQ when one of the participants from their college backed out. Budoy confessed his love to Jackie and they started a relationship. BJ continue to harness his hatred towards Budoy. Every plan he made to embarrass Budoy failed. As the story goes, BJ realized that his father is still alive. He met Henry Chavez, an exconvict and later a fugitive. BJ spend some time with his father and they set things up to pretend it to be a failed kidnap attempt for BJ to get back to the Maniegos while Henry convey a plan to steal fortune from the Maniegos and get BJ and Grace to his side. As the series progresses, Budoy suffers from a severe headache which later turns out to be a brain tumor and he also investigates his kidnapping when he was 5 years old. The suspects include his godmother and father. Later, Budoy and his mother were shot while chasing Henry Chavez. Budoy returns to his old abnormal self, while Luisa cannot speak. During the trial, his grandmother admitted that she was the mastermind of Budoy's abduction and was sentenced to lifetime imprisonment while the Maniego brothers were imprisoned only for 6 months for obstruction of justice. The entire clan was freed, eventually. Luisa also recovered from her injury. In the grass, Jackie was attacked by a snake. Budoy attacked the snake and at the same time, called BJ for help. At the hospital, Budoy witnessed BJ kissing Jackie which made him upset. Budoy, then underwent brain surgery and survived. BJ also apologizes for all the times he threatens Budoy after the surgery. During his birthday, Budoy, who finally accepts BJ as Jackie's boyfriend again, sets up their proposal during his birthday. Suddenly, Grace ruins the moment as she points the gun at Budoy. Jackie married BJ and gave birth to a son named Benjo, and Budoy was one of the sponsors (godfathers). BJ became a doctor of the Maniego Hospital. Eventually, a group of syndicates led by Duke abducted BJ and Jackie, who were eventually killed by a gunshot and Budoy promised to raise their son. Duke, in the other hand was killed by Grace. While Budoy was building as special school for children, Grace once again ruins the moment, as she abducted her own grandson and this time, she became very insane and claims that Benjo is BJ. In the end, Budoy provided education for mentally challenged children.

Critique

Budoy as a teleserye is one of the best teleseryes in the recent times. It showcases more positive values – love, affection, strong family ties, love of children, care, and others. The love of parents is one of the best attributes of this teleserye.

Though not perfectly done, especially on the manifestations of the Angelman Syndrome, love to children and people with mentally challenged illness still is the factor being considered by many Filipinos who watched this teleserye during primetime.

Budoy's famous lines really touched the hearts of the Filipino audience. Truly, they found so much passion to Budoy's fate. Yet, due to his illness, he is one of the best exemplars of an innocent and godly person. He is indeed a model of innocence and virtues as he loved people around him.

Implications to the Language Development

Most of the Filipino people are characterized as simple and downhearted. We are so simple that we patronize teleseryes telecast during prime time. We find joy, thrills, suspense and excitements in these television programs which consciously or unconsciously, draws too much attachment to us. At times, we're happy to the journey of the main characters. At times, we uttered negative words addressed to the kontrabidas due to so much destruction given to the bidas. At times, we cannot sleep due to the thrill and excitement of the next episode. At times, we're worried to the fate of the main characters. Hayz, teribleng teleserye 'to, nagiging parte na ng buhay ko.

Teleserye languages refer to the popular lines uttered by the main characters. "*Ako Budoy*," "Be happy, be Budoy", Anna Manalastas' "Getz Mo?" and many other words and phrases which the audience truly appreciate, thus, became common words of the mouth.

Teleserye languages, just like gay lingos and many others, help strengthen the ties between people. My students became closer whenever they uttered words of Budoy. They laugh laughed together, shared stories together, and discussed the essence and values of the teleserye, together! Languages in teleseryes really influence their audience. Interactionist Theory of language development backed this argument. Looking back to this theory, Interactionists argue that language development is both biological and social. They argue that language learning is influenced by the desire of people to communicate with others. Thus, collaborative learning is the idea that conversations can help people both cognitively and linguistically (Shaffer, et al, 2002).

The interaction between audience and the teleserye is a way of adopting the teleserye languages which the audience literally understand the meanings. It is through the Theory of Interaction that broadens the wide collection of terminologies in Filipino Dictionary. Thus, it is a good avenue for researchers to undertake a study on teleseryes' languages, the terminologies with their unique meanings.

Language is a good reflection of the civilization. Language defines the richness of the historic past. It is through language where emotions, abstract ideas, skills, knowledge, and tradition are transmitted by the speakers. It is a manifestation of the sophistication of a culture. In the Philippine setting, there are lots of languages being spoken by the people of different regions. And through teleseryes, people in different parts of the country understand the message through its unique language. Languages that can only be heard in teleseryes.

Truly, teleseryes contribute much to the development of the Filipino language. It is one of the most effective tools in making our native dictionary rich, updated and developed. It is through teleseryes that we can truly connect lives of the Filipino people.

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Exploring Phonetic and Semantic Similarities between Mandarin Chinese and Kannada Language: A Comparative Study

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Abstract

The main objective of this paper is to explore the phonetic and semantic resemblances between Mandarin Chinese and South Indian Languages such as Kannada Language, which belong to Dravidian family. The paper lists a series of words which are very close –in Mandarin -and Kannada languages, and - derives some conclusions on reasons for such findings. To start with, in literature, the word *chakra* is a Sanskrit word that translates as 'a spinning disc' or 'a wheel. This word chakra also has the same meaning in multiple Indian languages, including Kannada. Similarly, the character for wheel in Chinese calligraphy -"车" (Chē) is an ancient symbol which exactly depicts the character with pictorial wheel. The findings are evolved over the years based on the experience of speakers from both Mandarin Chinese and Kannada language in China, and the paper lists words based on -various contexts and perspectives. This paper only derives some conclusions based on the linguistic similarity between Chinese and Kannada Language. For example, there are some words which are similar in meaning as well as pronunciation; however, they might/might not be currently used in both languages. This provides some clues in terms of origin and relevance. In conclusion, it is very evident that - it is necessary for further investigation of -understanding in this area.

Keywords: East-Asian, Dravidian, Kannada, Chinese, Phonetics, Semantics

Introduction

In literature, the word *chakra* is a Sanskrit word that translates as 'a spinning disc' or 'a wheel' (Mageau, 2014). Wikipedia defines this word as "...name derives from the Sanskrit word for 'wheel' or 'turning', but in yogic context a better translation of the word is 'vortex or whirlpool'(Wikipedia,2014). This word is common throughout Indian languages including Hindi and South Indian languages where most of them derive from Dravidian family. The character for wheel in Chinese calligraphy is " \pm " (Chē). Moreover, ancient symbol of this character (\pm) exactly depicts the character with pictorial wheel. If - "*Chē*" is considered the root character then one could derive many words starting with "*Ch*" in Hindi, as well as Kannada language, which are related to wheel.

The paper identifies some of the striking similarities between mandarin Chinese and Kannada language. The similarities are first found, with the experience of Kannada speakers in mainland China, and it later gave numerous interesting results. For example, common words such as woman, jasmine, and sweet potato, sound exactly the same in both languages. Moreover, - many other words listed in this paper- also provide solid -evidence for these similarities. The authors also explored the similarities in grammatical structure between these two geographically distant

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as well as un-related languages as they belong to different language hierarchies; also use different script for writing. Both languages are geographically unconnected at present, and there are no previous studies reflecting upon such similarities between these two languages.

This paper is organized as follows. Firstly, we will provide a brief account of historical exchanges between China and India, along with introduction to Chinese and Kannada languages. We will also present a history of Tulu language, which also belong to the same group with Kannada language, and share some minor similarities with Mandarin Chinese. The introduction of these two languages, also provide the geographical significance of this study. Secondly, we will list the phonetic similarities between Kannada-and mandarin Chinese (hereafter Chinese) as well to Tulu. Thirdly, we will provide some syntactic similarities between Kannada and Chinese. Fourthly, we will provide some arguments favoring the existing similarities, and the reasons for lack of understanding in the current era. Finally, concluding remarks, discussions, and scope for further research is presented at the end.

Historical Exchanges between China and India

Asia is the world's largest, most populous and most diverse continent. It is the cradle of a majority of the world's great and living civilizations. The two major Asian countries in the world, India and China, shared a long history, as well as they are geographically share huge boundary areas. In history, these two civilizations shared major historical, cultural, and religious developments. India and China have been a great part of the global economy for centuries. It spans over 4600 years of economic, political, and cultural history. In 1750, China accounted for almost one-third, India for almost one-quarter and the West for a less than a fifth of the world's manufacturing output (Huntington, 1996). To explain some of the ancient links, here we can list some of the past developments in the history.

It is regrettable that wonderful ancient and modern literature of these two countries is not easily accessible through translations. There are not many books or magazines to reflect the goodwill relationships between these two countries. India, a country with hundreds of languages, is heterogeneously distributed in terms of language, ethnicity and customs. But China looks like a homogeneously spread with widely spoken Mandarin. Historically, -many famous Chinese pilgrims traveled to India. Faxian made a journey that marked the high point of the first wave of Chinese pilgrims in India. He left China in 399 and returned in 414 (Magnin, 1995). At the age of 25 Faxian began a quest to learn about Buddhist traditions in India -to discover authentic Buddhist writings. He recovered a large quantity of Buddhist writings and returned to China where he devoted the rest of his life to translating them from Sanskrit (Brooklyn, 2014). Xuanzang (596-664), who went to India in 629 by the route running north of the Taklamakan desert, is the best-known of all Chinese pilgrims. His fame is not only due to his great record of his travels, which has been translated into several Western languages, but also to Wu Cheng'en's novel, published around 1570 in the Ming Dynasty under the title -Xi You Ji (Journey to the West, In Chinese, Xi You Ji), which recounted the imaginary adventures of Xuanzang and his strange companion, the monkey king Sun Wukong (Magnin, 1995). - Xuanzang is famous for his 17-year trip to India, during which he studied with many noted Buddhist masters, especially at Nalanda. He was a student at Nalanda for five years and taught there for a year. While returning to China he carried a large number of manuscripts, 657 Sanskrit manuscripts, with him and translated them in Chinese, laying a strong foundation of Buddhism not only in China, but also in Korea and Japan. The third great Chinese pilgrim to India was Yijing (635-713), who traveled there by boat. His journal is interesting for other reasons than those of his eminent predecessors in that he described the practical rules and institutions of Buddhist communities in India. Many Chinese monks also visited Nalanda, the chief centre for training in monastic life and the study of Buddhist texts. Yijing gave the Chinese a detailed description of it and suggested that they should build an imitation. Indian travelers also made their way into China over the centuries. They came as messengers of peace, understanding, and tolerance. Kasyapa Matanga, Kumarajiva and Bodhidharma came to China and did make an impact. Kasyapa Matanga, the first Indian teacher in China in the first century AD, stayed at the Baimasi (White Horse Monastery). The Han Emperor Ming dreamt of a golden person. On enquiry from his courtiers he learnt that He was the Buddha. He sent ambassadors to the West (i.e. India) to invite Buddhist teachers. They returned with Dharmaraksa and Kasyapa Matanga. They arrived on white horses laden with scriptures and sacred relics (Chandra, 1998). Most recently, six hundred years ago, Admiral Zheng He voyaged to the southern coast of India. However, very little was known about each other in any respect in the last six or seven hundred years. This old friendship was not resumed until 1924 when Nobel Prize winner Rabindranath Tagore came to China. Tagore came to China at the invitation of the lecturer's association of Peiping, which was organized by various universities and colleges in that city, with the late Prof. Liang Chi-Chao as its president (Shen, 1999).

Languages of China and India

However, when we analyze the languages of both contemporary India and China, we -can see striking differences. India is home for hundreds of languages, including Sanskrit, one of the major languages of ancient contribution of Indians, which holds a prominent position in Indo-European languages, where English and Hindi and other major languages of this family. India is not only the land of major Indo-European languages, but also that of Dravidian family of languages where Tamil is one of the major languages belonging to this group, which is currently one of the national language of India and the official language of Sri Lanka and Singapore, and is widely spoken in Malaysia, Mauritius, Fiji and South Africa (NUS, 2014).

Even though India and China shared cultural and religious treasures in the past, there is hardly any study on similarities between Chinese and Indian languages. In this paper, when the authors make a reference to Indian languages, it relates to contemporary languages spoken in India defined by the Indian constitution. Indian constitution currently identifies 22 official languages including Kannada, Tamil, English and Hindi (Axis Translations, 2014). Their similarities between Chinese language is never be explored for number of reasons. Firstly, both Chinese and Indian languages belong to different hierarchies, so previously linguistic scholars least bothered to explore any such studies. Secondly, most of the Indian languages derived from Indo-European, while Dravidian languages- borrow many words from Sanskrit; also they changed over the time. Thirdly, very few linguistic scholars are interested in studying these similarities as it requires experts to master both languages, which seem hard to find such scholars. Lastly, in India, English is a major official language, so many other regional languages such as Kannada or Tulu are not usually taught in universities or colleges beyond India.

Mandarin Chinese

The Chinese language belongs to the hierarchy of Sino-Tibetan language group, and currently it is the most widely spoken language in the world with over 1.1 billion native speakers. The standard form of Chinese is called Mandarin or *Pǔtōnghuà* (普通话) (Wang, 2011), and the highly developed Chinese writing system, *Hànzì* (汉字), has a history of no less than 3300 years (Yale, 2014). There are thousands of characters in Chinese, and they are usually represented in the form of both simplified and traditional forms. A system phonetic notation and transliteration to roman script of Mandarin Chinese called *Pīnyīn* (拼音) is used for the spelling of the sound of the Chinese character. For example, these two characters, 中国 (*zhōngguó*), are literally translated as *middle country*, referring to China. In Chinese mainland, *Pǔtōnghuà* is the official spoken, while simplified Chinese characters are written for all official, educational and daily usage purposes. The current simplified characters used in mainland China are the result of an ongoing study conducted by the Chinese Government since 1956 (Han, 2012). However, the traditional set of characters also used in Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Macao, even today for official, educational, and daily purposes.

Kannada and Tulu Languages

Both Kannada and Tulu belong to the family of Dravidian rather than Indo-European languages. Around 70 languages belong to Dravidian family, and most of them are spoken in Southern India, Nepal, and Sri Lanka. Currently there are over 220 million Dravidian native speakers around the world (Steever, 1998). Some studies claim Proto-Dravidian as the language of the Indus or Harappan civilization (approximately 2500-1300 BCE) (Encyclopedia, 2014).

Kannada in specific has nearly 70 million speakers and is one of the 40 most spoken languages in the world (Bhat, 2012). Around 38 million of them are native speakers and 11 million of them use Kannada as their second language. It is one of the national languages of India as well as the official language of southern Indian state Karnataka. There are 61 million people in Karnataka, and it comprised of 30 districts. The Kannada language has gone through a number of changes over the history. The first written record in the Kannada language is found in Emperor Ashoka's Brahmagiri decree, which can be dated back to as early as 230 BC. There are basically three forms of Kannada language. Firstly, the old Kannada, or halegannada, spanned between 9th to 14th centuries CE. Secondly, the middle Kannada, or *nadugannada*, spanned between 14th to 18th centuries CE. Finally the modern Kannada or hosagannada, start from 19th century to present (Soumya, 2011). So there are some changes in the modern Kannadaa to old Kannada. For example, the word for women in old Kannada is *pennu*, where in modern Kannada, it is *hennu*. The Kannada languages use its own script; the modern Kannada script contains 13 vowels and 34 consonants called basic characters (John, 2011). We point out the evolution the Kannada language because this paper finds similarity between the words used in modern and/or ancient mandarin and Kannada.

As this paper shares some light on similarities of Chinese to another Dravidian language, Tulu, we would like to describe some history about that. There is script for Tulu, however, it is not used widely. The 2001 India census reported 1.72 million Tulu speakers; and it is not included as national language of India and not given any particular status (Omniglot, 2014). Moreover, as

per 2009 UNESCO report, Tulu is one of the endangered language in the world today (Sengupta, 2009). Tulu language is spoken only in two districts of Karnataka, and some part of neighboring state of Kerala, especially in Kasaragod areas. Because Tulu is a disappearing language, there is a pressing need to study it. This study is a valuable attempt to develop understanding of the connection between Mandarin, the language with most population, and Kannada as well as Tulu, endangered language.

Phonetic Similarities between Chinese and Kannada

In the past, scholars proved the impact of Buddhism and Sanskrit on Chinese language. This is mainly due to the translation and introduction of Buddhist scriptures from Sanskrit and other Indic languages (Guang, 2013). However, Sanskrit is prominent language in Indo-European, rather than Dravidian family of languages. In the recent study conducted by Japanese scholar, Susumu Ono, proposed that there are similarities between Tamil and Japanese languages (Pulvers, 2008). His work is very influential in the recent times, because he also went on to prove that Japanese language might have derived from Tamil language, or they may have the same hierarchy, which was not well accepted by number of researchers, especially in Japan (Sen, 2014). This is the only work, which shed some light on similarities between a language of East-Asia and to a language of India in the recent years.

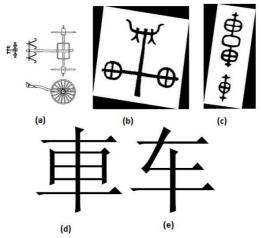


Figure 1: Evolution of character for wheel in Chinese (Longquanzs, 2014), where (d) and (e) represents traditional simplified characters respectively

As it is hard to justify how the languages of China and India are phonetically similar, we attempt to project some historical clues to understand. As mentioned above, Chinese language uses sophisticated pictorial writing system, where in most cases each character represents objects. For example, shown in the Fig 1, also we can see the modern simplified character and the ancient character for wheel are the same. The *pinyin* for this wheel is $Ch\bar{e}$ in Chinese, and in almost all Indian languages, including Hindi, Kannada, and Tulu, the word for wheel is Chakra, which also shared the first character "*Ch*". Now the similarities between "*Ch*" and "*Chē*" are very close, but it is -difficult to justify the reasons for this similarity. Considering $Ch\bar{e}$ as the root word, words shown in the Table 1, which are derived as well as uses currently in Chinese, Hindi, Kannada and Tulu, share almost 100% phonetic similarities:

English	Chinese	Pinyin	Hindi	Kannada	Tulu
Wheel	车	Chē	Chakra	Chakra	Chakra
Movement	车轮	Chēlún	(na)	Chalane	(na)
(Wheel)					
Driver	车长	Chē zhǎng	Chalak	Chalaka	Chalake

 Table 1: Words are closely related with 车 (Chē, means wheel) to other Indian words in Indian languages such as Hindi, Kannada and Tulu

By making google translate as a reference, we have also shown screenshots of two English words Jasmine and Shower, as an Example for the readers in Fig. 2, and Fig. 3, respectively.

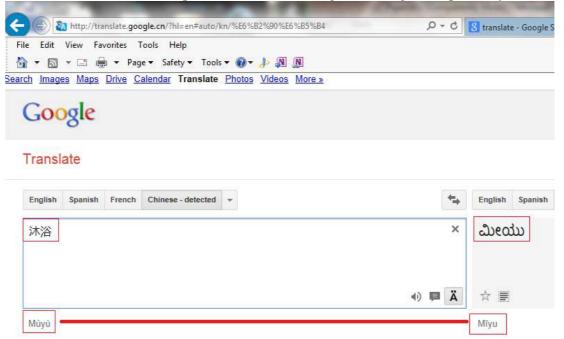


Figure 2: The word for Shower in Chinese sounds $M\dot{u}y\dot{u}$ and in Kannada it is $M\bar{i}yu$, as shown which are phonetically very similar

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(a) Translation of word Jasmine to Kannada sound as Mallige

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(*a*) Translation of word Jasmine to Chinese sound as *Moli* **Figure 3:** Kannada and Chinese translation for word Jasmine

English	Chinese	Pinyin	Kannada	Kannada Pronunciation
jasmine	茉莉	mòlì	ಮಲ್ಲಿಗೆ	mallige
flower	花	huā	ಹೂವು	hūvu
lion	狮子	shīzi	ಸಿಂಹ	sinha
day	旦	dàn	ದಿನ	dina
tea	茶	chá	ය	cha
wood	木	mù	ಮರ	mara
root	本	běn	ಬೇರು	beru
back	背	bèi	ಬೆನ್ನು	bennu
leaf	叶	yè	ಎಲೆ	yele
gold	金	jīn	ಚಿನ್ನ	chinna
sun	旭日	xùrì	ಸೂರ್ಯ	sūrya
sweet potato	甘薯	gānshŭ	ಗೆಣಸು	genasu

The Table 2, shows, words (most are nouns) which share almost 100% similarities between Chinese and Kannada.

Table 2: List of nouns, which are almost 100% similar in both Chinese and Kannada

The Table 3 shows some of verbs, stich share phonetic similarities between Chinese and Kannada

English	Chinese	Pinyin	Kannada	Kannada Pronunciation
see	看	kàn	ಕಾಣು	kanu
cry	哭	kū	ಕೂಗು	kugu
bake	烤	kǎo	ಕಾಯು	kayu
bathe	沐浴	mùyù	ಮೀಯು	miyu
sell	卖	mài	ಮಾರು	maru

Table 3: List of verbs, which are almost 100% similar in both Chinese and Kannada

The Table 4 shows the words	where some	adverbs are	similar in bot	h Chinese and Kannada
The fable + shows the words	, where some	auveros are	sinnar in oot	i Chinese and Kannaua.

English	Chinese	Pinyin	Kannada	Kannada Pronunciation
you(s)	你	nĭ	ನೀನು	ninu
you(p)	您	nín	ನೀವು	nivu

Table 4: List of pronouns, which are almost 100% similar in both Chinese and Kannada

The Table 5, shows, words (most are nouns) which share almost 100% similarities between Chinese and Tulu.

English	Chinese	Pinyin	Tulu
			Pronunciation
jasmine	茉莉	mòlì	mallige
guest	宾	bīn	binne
face	面	miàn	mone
women	妇女	fùnǚ	fonnu
man	男	nán	an
lion	狮子	shīzi	sinha
day	旦	dàn	dina
tea	茶	chá	cha
wood	木	mù	mara
root	本	běn	beru
back	背	bèi	beri
leaf	叶	yè	yere
gold	金	jīn	chinna
sun	旭日	xùrì	sūrya

Table 5: List of nouns, which are almost 100% similar in both Chinese and Tulu

Words Derived from Root Characters?

In this section, we will provide some reasons for proving the similarities between Kannada and Chinese. In Chinese language each character carries some meaning, as it can be pictorially shown, as well as these characters share a long history. Moreover, these words, can act as root words for deriving other words related to that, as shown in Table 1. Moreover, each Chinese character also includes different components which in turn include radicals. There are 214 radicals in the original Kangxi radical list, but a few of them are no longer used in the simplified Chinese (Arch Chinese, 2014). With this understanding, we can also derive a number of words in Kannada language which share the same meaning as in Chinese. The Table 5 lists some examples.

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English	Chinese	Pinyin	Kannada- Related word Pronunciation
pray	祷	dăo	deva,devi
fear	怖	bù	bedaru
day	诞	dàn	dina
hand	手	shŏu	shoucha
thread	缕	lů	nulu
cruel	酉告	kù	krura
death	死	sĭ	savu
ant	蚁	yĭ	yiruve
cloth	布	bù	batte
magical	魔	mó	mata
tiger	虎	hŭ	huli
road	道	dào	dari
park	元	yuán	vana
devil	歹	dăi	devva
quarter	刻	kè	kalu
carve	刻	kè	ketthu
song	歌	gē	gana
bitter	苦	kŭ	kahi
pot	壶	hú	huji

Table 5: words that share phonetic similarity in Chinese and Kannada, where possible derivation of other words, based on root words,

Derived or Modified Words?

Some words seem to be derived over particular meaning, and have changed over time. For example, word "Shunya" in Kannada (as well as in Hindi) represents zero. Similarly, the Chinese character "虛", where its pinyin is " $x\bar{u}$ ", represents void. Moreover, shunya also represents void in India. Obviously, the first part of shu of shunya and $x\bar{u}$ in Chinese sounds very similar. In the second example, the name for sheep in Kannada and Tulu is kuri. There is no proper history for this word with authors' current understanding. We believe that, this may be derived from $k \, \check{a} or \, \grave{o} u$ (which actually means, baked meat, as sheep is the widely used for barbeque in olden times), and the word baked meat, later represented as name of animal in Kannada. The third example is more relevant and meaningful. The formal word for mother in Kannada is tayi, and in Chinese there is word $t\bar{a}i$, which actually represents birth or embryo. Does it mean that Kannada word tayi is derived from Chinese word for embryo? Another example is about the word "罗汉" ($lu \, \delta h \, \dot{c}n$) in Chinese, actually refers to arhat, or Buddhism in

Sanskrit. Moreover, this word is used many Chinese literature for metallic coins or money. Today, in Kannada, the equivalent word, *"loha"* means metal, or objects made out of metal. This raises question on how the Kannada and Chinese are closely related. This raises question on how the Kannada and Chinese are closely related. The words with derived meanings is shown in Table: 1

Chinese Word	Pinyin	Kannada Pronunciation	Meaning in Chinese	Meaning in Kannada
虚	xū	shunya	void	void
烤肉	kăoròu	kuri	baked meat	sheep
胎	tāi	tayi	birth, embryo	mother
洗手池	xĭshŏu chí	shoucha	wash basin	bathroom
罗汉	luóhàn	loha	metal	metal

Table 6: List of words, where possible derivation of other words, which share phonetic similarity in Chinese and Kannada

Syntactic Similarities

Considering the whole history of natural languages, most of the language hierarchies are classifies based on the syntactic resemblances. This is argued widely by many scholars in the past. So, in this paper we have provided some fundamental syntactic similarities between Chinese, Kannada and Tulu as shown in Table 2.

Chinese	Pinyin	Kannada	Kannada	Tulu	Meaning
Sentence		Sentence	Pronunciation	Pronunciation	
你吃饭了吗?	Nĭ chīfànle ma?	ನೀನು ತಿಂದಿಯಾ	Ninu thindiya?	Eeru undara	Have you eaten your meal?
你是谁?	Nǐ shì shuí?	ನೀನು ಯಾರು?	Ninu yaru?	Eeru yeru?	Who are you?

Table 7: List of sentences that share syntactic similarities between Chinese, Kannada and Tulu

Conclusion

This paper has provided a novel work about investigating phonetic and syntactic similarities between Kannada language and Chinese language. We have also included Tulu language, as it also belongs to the same hierarchy as Kannada language, which shares some similarities with Chinese. We have shown various ways to prove our argument by listing the words which represent objects, verbs, as well as adverbs. We have also shown examples to prove how Chinese language may have influenced some Kannada words as root words. The current evidence only list some similarities rather than proving what language influenced what or which language derived from which. Answering these questions is beyond the scope of this paper.

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It is not an easy task to provide more evidence to further prove the resemblances between the two languages as such research requires two fundamental skills. Firstly, the understanding of language development in the past centuries, starting form at least 2000 years before since the spreading of Buddhism to China from India. Secondly, high expertise in both languages, in this case Kannada, and Chinese, and finally, analyzing the historical relationships, shared between both China and India. However, it is hard to find such experts in this contemporary world, or at least at this moment. In spite of the difficulties, we can derive some preliminary conclusions based on our observation. Firstly, most of the words are related to worship or prayer. We speculate that this might have happened during the spreading of Buddhism to China from India. For example, words such as Jasmine, taking shower, prayer, and washing hands so on, relates to various prayer rituals. So, there may be some historical links between these two countries that contributes to these similarities. However, current evidence is not enough to define which language derived what, or what contributed to first. As we mentioned in the beginning, as Chinese still use traditional characters to represent objects (such as wheel), it is hard to provide evidence whether some Chinese words influenced Kannada or vice-versa. Further study is needed on this area.

In conclusion, we strongly believe that, this work open up numerous possibilities for studies on Indian as well as Chinese language, and opens up more possibilities for further research. In addition, we also strongly believe that, this is the first attempt which sheds some light on contemporary languages of China and India.

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MEDIA STUDIES

Discourse Markers in the Editorial and Opinion Sections of Philippine Newspapers and Singaporean Newspapers

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Abstract

The study examines the types of discourse markers most predominantly use in Philippine and Singaporean newspapers. Discourse markers are indicators or cues that determine how a reader will interpret the written text or utterance. The present study uses Fraser's 1999 taxonomy of discourse markers (DMs) categories. Thirty editorial and opinion articles of newspapers were collected online and were analyzed. The findings of the study reveal that the most frequently used discourse markers are the elaborative DMs followed by contrastive DMs in both newspapers. The most commonly used elaborative DMs in both newspapers is 'and'. On the other hand, topic relating DMs is not employed in both Singaporean and Philippine newspaper. One possible reason for this is on the function of this kind of DM which is quite personal and is mostly used in oral discourse. As a whole, this study has a considerable implication in the kind of discourse markers that newspaper writers need to be exposed into given their different areas in newspaper writing.

Keywords: Discourse markers, Editorial Section, Opinion Section, Newspaper writing

Introduction

Discourse markers play a major role in the interpretation of the text by signalling coherence relations. They are indicators or procedures that determine how the reader will interpret the written text or utterance. Also, they give cues to allow the reader to get the writer's meaning of a given text (Blakemore, 2002). The language of newspaper discourse is quite important since the writer's purpose is to present the news of the day and to inform and lead public opinion. People search for information and knowledge. They are after the truth, which they believe they can get from newspaper.

According to Martinez (2004), one hindrance of successful communication is the lack of discourse markers or their inappropriate use. Newspaper writers must learn to signal the relations of texts to those which precede and follow. Newspaper writing is viewed as a demanding task. Being able to produce grammatically correct sentences and being able to connect or link it with phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs are important. Similarly, awareness of how discourse is created and used is also of great importance. Thus, awareness of discourse markers (DMs) can somehow contribute to the quality of discourse. Rahimi (2011) points out that DMs constitute an essential component of communicative competence.

Moreover, newspaper editorials are vehicles of communication that are accessible to varied group of readers. The editors' language uses and styles affect their readers' opinions, approval, or disapproval of issues being tackled. In this connection, editorials and opinions are also rich corpora for pragmatic and discourse analyses.

Newspaper writing has been the subject of researches on systemic functional language theory, content, context, and readership, and style constraints. Some of the studies were analyzed by the following researchers: Wainwright (1982), Fraser (1990), Hicks (1993), Pulido (2011), Taboada (2005), Dayag (1997, 2004b), Ansari and Babaii (2005), and Scollon (2000).

This study aims to identify and investigate the use of discourse markers in the editorial sections of Philippine and Singaporean newspapers under the framework of Fraser's 1999 Taxonomy List of Discourse Markers. There are only a few studies made on discourse analyses on newspaper editorials compared with academic written discourse. The newspaper discourse is quite interesting since the writer is trying to convince different anonymous readers who may or may not share the writer's point of view. According to Al-Jarrah (2011), in the majority of people's lives, interacting with newspaper discourse is somehow affected by the content of the newspaper. In addition, newspaper editorials are legitimate sources of pragmatic and discourse research since the texts were written with the intention of communication using various frameworks (Pulido, 2011).

Review of the Literature

Since the 1980's, discourse markers have been studied and analyzed in a variety of languages and examined in a variety of genres and interactive contexts (Li Feng, 2010; Modhish, 2012). Discourse markers according to Taboada (2005) are the most frequently studied markers signalling coherence relations. These are among the terms used: coherence markers, discourse markers, lexical markers, discourse operators, discourse connectives, pragmatic connectives, sentence connectives, cue phrases, clue words, and discourse signalling devices. Although different researchers (Blakemore, 2002; Fraser, 1999; Halliday & Hasan, 1976, 1985; Schiffrin, 1987) have their own definition of a discourse marker, they agreed with the functions of DMs: to connect, to link, and to signal, to relate words, sentences and utterances in a text. Thus, discourse markers play a major role in the interpretation of the text.

Previous studies have looked into the functions of discourse markers. Most groups of studies have examined the discourse markers in the students' writing. Another group of studies have investigated the newspaper discourse.

In the study of Modhish (2012), it is shown that the most frequently used discourse markers by Yemeni EFL learners in their composition writings are the elaborative ones, followed by the inferential, contrastive, causative and topic relating discourse markers. Likewise, Martinez (2004) investigated the use of DMs in the compositions of Spanish undergraduates that the elaborative markers were the most frequently used, followed by contrastive markers. Similarly, Rahimi's (2011) study showed that elaborative DMs were the most frequently used cohesive device in both argumentative and expository texts. On the other hand, contrastive and conclusive markers were used more frequently in argumentative than in expository essay as revealed in the study of Rahimi. The results, nonetheless, showed that the use of discourse markers cannot be a significant predictor of the writing quality in argumentative and expository compositions of Iranian undergraduate EFL students.

Jalilifar (2008), following Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of DMs, investigated DMs in descriptive compositions of 90 junior and senior Iranian EFL students. Findings showed that elaborative markers were the most frequently used, followed by inferential, contrastive, causative, and topic relating markers. In a related study, De Ramos (2010) used Hyland and Tse's Taxonomy of Textual and Interpersonal Metadiscourse (2004) and Halliday and Hasan's (1976) concept of cohesion. Results revealed that the students from the College of Engineering who are required to write a descriptive research paper use the logical connectives of addition and contrast more than they use the other types of discourse markers.

Furthermore, the results of Al-Jarrah (2011) revealed that Arabic newspaper discourse clearly marks clause relations especially subordinating clauses, and that discourse markers are mainly used to mark the relationships of contrast between and among propositions in this type of

discourse. This supports what Halliday and Hasan (1976) calls as discourse markers that involve the use of formal markers to relate sentences, clauses and paragraphs to each other. In addition, they can signal a discourse relationship or signal a writer's attitude. Also, Dayag (2004b) had a manifestation that the information used in the editorial texts utilized discourse framework. On the other hand, Ansari and Babaii (2005) used discourse markers, new lexical references, and meta-textual signals as boundary indicators when they pilot-tested the classification of global elements on editorials.

The findings in the paper of Pulido (2011) indicate that Philippine English editorials have a macro-structure. Analysis of each macro-structure revealed that editorials do have obligatory elements that require the use newspaper discourse. It also presented implications with regard to the use of editorials in composition pedagogy.

Scollon (2000) studied the Chinese and English editions of the People's Daily and China Daily and stated that there is a generic differentiation among the three editions of the newspapers. This has an implication on the use of caution when contrasting discourse structures among newspapers. Newspaper discourse is an important variety of media discourse. This type of discourse, in fact, covers a wide variety of heterogeneous mode of written communication.

As a whole, the different studies strengthen the idea that discourse markers are important because they help the readers understand the text better. Also, discourse markers are very important variety of discourse analysis especially in media because they cover a mode of written communication. For example, in newspaper according to Reah, 1998 (as cited in Al-Jarrah, 2011, 212), a reader may encounter 'news, comment, analysis, advertising, entertainment'.

On the other hand, after analyzing Fraser's (1999) classification, it is noted that there is a discourse marker which is not in the elaborative DMs category which we consider should be included as it signals a relationship between segments.

Consequently, this paper is designed to explore the types of discourse markers writers most predominantly use in Philippine and Singaporean newspapers.

Research Questions

- 1. What types of discourse markers are evident in the editorial and opinion sections of Philippine newspapers and Singaporean newspapers?
- 2. Is there any difference between the discourse marker types used by the *Philippine Newspapers* from those used by the *Singaporean Newspapers*?

Methodology

Data

Thirty editorial and opinion articles were collected from the online versions of *The Philippine Newspapers* and the *Singaporean Newspapers*, the leading newspapers written in English. The articles focus on the education system issues dated 2012-2013.

Procedure

Fifteen articles of *Philippine Newspapers* and fifteen articles of *Singaporean Newspapers* were downloaded from the internet. The copies of the editorial and opinion articles were then printed and subjected to the analysis of discourse markers using Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of discourse markers. The discourse markers in all articles about education system from the *Philippine*

Newspapers editorial and opinion sections were carefully compared to Singaporean Newspapers.

Data Analysis

For the first question, data were analyzed using Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of discourse markers. A frequency count was done to determine the number of times a discourse marker appeared in the editorial and opinion sections of Philippine newspapers and *Singaporean Newspapers*. Then the frequencies were turned into percentages to have a clearer picture of the use of individual discourse marker employed.

To answer the second question, the discourse markers were analyzed according to the functions that they employ in the given sentences where they were noted. The function of each discourse category was done based from taxonomy of discourse markers by Fraser (1999).

Theoretical Framework of the Study

The present study uses Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of discourse markers (DMs) categories. This taxonomy is mainly used for the classification of written discourse. This seems to be the most comprehensive classification in written discourse (Rahimi, 2011). According to Fraser (1999), DMs are defined as a pragmatic class, lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbials, and prepositional phrases. With certain exceptions, they signal a relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1. They have a core meaning, which is procedural, not conceptual, and their more specific interpretation is 'negotiated' by the context, both linguistic and conceptual. Fraser's (1999) taxonomy includes seven main subclasses. These subcategories are presented below:

Category and Function	Examples
Elaborative DMs Signal a quasiparallel relationship between S2 and S1	And, Also, Moreover, In addition, Besides, Furthermore, Above all, Better yet, I mean, In particular, Namely, Equally, Likewise, Similarly, Well, Otherwise, Correspondingly, What is more, More to the, Point, On top of it all
Contrastive DMs Signal that the explicit interpretation of S2 contrasts with an interpretation of S1	Thus, Hence, So, In contrast, Whereas, In comparison, (Al)though, Instead of, Rather than On the other hand, Despite this/that, In spite of, Nevertheless, Nonetheless On the contrary, Contrary to this/that, Conversely
Inferential DMs	Thus, Hence, So, Therefore, Of course, Accordingly, As a consequence, As a logical

Fraser's (1999) Taxonomy of discourse markers

Signal that S2 is to be taken as a conclusion based on S1	conclusion, As a result, Because of this/that, Hence, Thus, In this/that case, Then, Under these/those conditions, Consequently, All things considered
	In sum, In conclusion, To sum up
Conclusive DMs Signal that there is a conclusion between the content of S2 and S1	Because, Since, Due to, After all, For this/that reason
Reason or Causative DMs Specify that S2 provide a reason for the content presented in S1	For example, Such as, For instance
Exemplifier DMs Signal that the content of S2 is to be taken as a concretion or example of a previous generalization	Back to my original point, Before I forget, By the way, Incidentally, Just to update you, On a different note, Speaking of X, That
Topic relating DMs Relate topics	reminds me, To change to topic, To return to my point, While I think of you, With regards

Results and Discussion

The results showed that editorial and opinion section of Philippine and Singaporean newspapers made use of almost all types discourse markers (elaborative, contrastive, inferential, conclusive, causative and exemplifier) except topic relating DM.

Research Question 1: What types of discourse markers are evident in the editorial and opinion sections of Philippine newspapers and Singaporean newspapers?

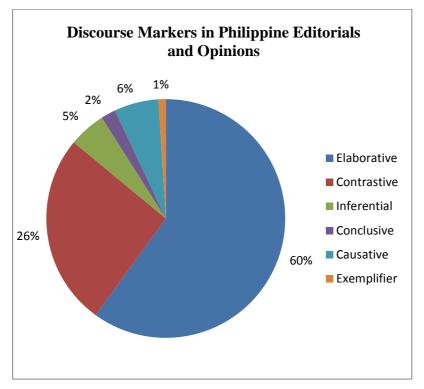
Table 1 shows the comparative results of discourse markers frequency uses and their respective percentages for both newspapers.

Discourse Markers Total	Philippiı	ne Newspapers	Singaporean	Newspapers
	F %	F %	F %	
Elaborative DMs	123(60%)	221 (68%)	= 344 (65%)	
Contrastive DMs	53(26%)	57 (17%)	= 110 (21%)	
Inferential DMs	10 (5%)	21 (7%)	= 31 (6%)	
Conclusive DMs	4 (2%)	3 (1%)	= 7(1%)	
Reason/Causative D	OMs 11(6%)	5 (2%)	= 16 (3%)	
Exemplifier DMs	3(1%)	15 (5%)	= 18 (4%)	
Topic Relating DMs	. 0	0	= 0	
Total	204	322	= 522	

Table 1: Types of Discourse Markers in the Editorial and Opinion Sections of Philippine

 Newspapers and Singaporean Newspapers





Research Question No. 2 Is there any difference between the discourse marker types used by the *Philippine Newspapers* from those used by the *Singaporean Newspapers*?

Philippine Newspaper Editorials and Opinions

The editorials extracted from both Philippine Daily Inquirer and Philippine Star were issues regarding the K to 12 curriculum. Among other issues, the K to 12 curriculum was chosen because of its opinionated and argumentative nature. The results showed that Philippine

Newspaper editorials employed discourse markers such as identified under Fraser's taxonomy of discourse markers (1999). The most commonly used were elaborative and contrastive discourse markers. Out of 204 marked markers, 60% were elaborative while contrastive ranked second with 26% in percentage. Inferential and Causative DMs shared 10%-11% respectively, while conclusive and exemplifier DMs had 4% and 3%. Remarkably, there was no topic relating DMs used in the editorials. The three most commonly marked DMs were <u>and</u> (112 out of 204), <u>but</u> (31 out of 204), and <u>however</u> (11 out of 204).

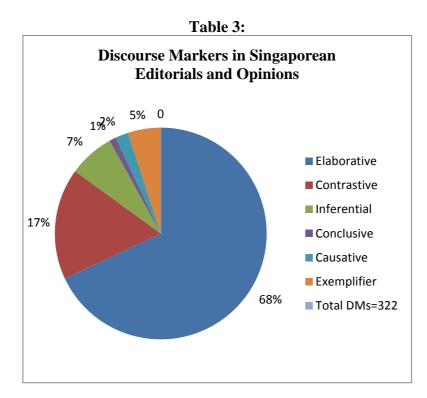
In newspaper writing, writers use discourse markers as linguistic units to link previously written sentences with new ones. In addition, the kind of discourse markers that writers employ will reveal the logical link between the previous sentences and the new ones. As an example, consider the excerpts below.

Excerpts from the Philippine Newspaper Editorials

- a) The K + 12 program in itself is a strategic step in the correct direction. The purpose is commendable and the government's aggressiveness in pushing for its implementation is a bold action, designed to attain long-range goals, which are essential to our total socio-economic development as an emerging tiger economy in Asia. But there is a major, major error that may cause a very serious labor problem.
- *b)* As a result, they will be equipped with the skills needed for a specific job even without a college degree. At the age of 18, the age when they graduate from high school, they will be employable and competitive already. Thus, adding up to the nation's manpower.
- c) However, it is undeniable that there seems to be problems arising as we implement the program such as lack of government budget, classrooms and school supplies as well as the teachers. But, if we focus on the long- term effect of K-12, we can conclude that it is very beneficial to us Filipinos. Therefore, we must have the strong will in supporting K-12 Educational Plan for the betterment of our education.
- d) I am not against giving Filipino students all the tools they need to enable them to become employable and productive individuals at age 18 (for that will be the age of most students who will be graduating in the new system) and to be at par with their peers from overseas. However, this is not a race and I believe we also have to consider our national situation.

Singaporean Newspaper Editorials and Opinions

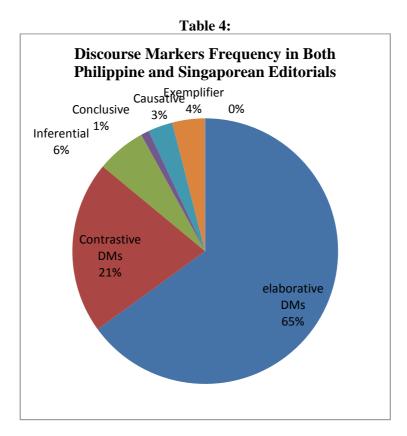
The editorial articles were extracted from Today and The Straits Times, the two leading Singaporean newspapers in English. Similarly, we chose editorials about education related issues for comparative analysis.



As shown in the pie chart, Singaporean newspapers employed DMs heavily on their Newspaper Editorials and Opinions. Topping the list were the elaborative markers which accounted for 68% out of the total 322 DMs while contrastive markers ranked second with 17%. Inferential and Exemplifier DMs shared almost the same frequency with 7% and 5% respectively. There was a marginal use of causative and conclusive DMs that only registered 1% -2%. Topic relating DMs were not used in the editorials, however, there were other markers or connectives observed such as *unfortunately, even if, firstly, especially, clearly, as for*, and *more importantly*. The most frequently used markers were *and* and *but*. The heavy reliance on the use of *and* as elaborative markers or they are reluctant to use them due to fear of making errors. That is, they would prefer to use the ones they know for certain that they would use them correctly and appropriately. This phenomenon is referred to in the literature as avoidance which characterizes the linguistic behavior of some L2 users. See excerpts below.

Excerpts from the Singaporean Newspaper Editorials

- a) The impact of this is difficult to measure because government statistics do not allow for a comparison of the fate of this year's graduates with their immediate predecessors, instead lumping all college graduates under 25 into one group. And, certainly, college graduates as a whole are doing vastly better than those with only a high school degree.
- b) In the past 50 years, our understanding of the world has grown by leaps and bounds, whether it is in biology, physics, chemistry or medicine. And it is not just the breadth of knowledge that we have to concern ourselves with, but the depth of the various topics, as well.
- c) Granted, nature without proper nurturing will not bring out a child's full potential. Nonetheless, children have varying levels of intellect and natural ability. And very often, anxiety arises when parents of children with differing abilities come together and share ideas.



As a summary, table 4 shows that both Philippine newspapers and Singaporean newspapers employ discourse markers such as under 1999 Fraser's taxonomy list in their editorials. The similarities observed were both editorials frequently used elaborative and contrastive DMs among other sub-categories. Elaborative markers were the most frequently employed with over 60% followed by contrastive. The same results are also revealed in the study of some researchers (Rahimi, 2011; Modhish, 2010). Also, the elaborative DMs and contrastive DMs but, were the most commonly used. Remarkably, topic relating DMs were not also employed for both. However, the contrasts identified were on the frequency usage and other markers used in both editorials. Significantly, Singaporean newspapers used DMs more frequently than the Philippine newspapers. It can seen that the correlation of newspaper editorial writing with what Martinez (2004) mentioned in her paper has the tendency to use elaborative markers extensively is explained by the fact that expository writing in general requires elaboration of ideas which depends on the use of quasi parallel relationships between segments which are signaled by elaborative markers. Martinez (2004) also added at the same time that it is also possible that the limited use of the other DMs, especially inferential and topic relating markers, which were least used, reveals a weak area requiring more attention in teaching English as a foreign language.

Aside from the fact that editorials are opinionated and argumentative in nature, they also have rhetorical and linguistic features that maybe categorized and distinguished. As for classroom applications, students may be taught how to write argumentative writings using discourse markers. Teachers may lead them to make their own editorials and express their own opinions about certain issues. Proper usage of discourse markers is an aid in summarizing, integrating and paraphrasing ideas in both academic and editorial writings.

Conclusion

A good writing is not only grammatical but also cohesive and coherent. The above analysis tells us that due to lack of discourse markers or misuse of discourse markers, the writers' articles can become less cohesive and less coherent. The preference/choice for particular discourse marker types and categories to use can be based on the linguistic awareness, kind of topic and text and that the writers will be writing.

In the analyses of discourse markers, it is found out that Philippine newspapers and Singaporean newspapers employ discourse markers in the editorial and opinion sections. DMs under Fraser's taxonomy list were used except for topic relating DMs. Causative, conclusive, inferential and exemplifier DMs were marginally used. There was a high frequency use of elaborative and contrastive markers for both newspapers. However, Singaporean newspaper editorials registered a higher frequency usage of DMs compared with Philippine editorials. The elaborative <u>and</u> and contrastive <u>but</u> were the commonly used markers. On the other hand, topic relating DMs is not employed in both Singaporean and Philippine newspaper. One possible reason for this result is on the function of this DM that is somehow personal and is mostly used in oral discourse. This somehow implies a separate analysis of oral and written discourse. Furthermore, there are other signal words, adverbials, and other markers based from their functions.

Moreover, some of the strategies that the writer can do to make sure that he is prepared as well as well-trained to employ the choice of the appropriate discourse markers are: attend trainings and seminars in newspaper writing; read and analyze type of texts especially expository texts. Through these strategies, writers will be aware of the functions of certain discourse markers categories. Also, writers will explore more available examples of discourse marker types other than those that they use frequently. DMs are devices which contribute to the integrity of discourse (Schiffrin, 1987).Hence, to be a good writer, one must be a good reader.

Finally, discourse markers should be paid some attention when reading and writing various text types especially newspaper. Thus, comparison of newspapers editorials (providing background information, argumentation, addressing an issue) written in different World Englishes should also be the subject of research. This study has a considerable implication in the kinds/types of oral and written discourse markers that newspaper writers need to be exposed into given their different areas in newspaper writing.

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Abstract

The advancement of technology in internet leads to the existence of a new product in journalism world; that is online news portal. The emergence of this new media is parallel with the advancement of the even smarter audience who becomes dynamics in searching information in mass media.

The number of online news portal in Indonesia which keeps increasing leads to tougher competition in the industry of online news portal. Online media keeps trying to win the heart of the audience by presenting information that can meet the need of the audience. The audience's satisfaction on the presentation of the information offered by online news portal became the basis of the research to study the level of existing competition.

By using a theory of superiority, the writer tries to study the audience's motif in accessing online news portal besides their satisfaction on the fulfillment of that motif. This research, will expose the level of superiority among online news portals based on audience's satisfaction.

Keywords : Online media, news portal, internet, uses and gratifications, superiority

Preface

Mass media industry in Indonesia has gone far since independence struggle. It started as independence drive, which then affiliated to political party in 1965, to the era when it became promising industry in 1980's (Nugroho et. al, 2012; Sen & Hill, 2000; Hill, 1994).

Mass media competition reached its momentum when industrial atmosphere was heart felt there. There are more players to try making money here besides their eagerness to feel the reformation era in the freedom of media atmosphere. Mass media is not only a means of spreading the information to the society; but it has also turned out to be industrial field which is not void from making profit or suffering from loss. This leads to common practice of diversification, expansion, merger and aquisition in mass media business (Nugroho et. al., 2012).

There are many conglomerates who try their fortune to invest in media. The players in media industry are dominated by media tycoon who contribute in leading the media to become industry. Some of those great players in Indonesia are Kompas Gramedia Group (KKG), Global Mediacom (MNC), Visi Media Asia (Viva Group), CT Corp and many more. A media conglomerate does not only one business in media but has also expanded to other media businesses in the form of holding company to create a successful media unit (Sendjaja, 1993; Nugroho, 2012; Devereux, 2003; Lawson-Borders, 2006).

The most popular media in Indonesia are affiliated in one business group which have diversification in particular media. Kompas Gramedia (KKG), for example which has "representative" in each particular media, ranging from television (Kompas TV), radio

(Jaringan Sonora), printed media (Kompas, Tribun, Gramedia Majalah), online media (Kompas.com), even goes far from media business such as property/construction, bookstore chain, hotel chain, manufacture, event organizer and universities. A cross ownership of this kind of media will influence the competition among other media businesses.

Another interesting concept is media specialization. Cable TV is present to serve the customer with a particular need, such as the one who only wants to watch films, fashion only; this is very much driven by a moderate subscription price with wide range of choices. Radio, is too more segmented, Female Radio, for example only serves the need of music and information for female listeners, or Dangdut TPI Radio which focuses dangdut enthusiasts in Indonesia. Audience is too, more fragmented and personalized to make up a niche marketing (Baran, 2007).

Soon after the era of press freedom and local government autonomy are enacted, it is clearly visible that media business sweals. According to Sandjaja (1993:59) the competition among the media takes place in Indonesia. It is clearly seen from the number of mass media which keeps increasing from time to time. In 2005, there were only 831 registered radio stations (Laksmi & Haryanto, 2007), there were then 248 stations in 20101 (Media Scene, 2011). From that number, 774 are affiliated into PRSSNI (The Organization of national private radio station of Indonesia). Another broadcasting media, television which is a mass media with 68% advertisement share in 2008 is very interesting for businessmen. 10 terrestrial TV (free to air) with national coverage, RCTI, Global TV and MNC TV are affiliated into MNC; Trans 7 and Trans TV are affiliated into CT Corp; Indosiar and SCTV belong to EMTEK, while TV One and ANTV are under Visi Media Asia Group. These exclude tens of local televisions (Nugroho et.al., 2012). The number of daily papers also keep increasing; although is is not significant. In 2006, there were 889 printed media which kept increasing to reach 1.076 number of daily paper's names in 2010 (Lim, 2011).

Competition, then, can be regarded as the competiton to win the marketing share of printed media readers, listeners for radio and watchers for TV. The convergence of media, then eliminates the border of competition, because it is now that media industry graps the same market share, the customers, either readers, listeners or watchers.

The Competition on Online News Portal

It cannot be ignored that with the development of internet, which is followed by new mass media embedded to it, it undergoes exponential development. Based on data collected by World Bank, there were 9.9% out of 100 persons, which was equal to 23.7 million population used internet in Indonesia. That figure has been soaring in the past 10 years; the same resource revealed that in 1998, there were only 0.26% out of 100 people used internet in Indonesia.

The data generated by the Ministry of Communication and Informatics are not less interesting. People accessing world wide web in Indonesia to date is estimated to reach 45 million. Other figures can be seen in internetworldstats .com. It reveals that the internet users in Indonesia by 2011 reached 55 million with the penetration figure at 22.4%.

Teenagers and young adult make up active online users, more than their peers who watch television. In UK, 45% teenagers aged 12-17 years old choose using online medium compared to 38% of people who watch TV (Cakram Magazine, 2007: 30-31). While in the

US, the percentage is big enough, that is 76% teenagers choose to use internet to search information (Lenhart, Madden, & Hitlin, 2005). The majority of internet users in Indonesia are aged between 21-24 years with 16.17% percentage (Effective Measure in vivanews.com, accessed on 25 April 2012).

The development of internet in the world and in Indonesia also influences new media in spreading the information. The information flow is not only dominated by mainstream lines. News portal becomes information provider which is in now, it is in paralel with the vast development of technology and surely virtual world in it. This online media used to barely have enthusiasts as stated by Malhotra in Salwen et.al. (2005: ix) that computers were excluded from being a means of communication. However, this new market niche becomes the target of media conglomerate to play their fortune in.

Jim Hall (2001: 16) estimated that there would be more people in developing countries accessing news from internet media compared to another means, that is daily paper. Hall also estimated that 9 or 10 global media companies would win a lion's share (oligopoly) of the global market. Hall mentioned Yahoo, as an example of a leading online company in 2000's, which gained US \$86 million in the first three months of its establishment in 1999.

The development of internet business in Indonesia has gained its new momentum after 15 years struggling to gain its market share and existence in this ever changing world. In this mass media business, detikcom can be said as a trendsetter against the mainstream by offering speed in broadcasting the news and meeting the need of its audience on instant news in this global era. Detikcom has become a symbol of the development of a new economy which thrives into soaring business. No wonder that this media the address of which is in Warung Buncit, South Jakarta, has had its 100% of US\$60 shares bought by CT Corp (a group business owned by Chairul Tanjung). The purchase of Detikcom had become a culture shock in online business. There were then some businessmen in traditional fields who started their fortune in internet web and started to establish or buy dot.com companies. This is related to data from Effective Measure that 67% of internet users' motif is to search for information (vivanews.com, accessed on 25 April 2012).

Citing Alexa.com, a web which has collected database on internet sites in the world, including their statistics since 1996; it was noted that detik.com, kompas.com, vivanews.com, okezone.com and tempo.co, belong to news portal sites with the five highest reach and pageview in Indonesia.



Figure 1: The Reach of 5 News Portal in Indonesia

Source: alexa.com, accessed on 5 June, 2012

Based on the data at the Figure 1 above, it is seen that the competition among online news portal is harsh. The reach margin (the estimation of news sites viewers worldwide) gained by those five news portals is not significanly different. It is indeed that Detik is still the front runner in the competition with the highest reach gain, however kompas.com and vivanews.com keep come closer, and there is possibility for them both to surpass detik and take over the leading position. This harsh competition also influences the share of niche market of advertisement in virtual world. The last report shows that the profit gain enjoyed by Google was soaring into 70% which sends a signal that there is possibility to make money by selling online advertisement (Cakram Magazine, 2007:36). This view is also reaffirmed by other data which reveals that online consummers are easy targets for marketers. It is because the internet users in Indonesia are a society group with high purchasing power; 46% of the users gain salary more than IDR 3 million/month, and 11% gain more than IDR 10 million/month (Cakram Magazine, 2007:34). Internet advertisement trade in Indonesia itself is expected to rise by 15 %¹ figure in 2011.

Besides in advertisement, the competition among the mass media to gain more consumers becomes tougher paralel with the shift of consumers' need. The changing which takes place in the consumers is especially due to their interest and need. The shift of lifestyle, education, income or specific interest very much influence the media content. In regard this condition, the readers play a pivotal role because the readers are making up one pilar basis to support online news industry.

Media audience with internet basis is then not considered as a specific community but is seen more as having global characteristics (Shaw, 2000). The existence of readers is not only seen as the object of the news, article and many different information which are planned to be delivered by media managers. They are not passive people either, but they are decisive news portal absorbtion toward crossed news; even they play a very importan role in deciding the life or mortality of a news portal.

It is a must for a media to decide a clear market segment so that it can be accepted by its readers. The news portal keeps developing into narrower diversed segment. There are emergences of different online news media, ranging from entertainment news, health, automotive, sport etc which make the online media colourful at present. A little bit different from printed media or broadcasting with limited space and time, online media tends to offer contents to satisfy different segment of societies. Sub online media portal are made to meet the different need of different segment of society. Most of the different segments can be found in online news portal, ranging from lifestyle, celebrities info, property, business, health, etc.

Audience becomes very important because they are the target who are supposed to consume the product of a media. The role of audience in online news portal, is especially related to the level of customers' satisfaction in using a media. This satisfaction level is then seen based on

¹ Online media advertisement spending is estimated to rise by 10% <u>http://www.tempo.co/read/news/2011/02/27/090316365/br-br-Belanja-Iklan-Media-Online-Diperkirakan-Naik-10-Persen</u> accessed on June 1, 2012

someone's motif in accessing online news portal. The audience's satisfaction can be seen from two different aspects, that is the motif of searching the satisfaction (*Gratification Sought*) and the satisfaction obtained (*Gratification Obtained*). The model of searching the satisfaction and satisfaction obtained have been far revealed by Palmgreen and Raybun (in McQuail, 1995:75) who stated that attitude was resulted from trust and values that were obtained by customers. This model is labeled as expectancy-value.

The result of analysing the comparason level in searcing the satisfaction and the fullfilment of that satisfation are then used by Dimmick (2003) as the basis to measure the superiority between a media toward another media. Starting from this superiority measurement, it can be then decided which media is more superior; in this case one news portal toward another news portal. Someone's satisfaction upon a media is different one another, depending on one's need, one's belief and prior trust owned by each individual of people. The difference of satisfaction also varies due to the different effort by the media to cater with what is expected by the people to satisfy them.

Regarding the hustle bustle of online mass media being explained previously, the writer tries to focus on seeing the competition among online news portal Detik.com, Okezone.com, Kompas.com, Tempo.co, Republika.co.id, Mediaindonesia.com and Vivanews.com. This selection is based on internet sites rank by alexa.com. Finally, the writer pose a research question as follows, how is the superiority level on those seven online media?

Media Superiority

Hawley (1950:11) defined ecology as a science which studies the relation among the living beings and their environment which supplies their whole basic needs in proper quantities. Dimmick and Rothenbuher (1984:104) stated that ecology is close to bioecology of plants, animals and their groups. The application of the bioecology concept to social sciences is not new. In the earliy 1920's socialscientists applied Sociology concepts to social sciences.

Sumarwoto in Sendjaja (1993:58) emphasized that the problem existed in ecology was the reciprocal relation among the livingbeings and their environment. When this concept is applied in mass media, say 'media ecology'; ecology is used to explain the reciprocal relation among the mass media and their live-supporting environment. (Sendjaja, 1993:58).

The concept of ecology when it is applied in media industry will talks about media competition, either in a single similar population or a bigger population in a business in the effort to survive. Media industry itself has developed vast, such as media industry population which consists of television, radio, printed media, film and online media. This makes the competition become layered, the competition among the media population and the competition among the members of the population.

To measure the level of media competition, that is the media superiority between a media and another media in one population Dimmick et al (1985: 13-14) offered a formula known as competitive superiority. This formula was designed to answer, between pair of media which are measured, which one can fulfill bigger need (gratification utility) (Dimmick, 2003: 80). A media which gains a bigger satisfaction point compared to the other one will become a superior media in fulfilling the audience's satisfaction. The concept on competitive superiority is confirmed by Gause's opinion (in Dimmick, 2003: 38) as follows:

"the populations that survived were those which were competitively superior"

Competitive superiority falls into two measurements, that are Superiority Direction dan Superiority Magnitude. Superiority Direction (SD) is used to read the frequency or the number of the respondents who are satisfied with the online media i>j and online media j>i. It can be simplified that this superiority directionis used to read the number of media frequency which is superior between a pair of media. The measurement is done by comparing between media I which has a bigger frequency than media j, with media frequency I is the same with media j. The total comparison is then compared again to a number of samples. While Superiority Magnitude (SM) reads the number of score or the value of the satisfaction level of the respondents to the media. It is by measuring the number of frequency media i is bigger than media i, compared to the number of score when media i is bigger than media i. The measurement formula of Superiority Direction and Superiority Magnitude is as follows:

Superiority Direction

$$Sd \ i > j = \frac{\sum_{r=1}^{N} di > j}{N} \qquad \qquad Sd \ i > j = \frac{\sum_{r=1}^{N} (di > j)}{N}$$

If:

$$di > j = \frac{fr_{i>j}}{fr_{i=j,\geq 1}}$$

Remarks

: individual respondent r

i and j : medium

: the number of respondent who use i and j Ν

fr i>j : frequency item GO in a dimension when a respondent choose media i>j

Superiority Magnitude

$$Sm \ i > j = \frac{\sum_{r=1}^{N} mi > j}{N} \qquad Sm \ i > j = \frac{\sum_{r=1}^{N} (mi > j)}{N}$$

If:

$$m \ t > j = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{R} t > j}{e \ge 1}$$

Remarks:

k : gratification scale

Κ : the number of scale in a dimension

- i>j : the number of the value of scale difference when respondent choose media i > j
- : the number of difference between the lowest limit of the scale and the position of е scale which is chosen by the audience in a dimension when medium i = j (at least 1)

The Research Method

The research method used in this study is a descriptive one which is aimed at giving the phenomena figure being observed. Based on Nawawi (1995:64), descriptive method has two characteristics, that are (1) focusing on the problems occurring during the study (at present) or each is actual and (2) describing facts on the problems being studied as it is, besides proper interpretation. This research does not look for or describes the relation among variables, nor examining a hypothesis or make prediction (Kriyantono, 1993: 24)

Sampling Techniques

By using survey samples, a research method in which the needed information is gained from the respondents, who belong to the population and represent it. The main data collecting is done by conducting a structured interview using a questioner with closed question method. The supporting instrument for data collection in this research is based on references and other relevant and useful administrative data.

Population and Samples

Population is the total number of analysis unit whose characteristics are guessed (Singarimbun, 1995: 152). The population in this research is people who access online news portal among the students of Program Studi Ilmu Komunikasi, Universitas Atma Jaya Yogyakarta (UAJY). By using non parametric assumption, the author tries to give as much evidence as possible as the basis to choose population. The decision in determining the number of samples is based on the formula of John Curry (in Yount, 2006: 4).

Based on the data owned by the department of lecture administration, The Faculty of Social Sciences and Political Sciences, University Atma Jaya Yogyakarta, the number of the students of Communication Study in semester 2, Academic year 2011/2012 is 1.280, so the author determines the number of samples as 180 to meet the total respondents by at least 10% based on the above table. The author decides to use non probability sample (convenience sample) method where the respondents are chosen to represent the population for ease and availability (Babbie dalam Creswell, 2010: 220).

Data Analysis Technique

After the questioners are collected, they are numbered as their identity (1-180). Then each answer from the existing variables, either from Gratification Sought (GS) or Gratification Obtained (GO) is scored or added so that Gratification Sought score and Gratification Obtained score are gained. The data are then analyzed by using GO and GS measurements based of the gap between those two figures. The satisfaction gap is the difference in satisfaction gain between GO and GS score in consuming certain media. While the indicator of the presence or the absence of satisfaction gap is as follows:

- a) If mean score GS > mean score GO means there is a satisfaction gap that is the media does not satisfy the audience.
- b) If mean GS = mean GO means that there is no satisfaction gap that all the needs are satisfied.
- c) If *mean* GS < *mean* GO means that there is satisfaction gap so the media satisfies the audience.

After finding the mean gap, then whether the audience is satisfied or not is known. To answer other research questions, that is how the competition among online news portal is, then the quantification of Superiority Directory and Superiority Magnitude is done.

The Result of the Research

Superiority Direction

The quantification of Superiority Direction (SD) reading frequency or the number of respondent feeling satisfied with news portal i>j and news portal j>i. From SD quantification, it will be seen the level of competition between news portals, the smaller the figure of SD, the tougher the competition between them is. As the smaller the figure between the superior media and the inferior one, it means that the respondents feels that the comparison between

those two media in satisfying them is small. The small figure shows the tougher the competition between them.

Example of quantification:

Detik and Kompas.com fr i>j = fr detik > kompas = 60 fr j>i = fr kompas > detik = 75 fr i = j = fr detik = kompas = 45 d i>j = $\frac{fr detik > kompas}{fr detik = kompas} = \frac{60}{45} = 1,33$ d j>i = $\frac{fr kompas > detik}{fr detik = kompas} = \frac{75}{45} = 1,67$

Sd detik > kompas = $\frac{1,33}{180}$ = 0,0074 Sd kompas > detik = $\frac{1,67}{180}$ = 0,0093

Perhitungan Superior Direction

The complete figure for superiority direction of 7 online news portals can be seen in the following table:

	Detik.co m	Kompas.co m	Vivanews.co m	Okezone.co m	Tempo.co	Mediaindonesia.co m	Republika.co.i d
Detik.com		0,0093	0,0084	0,0073	0,0085	0,0167	0,0056
Kompas.com	0,0074		0,0065	0,0065	0,0050	0,0056	0,0037
Vivanews.com	0,0230	0,0203		0,0061	0,0119	0,0071	0,0042
Okezone.com	0,0326	0,0314	0,0116		0,0095	0,0077	0,0039
Tempo.co	0,0526	0,0894	0,0280	0,0172		0,0034	0,0014
Mediaindonesia.co m	0,1444	0,1000	0,0349	0,0252	0,0086		0,0011*
Republika.co.id	0,1139	0,1574*	0,0378	0,0341	0,0126	0,0052	

RemarksRed: the highest value in columnRed plus asteric (*): the highest value in column and tableGreen: the lowest value in columnGreen plus asteric (*): the lowest value in column and table

Based on the data in that table, it is seen that the competition between detik.com and kompas.com is tight in satisfying the audience. Those two media has score of 0.0074 which is the lowest score in column 1. While detik is assumed as no competition with mediaindonesia.com. The score between those two media is 0.144, as the largest value difference in the first column in table 4.22.

Kompas.com, once again has to compete tightly to win their readers' heart, as in the second column this pair has the smallest difference, 0.0093. the highest score in this second column exists when kompas.com is faced to republika online. The score of these two meadia is 0.1574. The score between kompas.com and republika online is the highest among all the column in table 4.22. This means the pair of kompas.com and republika online has the least competition among other media.

Vivanews.com is facing the competition with kompas.com in the effort to satisfy their audience. A tight score 0,0065 appears when these two media are paired. While vivanews relatively less in competition with republika online in satisfying their audience as the score gap is large enough, 0,0378.

Okezone competes tightly with vivanews. The score in the column shows the different score of 0,0061. While the competition in the column Okezone is relatively less tight when compared republika online. The comparison score of those two media is 0,0341.

Tempo.co in the column is seen tightly competed with kompas.com in satisfying their audience with its score is 0,0050. While Tempo.co competes relatively less tight with republika online because its score is 0,0126.

Mediaindonesia.com is considered lower by its audience when it is compared to detik.com, as it is seen in the score in the column which is 0,0167. Mediaindonesia.com tightly competes with Tempo.co, as its score shows skor 0,0034.

Lastly Republika Online competes tightly with mediaindonesia.com. even their competition is the toughest as its measurement in that table of superiority direction. The score between those two media is 0,0011. Republika online can't compete with detik.com, as its score shows 0,0056.

Superiority Magnitude

Superiority Magnitude (SM) measurement tries to know the score and value of the respondent's level of satisfaction on online news portal in Indonesia. The bigger the value in SM measurement means the more satisfying the media is. The competition among the online news portal based on respondents' satisfaction can be seen from SM measurement and SM table as follows:

An example of SM measurement:

Detik to Kompas.com

Perhitungan Superiority Magnitude

fr i > j = fr detik > kompas = 60

fr j > i = fr kompas > detik = 75

fr i = j = fr detik = kompas = 45

$$Sm i > j = \frac{\sum detik > kompas}{detik > kompas} = \frac{2444}{60} = 40,733$$

$$Sm j > i = \frac{\sum kompas > detik}{kompas > detik} = \frac{2678}{75} = 35,71$$

Sm i=j =
$$\frac{\sum detik=kompas}{detik=kompas} = = \frac{1708}{45} = 37,96$$

	Detik.com	Kompas.com	Vivanews.com	Okezone.com	Tempo.co	Mediaindonesia.com	Republika.co.id				
Detik.com		35,7067	35,5366	34,7241	34,8261	32,5000	30,7500				
Kompas.com	40,7333		37,0833	35,8148	38,3333	34,1111	36,5000				
Vivanews.com	39,3839	39,7965		34,0638	32,7660	32,2963	31,6875				
Okezone.com	39,1163	39,7615	37,3778		31,9811	31,2222	29,0625				

Tempo.co	38,9648	39,2733	37,6757	36,7708		30,6286	30,0769
Mediaindonesia.com	38,6603	39,2531	36,9621	35,9831	34,3182		28,7647
Republika.co.id	38,5305	39,0471	37,0350	35,7518	34,2155	34,0000	

Remarks:

Red: the highest value in the table

Based on the data on the table above, the author tries to rank the media which succeeds in satisfying their audience, those are:

- 1. Detik.com (40,733)
- 2. Kompas.com (39,76)
- 3. Tempo.co (38,33)
- 4. Vivanews (37,67)
- 5. Okezone.com (36,77)
- 6. Republika Online (36,5)
- 7. Mediaindonesia.com (34,11)

The Superiority of online Media Portal

Besides measuring the different score in the motive of accessing media and the satisfaction gained by the audience, this research also tries to study the superiority level among those online media. To see that difference, the author has measured the superiority direction and superiority magnitude. Based on the table of superiority direction measurement, it is seen that there is score difference between each pair of media in satisfying their audience. The superiority magnitude table also shows that there is level of superiority of those seven media in satisfying their audience. There is no difference in satisfying their audience between those two pairs of media, which is shown by the absence of score difference of superiority direction and superiority magnitude.

The author finds some other interesting data, such as:

- a) Mediaindonesia.com and Republika Online are often inferior when it is compared head to head to other five online news portal.
- b) Media online which has had historically strong basis, media group support, business becomes the factor of superior level of an online media. This research shows detik.com and kompas.com which strictly competes in satisfying their audience.

Conclusion

The analysis on research data finding leads to final conclusion. This conclusion is the core of the researcher's elaboration in handling and interpreting the data. The conclusion is as follows:

a) The media competition does not happen among the conventional media such as printed or broadcast one. The competition also significantly happens in internet-based mass media which is still relatively new. It is slightly different from the research on the competition level of conventional media, it turns out that the audience of online media hasn't been satisfied with what is offered by news portal. The audience requires higher than what is offered, either of technical matter, website performance, journalism ethics, precision, impartiality, objectivity or else the variety content being offered.

Based on that finding, it can be concluded that the audience of online news portal is individuals who have been media literate. It is proved from the level of satisfaction of online news portal audience in Indonesia which is low enough. They don't trust easily on what is offered by online news portal, and always requires a better service.

- b) The combination of less tight regulation and the significant increase of the number of internet users in Indonesia leads the emergence of online news portal in Indonesia. Each media group mostly has a division of online news. yet, the competition is still dominated by experienced players such as detik.com and kompas.com. Detik.com still becomes the first choice due to its historical record that has served Indonesia society for a long time, while kompas .com becomes main reference due to its core media's good reputation, that is *Kompas* daily paper.
- c) The characteristic of internet which is fast, dynamic, convergence and interactive proves it can't satisfy its audience. This becomes the challenges for the online news portal to identify the problems and find an innovation and improvement to be accepted better by the society.

Discussion

Based on the research findings and the conclusion of the aforementioned research, the author sees that the competition of online media is interesting to be discussed further. This discussion can be used as an alternative for the academics and people using communication science for their living to conduct further research and innovation to materialize online news portal which can really satisfy their audience's need. This is not only the need on information article, but also the credibility and quality of that article.

The audience's satisfaction on online news portal which is still low indicates that the internet as a new medium in spreading information hasn't been credible enough in offering article or news which meets the standard and journalism rules. Television media still becomes the audience's major choice in searching information due to its pervasive presence close to the audience. It's a fact that online media hasn't been able to replace the position of television is logical due to the availability of internet infrastructure in Indonesia has not yet been as good as in developed countries. The Indonesian vast geographic area which consists of thousands of islands hinders the effort in developing internet connection in Indonesia. It becomes a burden and requires a great investment.

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Abstract

The debate over whether Scotland should or should not declare independence from the United Kingdom is not a new affair, but the planned referendum on independence scheduled for September 2014 has made the issue ever more salient. This is evident from the numerous comments and opinions shared on various websites. My aim is to discover the types of arguments individual contributors make in an online debate site where they do not have the benefit of face-to-face, real-time interaction. The focus is more on content rather than pragmatics. I have chosen Debate.org as the primary source of data. Contributors post reasons and arguments for or against, the "Yes" versus the "No". I looked at the most common arguments from both sides, paraphrased them, and categorized them according to the following: facts, such as Scotland's natural resources and GDP, versus assumptions and inferences, e.g., the possibility of higher taxes or difficulties with applying for EU membership. Other arguments (along the lines of Aristotle's artistic proofs) displayed elements of emotional appeal, such as being a free nation; attack on the person, particularly criticisms directed against Alex Salmond; and moral arguments of what is right and wrong for Scotland.

Keywords: Online Debate, Independence, Scotland, Scottish National Party, United Kingdom, European Union

A Brief Look at the Scottish Independence Movement

On May, 1707 the parliaments of both English and Scotland agreed and signed to form a new combined government. ¹ Based in Westminster this new parliament would be the basis for the creation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

Although there have been periods in history when the kingdoms of the Scots and the English were previously in a state of unity, e.g. when James VI of Scotland took the English throne a century before, the union act that joined England, Scotland and Wales heralded a new era in the political history of the British isles.² Scotland has since been part of this union.

Scotland had played a crucial in the expansion of the British Empire with its many contributions including the steam engine, its shipbuilding industries, and the countless number of men and women who served in the military. Today, Scotland is an integral part of the UK's economy with its North Sea oil field and competitive labor force, among others.

The movement for independence was given new impetus during the Thatcher era in the late 1980s and has since then been on the political agenda of many Scots. The devolution of Parliament a decade later was another important step for pro-independence efforts. ³

The people of Scotland will hold a referendum on independence on September of 2014. If Scotland does officially declare independence from the United Kingdom it will not be the first in its history. With the victory of the Scotlish king, Robert the Bruce, over Edward II of England in 1314 followed by the Treaty of Edinburgh-Northampton fourteen years later Scotland had been already won its independence from its southern neighbor.⁴

The question of why calls for an independent Scotland are growing can be partially answered by looking at its glorious and bloody past, one that is very much intertwined with its neighbors. Accounts of oppression under past English rule are well-documented. Scottish heroes, with the likes of William Wallace and Robert the Bruce, who led their people against English armies during the Wars of Independence in the 13th Century⁵ are remembered in books, film, and historical sites. The contributions of notable Scots (or of Scottish heritage) such as, Alexander Fleming (1881-1955), John Logie Baird (1888-1946), David Hume (1711-1776), Alexander Graham Bell (1847-1922), Robert Burns (1759-1796), James Watt (1736-1819), Adam Smith (1723-1790), David Livingston (1813-1873)are also celebrated.⁶ And perhaps, too, looking at events over the past few decades, the creation of new sovereign states in Europe (some of whom have separated and are now EU members) further strengthens the desire for greater autonomy. Split-up-and-join-the-union bandwagon, as I would call it.

The other answer can be found in the words of ordinary Scottish. In this article, I look specifically at opinions on this debate online. Debate.org⁷ introduced the issue of "Should Scotland become an independent nation?" Participants voted either "Yes" or "No" and included their reasons or simply added comments. The results, in brief, show the most common reasons shared from both camps.

From those who voted "yes" the most common arguments referred to Scotland's natural resources and healthy GDP. Others talk about independence as a desirable thing. Some also stated that it was the right thing to do.

Among those who voted "no" argued on the probability of higher taxes and difficulties of applying for EU membership. Some questioned Alex Salmond's ability to lead an independent Scotland, while others stated that Scotland cannot stand on its own.

Approach to This Study

In his work *Rhetoric* (Kennedy, 1991), Aristotle stated that a good speaker needed three artistic proofs: logos (employing rational arguments), pathos (using emotional appeal), and ethos (the speaker's credibility). While these could be fairly applicable to my study I had to look at other concepts that could suit my purposes. Stephen Toulmin's model of argument (Toulim, 2003) proposed that an effective argument consisted of six main parts: claim (the theses statement), datum (the evidence), warrant (known logical facts that connect the first two), qualifier (proposes under which conditions the argument is true), rebuttal (counter-argument), and backing (statements that support the warrant). However, I did not find his model completely applicable since the very nature of an online debate makes it unlikely for one to use it effectively. Not that it cannot be employed but rather that since most of what participants contribute include only a few sentences, it is not enough to develop a complete argument using the said model. There are those who have written a sizable amount of words but these are rare. My main aim was to collect and classify the types of arguments being presented. Therefore, I opted to use some general concepts for which I could categorize the samples according to types of argument.

I used the simple process of extracting texts from the website, debate.org, and categorizing them according to type of argument: interpretation of facts, assumptions of the future, or emotional argument. I also distinguished between the "yes" and the "no" to see if there was a significant difference in the kinds of arguments used—or the frequency, thereof—between those who supported the status quo and those who advocated for independence. For some statements it was a bit of a challenge deciding whether the interpretations were from solid

fact or inference disguised as fact. There could also be some overlap between interpretations of fact and assumption of the future. I took 106 different quotes from the said webpage.

The "Yes" Votes Interpretation of Facts

"We get 9.3% of UK spending, but contribute 9.6% of UK

taxes. We are in a stronger financial position than the rest of the UK, to the tune of ± 510 per person last

year - that's over £1000 for each Scottish household"

"There are ten times as many folk in England. They often vote in a way we do not support. We end up getting what they chose by virtue of nothing more than mathematics."

"To think that Scotland's only means of revenue is oil and gas is ridiculous. Scotland has a diverse economic base"

"We have literally no say in the politics of our country (9% of the parliamentary MP's are Scottish) and from that you can easily show that the majority of the politicians in our country do not have Scotland at their hearts and in their best interests."

"Despite devolution, Scotland are still limited with powers due to reserved powers in Westminster which has ultimately resulted in the inability to make certain decisions."

"The Scottish parliament has a much more democratic system, which does not reserve places for church members and uses a proportional electoral system for appointing members of parliament."

"Scotland has resources which will allow Scotland to join other North European countries to have the highest living standards in Europe."

"With 86 new oil fields having been found in November with an estimated 1.5 trillion pound worth of recoverable oil there has never been a better time for the referendum to come about.

"smaller democracies work much more efficiently and reflect the people's will much better"

"our neighbours in Norway have amassed a \$300BN oil fund which underwrites their entire country, their research and their pensions...estimated £100BN price tag over the life of the replacement of Trident. Weapons of mass destruction, more important to the UK government than the kids in poverty and the hundreds of our elderly who will die this winter from the cold!!!... The estimated revenue from the North sea oil and gas alone, or the next 12 months: An estimated £40M PER DAY!! We receive £0.00 of this each year!... the UK is no longer a world super power and we have no right spending billions on policing the world while our children live in povery, our elderly die of the cold, our disabled are demeaned"

"If England wants to keep WMD they are at liberty to do so, but they won't be allowed in Scotland and we certainly cannot afford to waste money on such foolish projects."

"Scotland has a GDP of £124 billion, this excludes revenues from North Sea oil & future renewable energy output / export. The gross domestic product (GDP) of Scotland with North Sea oil included would be as much as £149 billion."

"Scotland had a current account surplus in two of the past five years (been "in the black"), and a balanced budget in one of the years...In contrast, the U.K. had an account deficit in each and every one of those same 5 years."

"Scotland contributes around £3.5bn a year but only £2.5bn of that is spent in Scotland."

"we subsidise the rest of the uk because we pay 10.8 percent of the uk's tax with only 8.8 percent of the uk's population"

"Last year Scotland paid more money into west minister than it got out"

"Denmark, Netherlands, Belgium, Norway, Switzerland and Iceland. These smaller countries are doing well"

"I believe that small countries offer better political accountability and allow government that is not so removed from the people and not concentrated in a small elite."

Assumptions of the Future

"the money will be spent in Scotland, rather than London, creating thousands of Scottish jobs"

"We also have many area's that would shine more with Independence, more exports, more agriculture, more renewable energy, more fishing industry"

"Look at other small Nations in Europe; Belgium and Denmark for example. If they can produce enough to keep a stable country then we should be able to do the same."

"Employment would be increased as a result of rebuilding our armed forces and shipbuilding would be a beneficiary of independence with Scotland's need for a navy and fishery protection element."

"If the Scottish people start charging Britain for their natural resources eg: gas, oil etc, that Britain has been enjoying at their expense in the past, the future of Scotland wil become a country of high wealth, healthcare, education, and envied by the rest of Europe and the world."

"One of the most important, removing trident from Scottish waters and hopefully resulting in the Westminster government opting not to move ahead with the replacement of this system."

"we could export our massive oil reserves and become an extremely wealthy nation...An independent Scotland would have no business in the middle east and could get the UK's Trident nuclear warheads"

"The redirection of taxpayers money from the military could help to fund many important social projects that would improve the lives of Scottish people as opposed to destroying the lives of those in the Arabian gulf unfortunate enough to be born on top of vast quantities of oil."

"Money from the oil industry for example will go straight into Scotland's economy."

"This would be beneficial because the EU will give Scotland money that before the UK would have used for services. Now both would get their own money. Scotland would also now get a more direct say in what the EU does."

"This will allow a fresh vigour to enter the entire body politic in Scotland."

Other

"England is nothing without Scotland. England is just scared they are running out of money and don't think Scotland will help them!"

"Scotland deserves a chance to be free from Great Britain"

"English are the most crafty, phony, greedy, shifty creatures god has ever created. They have been ruining our nation's spirit and roots as well as Ireland's over the last several hundred of years!"

"It's a question of self respect and maturity: a nation that doesn't want to make decisions for itself would be an object of pity and ridicule"

"Scotland's people's votes don't count in a general election - you only have to look at what government is in power at the moment to know that's true, as is said often "Scotland has more Panda's than it does Tory MP's!""

"All countries have the democratic right to govern themselves. "

"I know it was 700 years ago but if our ancestors who fought and died for our independence could see the no voters now they would be ashamed."

"There are more pandas in Scotland than Tory MSP. Why should we be dictated to by a party we have rejected for decades?"

"Also the Act of Union 1707 was never voted for by the public, the people of Scotland rioted after it was passed."

"1707 was the day England bribed Scotland into signing the Union Treaty. The common Scot did not want a Union back then & we don't want it now."

"under this Westminster administration - where millionaires earn even more money while the poor become even more poor."

"Westminster is so out of touch with the Scottish people."

"The shackles of Westminster are holding back the potential of the Scottish economy"

"Scotland under Westminster rule is simply resources"

"I am fed up with the stereotype I get down south visiting friends and family that everyone eats fried Chocolate bars or is high as a kite."

"After joining the army at the age of 16 and serving 10yrs. I have become aware that our reasons for fighting in Ireland and the gulf wars were very suspect to say the least. "

"I am 62 years old and have always supported labour and the uk.Since the tories came to power they have set about detroying the uk.They are just filling there own pockets with everybodies money"

"The only people who continually refer to Braveheart are Unionists."

"I'm tired, oh so tired, of the NO campaigns 'position' and comment - not because I don't wish them to add something to the debate (I do) but because they have said absolutely *nothing* of consequence - other than churn out fib-after-fib, scaremongering their way through the available media like a pack of delirious Private Frasers."

"we owe it to our children and future generations. Lets not saddle them with a dying UK economy, endless cuts, no welfare system whatsoever, privately run NHS, Tories and more Tories, failure and ultimately poverty and misery."

"When even the NO campaign admit this, it is only the blind followers that ignore the facts, that still claim Independence is not possible."

"Scottish children do not need to be taught they are inferior."

"Scotland must be in control of its own economy and to do so it needs control over revenues, expenditure and social policy."

The "No" Votes

Interpretation of Facts

"80% of the employment in Scotland is in the Public Sector which means that some employed in the Public Sector now, would lose their jobs"

it would have to either take on the euro as currency, It would lose its power and those visiting England would have to use their passports to emigrate."

"You think that our saving grace will be the oil and the whiskey. Open your eyes and see that those are only two industries, not enough to support a country"

"There is a gap between public spending in Scotland (£40bn) and revenue raised here (£27bn). A Scottish government would have to choose between higher taxes and cuts in public services."

"With a public spending of £40bn and a total revenue of £27bn this means if Scotland were independent they would have to gain more money which is most likely to come from higher taxes to the Scottish citizens or cuts in the public services... The Scottish economy runs at a huge deficit that is only managed due to major subsidies from the current British government."

"We live in an increasingly globalised world with several up and coming powerful players on the global economic stage (e.g. China, India etc.). Smaller and less diverse economies (and I include all constituent UK countries here) will find it much harder to compete effectively on their own."

"If we'd been independent 10 years ago we'd now be broke and living on bail-outs. Just look at RBS & BOS, two of the three worst hit British banks."

"In 2008 the British government had to bail out Royal Bank of Scotland (RBS) and HBOS, Scotland's two biggest banks. At its peak, RBS's balance sheet was 13 times Scottish GDP. Edinburgh has faltered as a financial center since, and would be hard to revive. There is a limit to how large a financial sector an independent Scotland—a new, small economy—could support."

"Look at Ireland's financial situation. That is where we will be in the years to come if we become independent."

"it doesn't have full control of its own economy and would be inexperienced when it comes to creating the stability it needs to progress forward as it has always been under the wing of a stronger leader"

"Scotland already has a lot of power, it isn't 'run by Westminster' as Alex Salmond would have you think."

"The people voting yes to Scottish independence seem to forget that of the last three Prime Ministers, TWO have been Scottish, so it's not fair at all saying that everything in Scotland is controlled by the English."

"At present, Scotland takes more from Westminster than it puts in - without the support of the UK government Scotland's economy would be in ruins."

"Over 7% of the country is currently jobless and this will only get worse. Westminster gives Scotland a rather large budget for its healthcare and other services. With only 5 million people to tax, either residents will be taxed largely or services will suffer. The UK ensures an annual budget for services and also gives Scots a chance to travel elsewhere to find jobs."

"oil reserve does not guarantee economic success, as shown by the examples in Sudan and Iran."

"Scotland 'got' £16.5bn more in UK public spending in 2009-10 than it contributed to total UK revenues - or a 'subsidy' of around £3,150 per head"

"I see it more as a scorn for the UK government in Westminster (with good reasons mind you), more so because lately our government has not provided enough care to protect the Scots' interests and local issues relative to the country of Scotland. However, these issues present can easily be addressed even with union."

Assumptions of the Future

"Scotland would not earn nearly enough money to cover the welfare system in place or any of the public sector employment."

"The oil is already drying up, in 30 years time it won't be here... Fishing, for instance, stocks already drying up"

"If it did become independent many folks would start riots, fights, etc. Everyone would want to go back to the United Kingdom, and it can't just go back to normal!"

"If Scotland gained independence, taxes would be raised, Scottish water would be sold off, services would be cut and I believe English property and assets in Scotland will be the first to be taken"

"By 2014, the u.k national debt is expected to hit around £1.4 trillion and this will mean an independent Scotland is going to be saddled with around £140 billion in debt."

"If Scotland gains independence, the newly formed country will have to make its own post service, police service, armed forces (not mentioning that if Scotland becomes independent it will lose out on the latest aircraft), as well as chose its own currency - which will most likely be the euro that is very unstable"

"If we became independent the shipyards will close which will force thousands of people out of a job."

"I believe that if Scotland became independent things would go up in price. If you sell things that are posted and most of your business is to the UK you will see a massive jump in your costs"

"We will NO LONGER be members of the EU and have to apply ourselves, we will have NO allies overseas and have no embassies in other countries"

"it will mean thousands, millions even, displaced and having to move to England to keep their jobs"

"Scotland will drop from 3rd most powerful state in Europe to 17th, behind Romania, and 7th in the world to 46th, behind Pakistan."

"In the meantime business would desert Scotland, relations with her nearest neighbours would sour, and her influence and standing in Europe would plummet. It is much better to stay in the UK and fix the problems we know about, rather than creating new and potentially terrifying problems."

"too many companies in Scotland are owned by overseas investors and are not Scottish. Higher taxation to provide better services are not justification enough and would drive many businesses out of Scoltand."

if the Scottish economy realises that they're struggling for money the first things they will likely do to prevent it from getting out of hand would be to introduce University fee's and rise taxes."

"If you get independence join the euro and your currency fails then Germany will impose austerity cuts that will cripple your way of life."

"Tourism will decrease because a lot of tourists come from the UK and the need of passports will put people off."

"Furthermore, if, god forbid, war breaks out, we would be defenceless, attempting to bring down bomber planes with old style military cannons and dog fighting a euro fighter with a kite."

"If Scotland becomes independent, then Scottish athletes will have a lower chance of winning the Olympics"

Other

"We would be poor and Alex Salmond would proclaim himself "dictator for life"

"Scotland has no other politicians that are actually smart enough for running a country by themselves"

""...Scotland being independent means more taxes and more idiots like Alex Salmond with more power, sitting sipping his Champagne to celebrate while we will have to work harder to pay for his mess and lifestyle."

"Not many countries can say that they have sat side by side for 300 hundreds years in relative peace with one another. That we can is something we should be proud of."

"The SNP have changed their mind over so many points of what independence would be like, I find it hard to put faith in them."

"it is not a matter of watching Braveheart or anything of the sort as people can't base our decisions on watching films"

"Together we can stand stronger to those that want to alter all our standing and cultures. Those individuals that want to break up the UK are doing so for their own selfish intentions, without being able to justify the real reason to people for wanting a separation. We have stood together through many wars and have come through as victors."

"The union has worked for over 3 centuries, so why end it now?"

"Alex Salmond does not care about Scotland only himself!"

"There is going to be increasing poverty levels under this party, minimum wage will be renegotiated and all this party cares about is making businesses more money, not the workers."

"The days of small independent kingdoms in Europe are long over, Scotland's only way to thrive and be a significant force on the world scene is as a part of the UK. You are Scottish, but you are also British."

"Alex Salmond is a joke and his party is a joke. He claims to speak on 'behalf of the Scots' evertime he opens his mouth...The man is a racist who shows no respect to our English neighbours. All this talk of 'Scolympians' and nonsense about 'let the scottish people decide how to run their country' is embarrassing."

"It is unfortunate that all these separatists movements dwell on the things that divide people and not what unites them."

"Being British is not being English. It is being something that Northern Ireland, Wales, Scotland and England represent."

In my lifetime many thousands of Scotsmen have laid down thier lives in defence of maintaining a British future for the future generations"

Also Scotland is under big influence already from Russia and it wiuld be to thier advantage to have the Scotish independent as it could give them a hub to access north, Western Europe"

"Too many people lack the imagination or ability to look after their own affairs. We are a naturally subservient people and require our betters from the Home Counties to guide us and to look after our resources on our behalf"

"Working together helps and quite frankly this attempt at independence is, in my eyes, a selfish act by one man who is willing to let his patriotism and lust for power destroy a great and noble nation. Salmond should be ashamed."

"Extreme nationalism is not freedom."

Conclusion

The two most commonly-shared concepts that I found most relevant from which to categorize the numerous types of ideas contributed by the online participants are interpretation of facts and assumptions of the future—for both "yes" and "no" votes. I also saw it fit to collectively include ad hominem, appeal to tradition, and arguing on principles into a third category which I labeled as "others." This classification is by no means conclusive. On the other hand, I hope it can serve as an additional or alternative means of studying open forum debate on the World Wide Web. Other noteworthy concepts to look into would be fallacies, humor, and personal testimonies which can be found in substantial amount in the debate under question. Some contributors offer their personal stories or those of others; some would use ridicule or humor; while the arguments of others can clearly be pointed out as logical fallacies.

From the same website, debate.org, and others such as debatingeurope.eu, we can find other debates and opinion polls of a similar nature including those regarding independence movements in Catalonia, Flanders, and other smaller European regions. A major limitation however is the lack of English-language content on these other topics, not in terms of discussion, for there are many. And these topics are never short of available online articles, either. What is wanting is the open debate forum where individual participants can type and add their comments and others can read them. Most of these contributions are presented in summarized form, such as a pie graph to show percentages of how many percent voted for each side.

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The Performance Evaluation of Students' Readiness for Tablet Use via Teachers and Parents of Chanthaburi Primary Educational Service Area Office 1

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Abstract

Since teachers and parents have more responsibilities for supporting tablet use in grade 1 students as the government of Thailand has launched the pilot project to distribute a free Tablet for a student. It is very important to study the performance evaluation of students' readiness by gathering from them. In this paper, we extend the previous results on comparison other demographic information of teachers and parents' performance and design a framework for teachers and parents' readiness on tablet usage. The purposes of this paper are 1) to investigate the readiness of using tablet of teachers and parents in three aspects: skills and abilities of using tablets, opinions on students' learning with tablets and readiness of management for supporting students' education. 2) To compare teachers' readiness with different genders and years of teaching experience. 3) To compare parents' readiness toward three aspects with different genders and ages. 4) To design a framework for improving teachers and parents' readiness on tablet usage. The participants are 110 teachers and 341 parents of grade 1 student in year 2012 of Chanthaburi Primary Educational Service Area Office 1. The questionnaires consisted of five parts by using the check lists, the basis of five-point Likert scale and an open-ended question. The t-Test, ANOVA and post hoc comparison tests were used for analyzing the data. This study indicates that the readiness of teachers and parents are at moderate and high levels, respectively. Overall, there is a significant difference between genders for teachers' readiness. Male teachers are found to have higher performances than female. However, there is no significant differences among years of teaching experience for teachers' readiness and among genders and ages for parents' readiness.

Keywords performance evaluation, students' readiness, teachers and parents, tablet use

Introduction

According to the National Economic and Social Development Plan of Thailand considered improving higher education for Thai students in the fields of academic knowledge, skills and intelligence in ICT (Information and Communication Technology). The government of Thailand has launched the pilot project, which gives a free tablet for a grade 1 student in 2012. Surasak (2012) mentioned regarding the problems of adapting tablets in classroom that are occurred in recent Thailand education system. For example, actual syllabus for tablet is not available in Thailand yet. Teachers have not much knowledge and skills of using tablet for education. Contents and activities learning are not already developed. And the challenge in providing features of tablet as they are rapidly changed. The policy practice of the pilot project which is known as One Tablet PC Per Child Project, was to give a free Tablet for a student. There were 539,466 students who received the benefit. In year 2012, the initial stage started distributing tablets for grade 1 students along with developing appropriate contents for containing in each tablet.

Therefore, it is very important to study the performance evaluation of concerning people such as teachers and parents who are in charge of learning management for those students with limited ability. In addition, Chanthaburi Primary Educational Service Area Office 1 is one of the areas where will be received these free tablets. It is located in the east of Thailand. There are 88 schools

with 110 teachers and 2,297 students that are examined from four districts under administrative divisions; Mueang Chathaburi, Tha Mai, Na Yai Am and Kaeng Hang Maeo.

In this previous work; Meennapa [2013] focused on a study in teachers and parents' readiness for supporting tablet use in grade 1 students, especially in ages and education level. This paper intends to extend the previous work by additional experiments in hypothesis testing of years experienced in teaching and gender. Finally, this paper presents a framework for improving teachers and parents' readiness on tablet usage, which summarized from all experiments including both in this paper and the previous paper.

Literature Review

Mobile touch-screen technologies also referred as tablet technologies, have introduced a new generation of educational tools that afford creative use and instant access to a wealth of online resources (Kristy, 2012). As many educators and parents have observed, today's children are exposed to advanced technology at an early age, with tablets, e-readers, and smartphones being some prevalent choices (Gutnick et al., 2011). The effects of technology in educational setting on the development of young children have been widely documented and strongly positive. (Leslie & Dora, 2010). Although the high popularity of mobile technology and their great advantage in portability are commonly realized, mobile technology still has disadvantages of inappropriate using. One major issue is concerned in education like distributing of using Tablet PC in classroom. In addition, some have argued against the use of computer technology for young children's learning. (Cordes & Miller, 2000) such as takes away of learning time, overuse, game mentality.

Leslie and Dora (2010) identifies that adult guidance for children using computers is associated with increasing in abstract reasoning, planning behavior, visual-motor coordination, and visual memory as teachers and parents are in charge of management for supporting students' education as well as providing opportunities, books and materials for learning. At present many researchers have focused on learning opportunities places responsibility on families, schools, and communities to ensure that children are exposed to the experiences and cognitive stimulation as they need to flourish. Jerome Bruner (quoted by Meisels, 1999) explained, "It turns out that one teaches readiness or provides opportunities for its nurture, one does not simply wait for it". In other words, a child who is ready to learn will not learn unless he or she is taught or unless the conditions are propitious for the child to learn on his or her own. (Meisels, 1999).

Definition of readiness is "prepared mentally or physically for some experiences or action" (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary). It also indicates that technology needs to (1) be developed mentally appropriate for children, (2) include tools to help teachers implement the technology successfully, and (3) be integrated into the classroom and curriculum (Clements & Sarama, 2003). Martha (2004) mentioned that readiness has been variously theorized as a particular chronological age, as a stage or level of development in children, as a set of skills and competencies, as a process, and as a set of relationships. Each of these conceptions has different implications for the roles and responsibilities for children, families, and schools. She also obtained the factors that they have been associated most consistently with children's cognitive and/or social-emotional preparedness for school are follows as socioeconomic status (which often interacts with race or ethnicity); the child's health; family background characteristics, particularly the mother's education, single-parent status, and mental health; the home and community environment, including risk factors and literacy-related factors; and participation in some type of preschool program.

An extended factor that can be taken into account is a body of research findings which is linked gender differences to levels of computer acceptance. (Russell & Bradley, 1997). Wan-I, et al., (2009) reveal that the primary goal of this research is to demonstrate that customer's technology readiness (TR) plays an important role in influencing firm performance. The relationship between TR acceptance and demographic characteristics were investigated. The result shows that different TR types differ in terms of gender and education.

The previous paper concentrated on observing the readiness of using tablet in grade 1 classrooms for supporting tablet education of teachers in Chanthaburi Primary Educational Service Area Office 1 during October to November 2012 and the students have not received any tablets yet. The paper attempted to examine three aspects: 1) skills and abilities of using tablets 2) opinions on students' learning with tablet 3) readiness of supporting in students' learning. The result found that there was a significant difference between genders for teachers' readiness. Male teachers were found to have higher performances than female. However, there was no significant difference among ages for teachers and parents' readiness; and among education levels for parents' readiness.

A fully-design green career model of Alexandra (2012) would be founded on a trained program for worker readiness. The effects of training program are improving academic skills in a meaningful context, development of soft skills and self-esteem, and a holistic understanding of the field and relevance of sustainability. Thus, the solution of teachers and parents' readiness on tablet use can be based on this model. They are able to improve performances of tablet use in classrooms as knowledge and experience with computers use are not enough to enable teachers to make the best use of ICT in the classroom. (Somekh & Davis, 1997). Also, some necessary contents in training programs should be informed for teachers and parent, including the safe and effective use of tablet, where to seek quality applications, and suggestions for ways these devices can be used in classroom or at home to support students' learning (Kristy, 2012).

Setting Objectives and Hypotheses

The objectives of the study are:

1) To investigate performance evaluation of grade 1 students' readiness for table use via their teachers and parents of Chanthaburi Primary Educational Service Area Office 1 in three aspects as follows;

i) Skills and abilities of using tablets.

ii) Opinions on students' learning with tablets.

iii)Readiness of management for supporting students' education.

2) To compare teachers' performance toward three aspects with their demographics; genders and years of teaching experience

3) To compare parents' performance toward three aspects with their demographics; genders and ages

4) To design a framework for improving teachers and parents' readiness on tablet usage

The following hypotheses were tested.

H1: Performance of using tablet of male teachers will be performed significantly more than females.

H2: The level of teachers' performance of using tablet will differ significantly toward years of teaching experience.

H3: Performance of using tablet of male parents will be performance significantly more than females.

H4: The level of parents' performance of using tablet will differ significantly toward ages.

The research framework is presented in Figure 1.

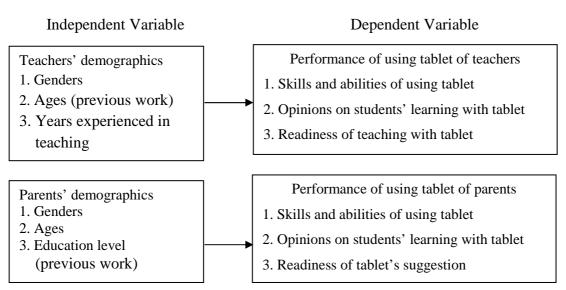


Figure 1: The Research Framework

Research Methodology

Participants

There are all 110 teachers who were the samples and 341 parents in Chanthaburi Primary Educational Service Area Office 1 on 2012, which were calculated from a total of 2,297 students in this paper. A number of parents were identified by using Yamane's formula (1967) and dividing members of the population into homogeneous subgroups by using Stratified Random Sampling from the district and the school size. Then each group was selected by drawing lots.

The Instrument, Design and Analysis

Two questionnaires were designed based on proposed research framework as shown in Figure 1. One is for teachers and the other is for parents. These questionnaires consist of five parts. The first part of the questionnaires required personal information: 1) Teachers' information are genders, ages, education levels and years of teaching experience 2) Parents' information are genders, ages, education levels and occupations. The second part asked teachers and parents about their skills and abilities of using tablets on the check lists for 4 items and the basis of five-point Likert scale (using the Semantic Differential Technique). 13 items were listed to find out answers. Each item was ranked as (0-1) strongly negative, (1-2) mildly negative, (2-3) neutral, (3-4) mildly positive, and (4-5) strongly positive. The third part asked teachers and parents about their opinions on students' learning with tablet on the basis of five-point Likert scale with 5 items. The forth part asked teachers and parents about their readiness of management for supporting students' education on the basis of five-point Likert scale with 6 items for teachers and 11 items for parents were listed to find out readiness. At the last part asked teachers and parents with an open-ended question about opinions and suggestions by filling in the blank.

The quantitative statistical analysis is carried out using SPSS version 19 statistics in order to find out answers for the hypotheses. The scores are tabulated. Descriptive statistics, Independent samples t-Test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post hoc comparison tests were statistically applied to analyze the data.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive Statistics

The first part was demographic information of the participants completing the questionnaires. Most teachers are 102 (92.70%) females and most teachers have years of teaching experience for above 26 years which there are 48 (43.60%). In addition, 208 (61%) parents are females and 172 (50.40%) parents are age between 31 to 40 years.

Analysis

		Teachers	8	Parents			
Performance of using tablet	x	S.D.	meaning	x	S.D.	meaning	
Skills and abilities of using tablet.	3.19	0.660	Moderate	3.54	0.786	High	
Opinions on students' learning with tablet.	3.14	0.941	Moderate	3.53	0.970	High	
Readiness of management for supporting students' education.	3.28	0.660	Moderate	3.59	0.702	High	

Table 1: Showing a performance for using tablet of teachers and parents

As displayed in Table 1, the teachers' performances of using tablet in all three fields are at moderate level. On the other hand, the parents' readiness in all three fields is at high level.

Hypotheses Testing

H1: Performance of using tablet of male teachers will be performed significantly more than females.

Table 2: Showing a	a comparison	of teachers' perfe	ormance of using ta	ablet toward genders	
	ŝ	Mala	Female		1

Teachers' performance of	Male		Fei	nale		Sia	
using tablet	x	S.D.	x	S.D.	t	Sig.	
Skills and abilities of using tablet	3.28	0.0642	3.18	0.6813	10.041	0.002*	
Opinions on students' learning with tablet	3.55	0.4870	3.11	0.9613	2.883	0.092	
Readiness of teaching with tablet	3.33	0.4986	3.28	0.6730	1.463	0.229	
Total	3.48	0.0984	3.20	0.5905	6.386	0.014*	

*p<0.05

Regarding to the total of genders differences in Table 2, there is a significant difference between genders. It is found that male teachers have higher performance than female teachers. In terms of skills and abilities of using tablet it is seen that male teachers have more skills than female. Therefore, H1 (hypothesis 1) is accepted. The findings are the same direction of Wan-I, et al. (2009) statement that is "Education and gender are significantly related to Technology Readiness use." In other words, commonly, male have positive performances and abilities in learning new technology than females because of the differences in absorb and interested.

H2: The level of teachers' performance of using tablet will differ significantly toward years experienced in teaching.

Table 3: Showing a comparison of teachers' performance of using tablet toward years experienced in teaching

Parents' performance of		ears expended	Б	Sia			
using tablet	< 5	6 – 10	11 - 20	21 – 25	> 26	Г	Sig.
Skills and abilities of using tablet.	3.70	3.52	3.04	3.06	2.98	3.616	0.011*

Opinions on students' learning with tablet.	3.32	3.67	2.78	3.6	3.06	2.172	0.077
Readiness of tablet's suggestion	3.54	3.46	3.41	3.58	3.01	4.157	0.004*
Total	3.45	3.55	3.0	3.0	3.19	1.712	0.160

*p<0.05

As Table 3 there is totally no significant difference among years of teaching experiences. Therefore, H2 (hypothesis 2) is rejected. However, the analysis is able to observe significant differences in two sub-aspects; skills and abilities of using tablet, and readiness of teaching with tablet. From the post hoc statistic, in term of skills and abilities of using tablet, it is shown that years of teaching experiences in ages below 5 is the most performance. Also, in term of readiness of tablet's suggestion, it is found that years of teaching experiences in ages arrange of 21 to 25 years old is the most performance. Nevertheless, the finding research is the same direction as Niederhauser & Stoddart (2001) found that teachers' experience in teaching did not influence their use of computer technology in teaching. In my opinion, since the government has started providing tablet training programs for those teachers, this new technology adoption is not a complex issue for any teachers and training of new skills seem to have more influence on technology performance.

H3: Performance of using tablet of male parents will be performance significantly more than females.

Parents' performance of	Male		Fei	nale		a:	
using tablet	x	S.D.	x	S.D.	t	Sig.	
Skills and abilities of using tablet	3.63	0.8868	3.46	0.7175	1.549	0.215	
Opinions on students' learning with tablet	3.56	0.9817	3.52	0.9644	0.047	0.829	
Readiness of teaching with tablet	3.58	0.7905	3.60	0.6415	7.602	0.006*	
Total	3.60	0.6501	3.59	0.5544	0.397	0.529	

Table 4: Showing a comparison of parents' performance of using tablet toward genders

*p<0.05

The finding in Table 5 demonstrates that it is expected males in the total of genders difference would score significantly higher than females however the above table appears to reject H3 (hypothesis 3). Robin (2006) statement that is "Males and females did not differ markedly with respect to their attitudes toward computers before the laptop program, with one notable exception: behavioral attitude or intentions to use computers in the future." Mobile device is basically used in people' daily life and a number of people who use tablet are steadily increasing. Moreover, tablet application is developed as easy as for customers therefore parents' readiness of using tablet is not depending on genders.

H4 : The level of parents' performance of using tablet will differ significantly toward ages.

Table 5: Showing a comparison of parents' performance of using tablet toward ages

Parents' performance of		Ag	F	Sia			
using tablet	< 20	21 - 30	31 - 40	41 - 50	> 51	Г	Sig.
Skills and abilities of using tablet.	3.47	3.30	3.56	3.64	4.19	2.049	0.090
Opinions on students' learning with tablet.	3.26	3.60	3.55	3.41	3.74	0.797	0.528
Readiness of tablet's suggestion	3.30	3.57	3.70	3.41	3.42	2.965	0.020*
Total	3.54	3.53	3.60	3.63	3.87	0.456	0.768

*p<0.05

The analyzed data in Table 4 shows the total of parents' readiness of using tablet as there is no significant difference between ages in year. There is significantly only one sub-aspect of readiness of tablet's suggestion. Thus, H3 (hypothesis 3) is rejected. In addition, the post hoc statistic is revealed that age in arrange of 31 to 40 years old is the most performance and the least is age below 20 years old. This finding have relevant to Mantgem (2008)'s idea that is "Groups of older may have less readiness in ICT's learning and adapting than young as ICTs are developing rapidly and distributing everyday use". Sometimes, a lack of integrating technology is limited in young generation and people who desire it, not for all. From my experience, there are many instructions of using tablet which are available for users such as books and the internet. Illustration and sounds from these media appear to be effective of tablet's understanding and can enhance use and readiness of technology in any ages.

A framework for improving teachers and parents' readiness on tablet usage.

Following up on the results of tablet 1 which is shown comparison of teachers' performance of using tablet toward years experienced in teaching. The framework is based on Alexandra's model (2013) that is presented in Figure 2.

"Teachers and parents' readiness of tablet use for supporting students' education system will increase productivity by a training program. Therefore, it will deliver better effects on education system in Thailand."						
THE EFFECTS ON EDCATION SYSTEM Education quality Improvement Student-centered learning emphasizing Smart technology use						
Ability of adaptation READINESS	TRAINING ACTIVITIES					
FACTORS	GOALS					
 Skills and abilities of using tablet Opinions on students' learning with tablet Readiness for supporting education 	 Equipment on tablet using Benefit awareness of using tablet Applications and lessons using 					
Promoting excellence and continuous supporting by the government						

From figure 2 shows a framework of teacher and parent's readiness on tablet use for supporting students' education system. There are three factors which should be concerned in a training program as follows:

- 1. Skills and abilities of using tablet as teachers and parents should be assigned a training program of tablets equipments in order to improve skills and abilities of tablet use, attention on tablet for long life, and instructions knowledge to students.
- 2. Opinions on students' learning with tablet as teachers and parents should be aware of benefit of tablet use for students in a classroom. Therefore, acceptation of tablets and new technologies will be performed.
- 3. Readiness for supporting education as teachers and parents should be clearly explained duties and responsibilities of management for supporting students both in and out of a classroom, including applications and lessons on tablets.

Teachers and parents are an important role of encouragement tablet use. More important, however, the government also should continue to excellently promote and fully support this new technology. Thus, the effects of using tablet in education system will be occurred such as improving education quality, emphasizing student-centered learning, using smart technology, and adapting ability to new technology.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The readiness of teachers and parents are at moderate and high levels, respectively. Overall, there is a significant difference between genders for teachers' readiness. Male teachers are found to have higher performances than female. However, there is no significant differences among years of teaching experience for teachers' readiness and among genders and ages for parents' readiness.

More interesting, the parents have more abilities to use tablet than teachers. Thus, the proposed framework should focus on improving abilities' teachers.

This paper is only based on questionnaires. Therefore, qualitative research should be conducted and the study should cover ability and readiness of students who are actually tablet users. Moreover, more areas of samples should be explored in different areas.

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Abstract

This qualitative research investigates the differences in perception, attitudes and purchase intention among Thai male and female customers about retouched advertising. Focus group interview discussions were employed in 10 male and 10 female customers, aged between 25 to 35 years old with the samples of retouched automobile, cosmetic and food print advertisements and television commercials.

The result indicated that retouched print advertisements and television commercials are preferred over the non-retouched advertisements by Thai males and females. The perception of retouched advertisements does not vary in the male and female groups while the female subjects have different perception from the male group regarding retouching techniques used in advertisements. Male and female subjects have positive attitudes towards retouching of food advertisements because it attracts attention although both male and female groups know that the food advertisements have been retouched extensively. The purchase intention of retouched advertisements is not different because male and female groups desire to make a purchase and try the products after seeing advertisements or television commercials. Therefore, both male and female groups condone retouching in advertisements because male and female groups understand that it is part of the creative process in advertising to attract more attention and that it is advertising business.

Introduction

Digital photography and photo retouching are trendy and widely used in the advertising industry. Photo manipulation is widely embraced as an art form. Some of the image retouching techniques and steps include removal of red-eyes, abstract elements or visible flaws on skin or materials, smoothing the skin, applying digital manipulated make-up and enhancing facial texture and structure. Attaining the equilibrium output through image retouching is the best formula for a realistic and successful photo manipulation.

Retouching technique has significantly changed the way people look at advertisements. At times, people prefer the advertisements to the products, and some start using the product after seeing advertisements. People tend to view advertisements, become attracted to the products, build interest and desire to own the products and make a purchase. The products could turn out to suitable for the customers or they might have adverse effects to them. And possibly one of the adverse effects could be that the products being advertised do not deliver as assured in the advertisements.

In the digital age, advertisements and television commercials are retouched immeasurably. Product promotion or anything related to marketing or advertising requires high quality images, and that is where photo retouching comes into play. This would shadow the reality of the product and its attributes. The advertisers would tend to amplify the attributes of the products to get the customers' attention and to stimulate a desire to purchase the products being shown on the advertisements. As a result, the advertisements that are retouched could mislead customers.

There has not been any individual study in Thailand extensively focusing on photo retouching in the field of advertising from a consumer's perspective. This research, thus, is the first study that aims at explaining the success of photo retouching in the Thai advertising industry. Its objective is to study the perception, attitudes and purchase intention of customers toward retouched print advertisements and television commercials. This study also aims to explore the differences between genders of customers in the context of retouched advertising. The motive of the study is not only to serve as a guideline in evaluating the efficiency of retouched advertisements, but also to contribute new knowledge to the Thai advertising literature as well as the advertisement industry.

Literature Review

Retouching

Photo retouching, also known as photo manipulation, has been around since the 1980s when computers were used for digital retouching. Retouching means using image editing techniques to modify photographs or videos to enhance them or to create illusion or deception through analogue or digital means. Photo retouching is widely used and accepted in all forms of print editorial and advertising. However, growing unease with excessively misleading fashion and beauty photos and the detriment it causes to women's body image has led to talks of having altered images labeled as having been manipulated (Photo Retouch Service, 2012).

Most retouching is currently done using computer software and digital images. While the program Photoshop® is perhaps the best known photograph manipulation software, there are a number of other programs that can also be used to digitally edit and retouch photographs. These programs provide users with a number of tools to alter images, including the ability to crop a picture, lighten and darken parts of an image, and digitally airbrush images to appear more smooth or perfect. This software even allows those interested in retouching to easily place the face of one person onto the body of another. Image editing software can be used to apply effects and warp an image until the desired result is achieved. The result may have little or no resemblance to the photo from which it originates.

The argument for excessive photo retouching in the advertising, publishing and fashion industry surround the image of glamour and illusion that industry insiders say the public expects and wants. The use of retouching in fashion or advertising photography has been somewhat criticized, but far more controversy has arisen from retouched photographs used in politics or the news. As digital manipulation of images has made it easier and faster to alter photographs in a number of ways, some critics have railed against news outlets that feature edited images. This can be seen as a form of deceptive journalism, as an image can be represented in a way that may not be accurate to the original scene captured in it.

Perception

Consumers' perception of overall brand quality reflects the general attitude towards the product and ultimately also the likelihood of purchasing the brand (James, 2005, 4) According to Baldauf and Kaplan (2003), perceived quality is positively related to the perceived value. The higher perceived quality represents the reason to opt for a product in many purchase situations, and some customers are, therefore, willing to pay a price premium. Brand loyalty also influences the perception of overall value to a great extent.

According to Eysenck and Keane 1990, "perception depends on a person's expectations and previous knowledge as well as the information presented by the stimulus, [...] the brand". Furthermore, perception is selective and restricted, which means that only around seven items

of information can be absorbed by a consumer and some fall victim to the selective filtering on the basis of experiences, beliefs and attitudes (Randall, 2000, 45-46). This means that not all information available will or can be incorporated. Even though consumers might not identify some information or issue as an influential factor in their decision-making, it can, nevertheless, subconsciously manipulate the purchase.

Attitude

Attitude has been a difficult concept to define adequately, primarily because it has been defined by so many, but also because of the word's differing lay uses and connotations. One of the earliest definitions of attitude was "A mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (Thomas and Znaniecki, 1918) A more recent definition is "An evaluative disposition toward some object based upon cognitions, affective reactions, behavioral intentions, and past behaviors ... that can influence cognitions, affective responses, and future intentions and behaviors" (Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991).

Attitudes are latent and not directly observable in themselves, but they act to organize or provide directions to actions and behaviors that are observable. Many refer to attitudes as "predispositions to respond" (ibid., p.19). Attitudes are related to how people perceive the situations in which they find themselves. Also, attitudes vary in direction (either positive or negative), in degree (the amount of positiveness or negativeness), and in intensity (the amount of commitment with which a position is held) (Smith, 1982).

Product Attitude and Purchase Intention

A consumer's attitude and assessment and external factors construct his/her purchase intention, and it is a critical factor to predict consumer behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Purchase intention can measure the possibility of a consumer to buy a product; and the higher the purchase intention is, the higher a consumer's willingness to buy a product (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Purchase intention indicates that consumers will follow their experience, preference and external environment to collect information, evaluate alternatives, and make purchase decision (Zeithaml, 1988; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Yang, 2009). Chi et al. (2009) proposed that an advertising endorser's popularity, expertise, and attractiveness can appeal to consumers' eyesight in a short time and increase purchase intention. Laroche et al. (1996) also testified that advertising endorser's exposure rate can change consumer preference and attitude and promote purchase intention.

Advertising endorser can utilize TV commercials or newspaper or magazine advertisings to enforce a product's exposure rate and consumers' brand attitude and knowledge to elevate purchase intention (Miciak & Shanklin, 1994). MacInnis et al. (2002) considered that endorser marketing can give an endorsed product a brand new image and advance consumer purchase intention. Moreover, consumers' brand attitude and purchase intention will be higher when a product has high preference image and familiarity (Laroche et al., 1996). Wang (2006) used brand image as independent variable, product category as moderator, and purchase intention. Fournier (1998) discovered that if a brand provides product functions that meet consumers' need, consumers will produce psychological associations and an irreplaceable relation with the brand which they will subjectively maintain interaction with and raise their purchase intention accordingly. Furthermore, consumer purchase intention comes from consumers' perception on benefits and value acquisition, and it is an important key to predict consumers' purchase behavior. Monroe, Grewal & Krishnan (1998) stated that perceived value and perceived quality will influence purchase intention, and the more perceived value and perceived quality, the higher purchase intention.

According to the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), a person's overall attitude toward an object is a major determinant of his or her intention to perform a behavior with respect to the object. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) defined attitude as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object" (p. 6) and propose measuring attitude on bipolar affective dimension such as "like/dislike", favorable/unfavorable", and "good/bad" (p. 56). They claimed that whenever this bipolar dimension can be shown to be affective in nature, the judgment can be viewed as indicative of attitude" (p. 56).

An important indicator of a person's intention to perform a behavior with respect to a product is purchase intention. It is a variable that is most important for marketers (Berkowitz, 1987) because it is predictive of a person's actual behavior (e.g. purchase, usage). In line with TRA, the author postulates that a positive product attitude leads to a higher purchase intention whereas a negative product attitude leads to a lower purchase intention. That is, a person's purchase intention is positively related to his or her attitude toward the product.

Purchase Intention Influenced by Advertising

Empirical studies have related the effectiveness of celebrity—endorsed advertising to the audiences' intention to purchase. Purchase intention is the perceived as likelihood of buying the products advertised. Inquiry, consideration, and purchase represent increasing levels of commitment toward the product (Ohanian, 1991). These variables are commonly used to measure the effectiveness of source attractiveness in advertising research (Kahle & Homer, 1985).

Daneshvary and Schwer (2000) pointed out that purchase intention in an environment of association endorsements depends on the audience identifying with the association and its purpose and also on the socioeconomic profile of the audience. Daneshvary and Schwer (2000) developed a formula of purchase intention and believed that purchase intention has a connection with demographic factors, such as age, gender, occupation, and education. The greater the interaction with a group or an association, the greater the likelihood of individuals' perceived affiliation with the group.

Method

To measure the perception, attitudes and purchase intention of customers towards advertisements that have been retouched, focus group interview discussions were employed. Focus group interview is chosen because it is relatively easy to assemble and flexible in terms of format, types of questions and desired outcomes. Focus group is a useful research tool usually used by the advertising industry because it gives access to immediate, easily measured customer reaction on a particular topic or product (Writing, 2012). It is open recording that allows participants to confirm their contributions. It also provides rich data through direct interaction between author and participants. These advantages outweigh the criticism that focus groups are not as in depth as individual interviews. The participants may not express their honest opinions and may be hesitant to express their thoughts, especially when their thoughts oppose the views of another participant (Writing, 2012). These disadvantages are rectified in this study as the nature of the questions asked does not invite opposing views. Moreover, the depth of opinion required from the focus groups is not an issue in this study.

The 20 participants were divided into 2 groups; male and female groups. Each group had 10 participants and took part in an interview, lasting approximately 50-60 minutes. The researchers chose the focus group aged between 25-35 years old because they possess the purchasing power and are decision makers. The group included people from the advertising industry as well as non-advertising industry to find accurate perception, attitude and purchase intention of the focus group members on the retouching techniques used extensively in the advertising industry.

Both groups were interviewed and shown 3 print advertisements and 3 television commercials from both before and after retouching process. The advertisements are from 3 types of products, namely automobiles, food and hair care and cosmetics. The automobile category was chosen because it attracts male customers, cosmetics attracts female customers whereas food attracts both as it is neutral. The pre- and post-retouch versions of the printed advertisements and TV commercials were shown to the male and female interviewees. A camcorder was used to capture the reactions of members of the focus group. It also captured the expressions on the face of each member after seeing the print advertisements and television commercials, before and after the retouching process.

Findings

Differences in Perception among Thai Male and Female Consumers about Retouched Advertisements

Definition of Retouching

All of the 20 interviewees understood what retouching is; their perception stemmed from having seen print advertisements and TV commercials, which frequently feature in various advertising media and channels. Even though some informants did not know or clearly understand the meaning of retouching and retouching techniques, when the researcher explained or made some suggestions, they understood, got interested and realized the meaning of retouching in advertisements right away.

Benefits of retouching in advertisements

The results showed that most of the male and female interviewees perceived the advantages of retouching advertisements in terms of making images more beautiful and more attractive to customers. It also helps clarify the product and usage, including enhancing images so that they are beautiful, clear and distinguished. It also helps the manufacturers or product owners in term of increased sales.

Differences in Attitudes amongst Thai Male and Female Customers after Viewing Pre- and Post- Retouched Advertisements in Print and Television Advertising

Attitudes towards retouching in advertisements

There was a difference in the male and female groups' attitudes towards retouching in advertisements. The female group is neutral to retouching in advertisement because they understand that an advertised image needs to be beautiful, but they do not what an image to be retouched beyond reality. On the other hand, the male group had a positive attitude; they like retouching in advertisements because consumers get to see beauty and attractiveness in each particular advertisement.

Attitudes towards advertisements before and after retouching

• Automobile Advertisements

Having seen Mercedes Benz and Suzuki advertisements, 7 out of 10 female interviewees said that they did not see the difference between the images pre- and post-retouching in the printed advertisements and the TV commercials. Likewise, when the male group was shown the retouched Mercedes Benz advertisement and the Suzuki commercial, 9 out of the 10 male subjects said that the two advertisements pre- and post-retouching look similar, with only the colours enhanced.

There was no difference in attitude between the male and female groups towards the sampled print advertisements and TV commercials, pre- and post-retouching. Both groups did not see much difference between the pre-and post-retouched print advertisement and TV commercial shown. They thought that the only difference being the colours and the attractiveness of the images.

• Food Advertisements

Having seen a retouched pizza advertisement from The Pizza Company and a Knorr TV commercial to the female interviewees and asked the subjects if they thought the advertisements had been retouched, the female interviewees thought that there was a great difference between the pre- and post-retouched advertisements. Retouching, particularly on the colours, makes the food appetizing and the female group believed that it attracted the consumers. On the other hand, when the researcher showed the retouched The Pizza Company advertisement to the male group, the male subjects agreed that the picture had been retouch extensively.

When the researcher showed the male group the pre-retouched pizza advertisement and Knorr TV commercial, all of the male informants said that the sampled printed advertisement and the TV commercial were very beautiful and unreal, but they still make them want to eat and order the food.

Regarding the differences in opinions on the pre- and post-retouched food advertisements, most of the male interviewees thought that retouching made the sampled advertisement and TV commercial more beautiful in terms of the colours, making the food look appetizing and attractive and enticing people to order or cook food. The differences between the pre- and post-retouched advertisements are remarkable.

There was no difference in the males' and females' attitudes on pre- and post-retouched advertisements. Both groups could see the remarkable differences between the pre- and post-retouched print advertisement and TV commercial.

• Hair Care and Cosmetics Advertisements

The female interviewees thought that there was not a great deal of difference between the preand post-retouched advertisements of hair care and cosmetic products. Retouching enhanced the light, colours and the presenters' skin tone. On the other hand, when the researcher showed the retouched printed advertisement and TV commercial to the male group and asked if they thought the advertisements had been retouched, four male interviewees thought that overall the retouching was done rather extensively.

Regarding the differences in opinions on the pre- and post-retouched hair care and cosmetics advertisements, most of the male interviewees thought that retouching made the sampled

advertisement and TV commercial more beautiful in terms of the colours, but there was little difference between the pre- and post-retouched advertisements.

There was no difference in the males' and females' attitudes on pre- and post-retouched hair care and cosmetics advertisements. Both groups could not see many differences between the pre- and post-retouched print advertisement and TVC. They thought the only differences being the colours and the beauty of the images.

Differences in Purchase Intentions among Thai Male and Female Customers on the Products that were being Retouched

It is found that retouching affects perception of each product, and consumers have positive attitudes towards retouching because it makes advertisements more attractive but has no influence on purchase intention. The research found that the male and female interviewees thought that retouching affected purchase intention only in food advertisements. Retouching in the automobile and hair care and cosmetic advertisements has no effect because the interviewees want to try the products and see the actual products before making a decision. Moreover, the cost is a main factor in purchase decisions. Therefore, regarding products other than food, retouching has no influence on purchase intention. However, they were not against retouching because both male and female groups understood that retouching was required in order to make the products more attractive. Both groups agreed that they wanted to see more beautiful advertisements, but they did not want unrealistic retouching which is deceitful to consumers.

Perception, Attitudes, and Purchase Intention about Retouched Advertisements	Female	Male
Perception	Understood and Perceived	Understood and Perceived
AttitudesAutomobilesFoodHair care and Cosmetics	Neutral Positive Neutral	Neutral Positive Neutral
 Purchase Intention Automobiles Food Hair care and Cosmetics 	No Effect Effect No Effect	No Effect Effect No Effect

The results of males' and females' perception, attitudes and purchase intention towards retouched advertisements are summarized in the table below:

Conclusion and Discussion

Perception about Retouched Advertisements

The study found that the male and female interviewees knew that retouching was embellishment of images, correcting, adapting and making advertisement images more beautiful, interesting and attractive, enticing the male and female subjects to see the advertisements and use the products. Both male and female groups followed advertisements which led to perception of changes of advertisements in different media. However, perception of advertisements depends on various factors, such as gender, age, financial status, need and brand loyalty (Baldauf and Kaplan, 2003). The male and female subjects' perception of retouched advertisements was not different because the subjects are in the same age group (25-35 years old); they are mature, educated working people whose experiences are not different because they have been exposed to retouched advertisements for a long time and most of the interviewees know that retouching is embellishing and correcting images to make them look attractive.

Although the perception of retouched advertisements does not vary in the male and female groups, the female subjects have different perception from the male group regarding retouching techniques used in advertisements. The female interviewees only expected advertisements to be beautiful, which corresponds to Eysenck and Keane's (1990) research which concludes that perception depends on expectation and prior knowledge of each individual. On the other hand, the male interviewees were aware of retouching techniques in advertisements. The male subjects also thought that enhancing photographs used in advertisements make the image more complete using computer programs to beautify, correct and adapt the photographs to make harmonious advertisements.

Attitudes after Viewing Pre- and Post- Retouched Advertisements in Print and Television Advertising

The results indicated that both male and female interviewees had neutral attitudes towards automobile advertisements and cosmetics advertisements. This is due to the fact that there is not a big difference between pre- and post-retouched advertisements in these categories; the only differences being the colours and the added beauty in these advertisements. Moreover, regardless of the retouching, both male and female interviewees needed to look up information and try the products. It also depends on social learning, observation and behaviour prior to purchase decision, according to Social-Learning Theory, which states that changes in attitudes of beliefs are results of action which is in turn influenced by the majority of people in the society (Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991).

Male and female subjects have positive attitudes towards retouching of food advertisements because it attracts attention, which corresponds to Smith's (1982) study which found that good actions lead to understanding and learning process resulting in attitude formation, knowledge and understanding, and purchase behaviour. Although both male and female groups know that the food advertisements have been retouched extensively, they think that the results are beautiful. The advertisements make the audience think of familiar tastes and experiences while viewing the food in the print advertisement and TV commercial. This corresponds to Chi, et al.'s (2009) research which found that advertisements need to employ objects which attract and capture consumers' short attention span and lead to the desire to buy the products. This results in a more positive attitude change.

Purchase Intentions on the Products that were being Retouched

Both male and female groups in this study had positive attitudes towards retouching of food advertisements, but had neutral attitudes towards automobile and cosmetics advertisements. The study found that both male and female groups responded by showing interest only in the food advertisements. After seeing the food in print advertisement and TV commercial, both male and female groups would respond by ordering food or wanting to order the advertised

food. These results can be explained by the Theory of Reasoned Action that a person's overall attitude toward an object is a major determinant of his or her intention to perform a behavior with respect to the object. A positive product attitude leads to a higher purchase intention whereas a negative product attitude leads to a lower purchase intention. That is a person's purchase intention is positively related to his or her attitude toward the product. For the results that retouching in automobile and cosmetics advertisements does not incur purchase intention, preferences or tastes and individuality, which are the factors of money and brand loyalty, could be the reason.

This study found that both male and female interviewees condone retouching in advertisements because they understand that it is part of the creative process in advertising to attract more attention and that it is advertising business. However, they do not want advertisements to be retouched extensively. Both male and female subjects want to see beautiful advertisements, but they should be based on the reality of the products.

Limitations and Suggestions

Suggestions for advertisement makers

1. The study found that consumers accepted retouching in advertisements because they wanted to see new, attractive and distinguished advertisements. Therefore, retouching should be done with the view of the suitability to the products, and over-advertising should be avoided.

2. The study found that most consumers responded to and took interest in food advertisements the most. Therefore, the advertisement makers should think of suitability and avoid over-advertising in order to create and maintain positive attitudes of consumers.

3. The study found that most consumers were knowledgeable and educated and look up more product information. Advertisement makers should be careful not to over-advertise or make unrealistic claims.

Suggestions for future research

1. This study employs qualitative research methods; data being collected from a focus group discussion with a limited number of consumers, only those residing in Bangkok. Therefore, the future research should broaden the demographics in order to make more accurate and conclusive analyses.

2. The research participants are end consumers who view advertisements in various media: printed advertisement and TV commercials. The next study may include those working in the advertising circle in order to address the diversity of advertisements. A comparative study of end consumers and advertisement industry may be conducted to broaden the scope of the study.

3. This study focuses on end consumers only. To increase the dimension of the study, future research should address message givers or advertisers and product manufacturers in order to explore advertising strategies.

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Abstract

With the advent of the internet, consumers have more power to access products, services and business providers' information online. In many kinds of businesses, including tourism, consumers can easily reach for products and services twenty four hours a day. However, the easier access to the service is, the faster users can decide to use other business providers. To avoid the situation, providers who can deliver the highest degree of customer satisfaction can survive in this fierce marketplace. The objective of this study was to find out customers' perceived service towards online travel agents (OTAs) websites and services from OTAs' representatives. Moreover, the study looked into the potential attributes leading to customers' satisfaction with OTAs' websites. Quantitative method of research was used in this study. Target populations were 400 foreign users who have used OTAs. The research framework considered electronic service quality (E-SERVQUAL) as the dimensions to evaluate quality of virtual businesses and companies. Seven dimensions of E-SERVQUAL (efficiency, reliability, fulfillment, privacy, responsiveness, compensation, and contact) were used in the study. Data was collected by means of a questionnaire survey. Findings of customer perceived service were influenced by fulfillment, efficiency and reliability of the services. This research recommended that companies should pay more attention to supporting services and complimentary services as they play major roles in customer satisfaction. Especially, results indicated that website quality, variety of choices as well as the responsiveness of the firms' representatives had direct impact on customer satisfaction.

Keywords: Perceived Service Quality, E-SERVQUAL, Online Travel Agents (OTAs)

Introduction

Many studies stated about the internet as it has increased the accessibility to reach information about products, services and prices faster and at ease of use (Mouakket & Al-hawari, 2012, Madu & Madu, 2002, Lee et al., 2011). Information technology (IT) has evolved dramatically in this decade. It has now become a part of people life. Because of the improvement, more and more business has become very competitive. Particularly, the innovation has affected the tourism and hospitality industry greatly (Vladimirov, 2012).

Similarly, the internet provides much more opportunities and challenges for businesses, one of those is the online business. Online business brings benefits not only to business owners and supplies, but also to customers. Online business services allow customers to view the products and services, request for more information and finish the transaction to buy those products and services on one specific platform. Online transactions allow users to make a purchase and transfer payment by using the internet platform (Lee, et al., 2011)

With the spread development of the internet and information technology, there is increasing number of tourists using the internet to find and gather information about tourism which leads to the buying decision (Madu & Madu, 2002). Hence, company that has not implemented the Iclc2013-283

technology is likely losing its competitive potential to win customers' hearts (Vladimirov, 2012). Booking and purchasing via the internet is counted one of the fastest growing methods of shopping nowadays. Moreover, the internet is also used to facilitate buying transactions among different actors: between customers and customers, and between businesses and customers as well as between businesses and businesses (Grunert & Ramus, 2005)

Statement of Problem

Today, more and more consumers spend their life on the internet, smart phone, and online applications. Accordingly, they tend to gain useful information from those sources. Once a firm offers information about products and services on the website, consumers who are interested in these products might want to buy them straight away. Hence, it evolves to online shopping. For tourism and hospitality industry, there are a number of traditional travel agents and OTAs which both using the internet as a platform to convey message and trade the products and services. The most significant thing when a firm deals with customers especially in any kinds of service industry is a service's satisfaction which it brings about to compliment or complaint. A study by Eccles & Durand (1998) stated that online customers are likely to tell their family and friends about their dissatisfied experience. Moreover, they tell others between eight to ten people about the received poor service. While having good service, this person tell only three other friends. It is harm for OTAs in the long run if there are increasing numbers of dissatisfying customers. Therefore, this study was to look into a perceived service of customer towards service quality of OTAs by discovering the level of service quality.

Research Question

1. What are the levels of perceived service of the electronic service quality of OTAs?

The objectives of this paper were:

1. To find the level of agreement to the electronic service quality of OTAs from their online application and telephone-customer service.

2. To suggest how to improve OTAs for better service to customers and maintain their satisfaction.

Literature Review

Customer perceived service quality and customer satisfaction

Customer perceived service quality can be defined as a judgment of attitude regarding the service in many industries (Parasuranam et al., 1985). There are many researchers studied about the subject over the last few decades such as Grönroos (1983) and Parasuraman et al., (1985). One of the well-known studies is the study of Parasuraman et al. (1985) which has been regarded as the most prominent. This global measurement of service quality named SERVQUAL consists of tangible, reliability, responsibility, assurance and empathy. SERVQUAL is used to evaluate the customer's assessment of service quality. This assessment refers to a gap between what the customers expect service quality of service providers and the evaluation of the performance of that service. While the five dimensions primarily address customer-to-employee, and the instrument does not consider unique facets of online service quality, it is obvious that SERVQUAL may not be sufficient for measuring service quality across industries and in other situations, as well as online service quality. Accordingly, some researchers have attempted to identify key attributes that best fit the online business environment.

The concept of customer satisfaction is important because it underlies this research. Also, it is essential for organizations to keep their customer satisfied with the products and service as well as to develop techniques to attract new potential customers. Many researchers have defined the meaning and the importance of customer satisfaction. Tse & Wilton (1988) defined customer

satisfaction as a feedback to the evaluation of perceived value between former expectations and actual performance of the service when perceived after its consumption. Ankit (2001) described that customer satisfaction measurement is the process that allows an organization to understand the key components creating satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Kotler (2000) described that it is a feeling of someone to be pleasure or not pleasure with the result from comparing outcome and expectation. Hoyer & MacInnins (2001) claimed that satisfaction is the feeling of happiness or relief. Lam & Bojei (2006) explained that customer expectations derive from many factors including past experiences, personal needs and wants, and impacts of word of mouth and other external communication about the specific services, while customer perception is the actual feeling and reactions after receiving the services.

E-Service Quality and development of e-SERVQUAL

Morrison et al. (2004) explained that in the vast network of global suppliers and wide ranges of customers, the appropriate distribution channel for tourism products is the online channels. Also Law et al. (2007) claimed that hotel booking is a prime service sector of the travel industry and has integrated in the internet largely. While Starkov & Prince (2007) estimated that one-third of the hotel booking number in 2010 were completed online. Accordingly, electronic service quality, or e-service quality is now concerned as a method to retain regular customers and attract new customers. Zeithaml et al. (2001, 2002) studied the dimensions and developed E-SERVQUAL scale to measure e-service quality. The scale includes seven dimensions which are efficiency, reliability, responsiveness, fulfillment, privacy, compensation and contact. This study used E-SERVQUAL as a guideline to explore the standard service of electronic company especially virtual company like OTAs, and to discover how customers rate the standard service of the companies.

Efficiency is the measurement that indicates the ability of users to access the website and find needed information about a product or service within a minimal effort. Parasuraman et al., (2005) defined the efficiency as the ease of use and speed accessing and using the website, in other words, this refers to ease of website access, simplicity of using the web to find information effortlessness, and fast checkout. According to Chin & Lee (2000), efficiency is the accessibility to the speed of access, information downloading and the availability of the website. They also found out that efficiency has strong impact to customer satisfaction of users. A study by Li et al. (2009) found out that ease of use is ranked the most important factor of e-service quality. Zeithaml et al.(2000) referred to this dimension as navigability and stated that for a good site to be perceived positively by customers, it should provide functions that help customers to find what they need easily and quickly, as well as providing a user-friendly environment. Criteria of questionnaires using in this research were website quality, search engine quality, and booking process system.

Fulfillment refers to the accuracy of the service, the ability of firms to deliver products and services in the promised time. Parasuraman et al., (2005) explained that the dimension is the extent of what the website promises to deliver products or services and to fulfill customers' needs. Ho & Lee (2007) explained that the dimension refers to the success of online stores to deliver product and services to customers as well as the willingness to accept and correct the mistakes happening in the transactions. Their research also found out that customers emphasized on this quality the most. A study by Wolfinbarger & Gilly (2003) especially laid emphasis on the non-error ordering process and on-time delivery. A website which can minimize the dissatisfaction with these services provided would receive a higher level of quality from its customers. Criteria of questionnaires using in this research were fulfillment of products and services, and fulfillment of personalization service.

Reliability refers to the correctness of product information provided on the website. Ho & Lee (2007) explained that reliability is the site's content to be represented as the promised services. Especially for online travel website, users can only acquire information about products or service from the OTAs' websites, therefore, the information provided is important for customers. Wolfinbarger & Gilly (2003) gave another point of reliability that it refers to customer perception of the site's reliability such as a confirmation email, and order tracking. While Zeithaml et al. (2002) defined that it is associated with the technical functioning of the websites in order to have proper function. A study by Yang & Fang (2004) found out that reliability in accurate order is the most important criteria for OTAs. While accurate record and accurate billing is among the less important aspects for OTAs. Criteria of questionnaires using in this research were the reliability of product information, and reliability in websites' process.

Privacy refers to the dimension to which the website is safe in term of customer information. Parasuraman et al. (2005) gave a definition to this dimension as the degree that the website provides safe and protection of customers and their personal information, since the issue has been a critically important for online stores' customers. Zeithaml et al. (2002) explained that privacy involves securing users' personal information by not sharing information about consumers with others, and providing informed consent. In other terms, it is a customer's perception towards the confidence and trust of the website. A study by Lee & Lin (2005) found that online customers concern about the privacy policy the most when they use the websites, especially relating to the guarantee of personal information protection. Criteria of questionnaires using in this research were privacy policy and others privacy manners in the process.

Responsiveness is an important factor to consumers when shopping online via the websites. Zeithaml et al. (2002) explained that the criterion relates to response from the online stores especially when customers have questions or problems. Other examples are prompt service, helpful advice and guidance, and accurate information about the products and services. Zeithaml et al. (2002) also described that responsiveness is used to measure the ability of firm to provide appropriate information to customers when a problem occurs, and whether the firms have procedures to handle problems, and provide guarantees. Also, Zeithaml et al. (2002) explained that online responsiveness index can be illustrated from the number of channels for communication, frequently asked questions, asking question process and feedback to users' inquiry. Ho & Lee (2007) explained that promptly responds to users' inquiries is the most important part for online services. On the other hand, they found out that continuous help for users facing problems is among the less important part in the same study. Criteria of questionnaires using in this research were the responsiveness of the customer service department before and after booking.

Compensation is the degree to how website compensates users or customers for those problems (Parasuraman et al, 2005). In other words, compensation is related to how the website handles when problem occurs such as a refund for the error, shipping, or payback for the extra costs (Kim et al. 2006). Likewise, Zeithemal et al. (2002) also gave the same definition while focused that it is the dimension involving receiving money back and returning shipping and handling costs. Ho & Lee (2007) explained that policy for cancelling orders is the most important aspects for online services' users. Criteria of questionnaires using in this research were cancellation policy and compensation policy.

Contact refers to the availability of assistance from website though telephone of direct online staffs (Parasuraman et al., 2005). Especially when customers face a problem, they require a quick response from the website and have an appropriate solution (Kim et al. 2006). Zeithemal et al. (2002) described that contact dimension regards to the need of customers to be able to speak to a

live customer service agent. Kim et al. (2006) found out that online services' users emphasize on interaction with people instead of automatic machine. Interaction with representatives refers to interaction via telephone, and live chat program. Criteria of questionnaires using in this research were traditional communication contacts, and electronic communication methods.

Research Methodology

According to the objectives of this study, it can be considered that the research objective of this study was exploratory research in nature because it aimed to explore the current situation of OTAs. Descriptive research was used to describe the customer perceived service of the OTAs. Then, a questionnaire survey was used to gather customers' experience towards OTAs in those seven criteria of E-SERVQUAL. Then a quantitative research approach was applied to collect data and analysis and interpretation. A set of questionnaires was formed according to those mentioned criteria.

Questionnaires of the customer agreement to the electronic service quality were used to collect data. This study used the 5-point Likert-scale to collect date which 1 is "strongly disagree" while 5 is "strongly agree". Questionnaires were distributed in four areas of Bangkok (Suvarnabhumi Airport, Chatuchak weekend market, Central World department store, and Khaosan Road). Target population were international populations in Bangkok which age 15 and above who have used the OTAs services such as booking airplane tickets, other tourism products and services. These international populations also included the expatriates, the foreigners living in Bangkok. The sample size of this research was approximately at 400 people.

Collected data was analyzed, firstly, by using Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha was adopted to ensure the reliability and consistency of the survey questionnaires. Secondly, descriptive statistic was obtained for all personal data by using frequency distributions. Thirdly, measures of central tendencies and dispersion of interval-scale were done by identifying means and standard deviation.

Results

Personal data of Respondents

This section presents the personal data of 400 foreign people who has experienced in using online travel booking websites in Bangkok, Thailand. This section includes gender, age, nationality, occupation, purpose of the usage, frequency of using per year, and the name of the online travel websites.

From the questionnaire survey, a total of 400 people, there were 55% of female and 45% of male. The largest age group was between 25 to 35 years (68.3%). Of these respondents, the largest group of respondent was employee (38.8%) and they mainly used the website to book service for vacation (62%). The respondents mostly used the website for about 2-3 times per year (41.3%). Finally, the percentage of respondents using Agoda, Expedia, Travelocity and Priceline to arrange trip were at 29.3%, 15, 14.5%, and 13.5% respectively.

The questionnaires used 7 dimensions of E-SERVQUAL to identify customer satisfaction towards OTAs. (Efficiency, Fulfillment, Reliability, Privacy, Responsiveness, Compensation and Contact)

In addition, the translation of ranking level is analyzed follow criteria of agreement designed by Best (1977: 174) The score among 1.00-1.80 mean lowest The score among 1.81-2.61 mean low The score among 2.62-3.41 mean average The score among 3.42-4.21 mean high The score among 4.22-5.00 mean highest

Table 1. Weah score of	i efficiency		
Efficiency		Std.	Level
Efficiency	Mean	Deviation	
Overall website design is visually appealing	4.5000	0.5438	HIGHEST
The website is easy to use	4.2000	0.4643	HIGH
Access to the website is effortlessness	4.1875	0.5772	HIGH
A confirmation email is directly sent to personal email	4.1725	1.1004	HIGH
A confirmation email is accurate	4.0550	1.0582	HIGH
There are variety of search results	3.8325	1.0306	HIGH
Downloading speed of the website is appropriate	3.7000	0.9887	HIGH
The search results are correct	3.6200	0.7695	HIGH
Booking through website can be done in a few clicks.	3.5750	0.8782	HIGH
There is an indicator of the booking process	3.5650	1.0190	HIGH
Information for booking is linked to ID registration	3.5250	1.1544	HIGH
The search results are able to sort	3.4175	0.6590	AVERAGE
Booking through website is not complicated	3.0650	1.1723	AVERAGE
There are various payment methods	1.3225	0.5188	LOWEST

Table 1: Mean score of efficiency level OT

From the table 1, 14 statements related to the efficiency of the OTAs were asked for agreement; results showed that respondents had the highest agreement to the visually appealing of the website. Respondents stated that the sortable of the searching result and the easiness of the booking were in the average agreement. On the other hand, respondents didn't agree with the variety of payment methods the most.

Table 2: Mean score of fulfillment level of OTAs					
Fulfillment		Std.	Level		
Fullment	Mean	Deviation			
There are clear processes of helping users for booking	4.1900	0.4465	HIGH		
The website provides personalized function to record preferences	3.8450	0.8293	HIGH		
Products or services are delivered in the promised time	3.6175	0.5449	HIGH		
Products or services are correct to what I have booked	3.6000	0.5484	HIGH		

T. I.I. 5. M f fulfill

From the table 2, 4 statements related to the fulfillment of OTAs were asked for agreement, results showed that the quality of all four criteria were in high level of agreement.

Reliability		Std.	Level
Kenability	Mean	Deviation	
Confirmation email is directly sent to email.	4.5175	0.50032	HIGHEST
Information is updated	4.4975	0.51542	HIGHEST
Information is accurate	4.2825	0.7901	HIGHEST
Information detail is adequate for making decisions	3.8025	1.02524	HIGH
Booking history is well-organized	3.1800	1.28324	AVERAGE

Table 3: Mean score of reliability level of OTAs

From the table 3, 5 statements related to the reliability of OTAs were asked for agreement; three of them were in the highest level. While the adequate of information needed for making decisions as in high level, and the well-organized of booking history was in the average level of agreement.

Tuble 4. Mean score of privac	y 10 v ci 01	01115	
Privacy		Std.	Level
riivacy	Mean	Deviation	
There is a clear privacy policy	4.6900	.47377	HIGHEST
There is a notice before sending additional email	4.2350	.43618	HIGHEST
There is a notice before recording telephone call	2.7250	1.3013	AVERAGE
There is an auto-sign-out system and the payment	2.2650	.51521	AVERAGE
page (for safety)			

 Table 4: Mean score of privacy level of OTAs

From the table 4, 4 statements related to the privacy of OTAs were asked for agreement; two out of four criteria were in the highest level of agreement. While the notice for recording telephone call and auto sign-out system from the website was in the average level of agreement.

		Std.	Level
Responsiveness	Mean	Deviation	
The speediness of return email before booking	4.0600	.70188	HIGH
The time waiting for a phone call before booking	3.8600	.81980	HIGH
The speediness of return email after booking	3.3125	1.0898	AVERAGE
The time waiting for phone call after booking	2.3075	.48325	LOW
Company's representative can provide help step	2.2700	.54575	LOW
by step			
There is continuous help to customers.	2.0925	.72128	LOW

 Table 5: Mean score of responsiveness level of online travel agents

From the table 5, 6 statements related to the responsiveness of OTAs were asked for agreement; two of them were in the high level of agreement. The speediness of return email after booking was in the average level. Though, three criteria, waiting time for phone call after booking, step by step of help and continuous support from representative were in low agreement.

Table 6 : Mean score of compensation level of online travel agent

Comparison		Std.	Level
Compensation	Mean	Deviation	
There is clear compensation stated on the website.	4.2800	.46058	HIGHEST
There is clear instruction, rules and regulations	4.2450	.47491	HIGHEST
for this policy			

From the table 6, 2 statements related to compensation of OTAs were asked for agreement; both of them were in the highest level of agreement.

Table 7: Mean score of contact level of online travel agents
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Contact	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
Traditional contact details are clearly found on the website	4.0775		нісн
Telephone number is shown in every page of the website	4.0425	1.1572	HIGH
Electronic contact details are clearly found on the website	3.8550	1.5476	HIGH
Live Chat program is provided on the website	3.7350	1.1415	HIGH

Frequently asked question (FAQ) is available for the usage	3.0800	0.7141	AVERAGE	
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From the table 7, 5 statements related to contact of OTAs were asked for agreement; four of them, telephone number, traditional contact, electronic contact and live chat program were in the high level of agreement, while FAQ was in the average level of agreement.

Discussion

For the efficiency dimension, researcher found out that customer perceived service qualities of OTAs was high in nine statements. Nine statements were about the overall outlook of the website, and the process of booking which were ranked high by respondents. At the same time, there were two statements; sort ability of research results and the process of booking were in the average level of agreement. On the other hand, customer perceived service quality of the payment methods was the lowest. The results were conformable with the research of Li et al. (2009) that ease of used is ranked the most important factor of this dimension.

For the fulfillment dimension, researcher found out that customer perceived service qualities of OTAs was high in all the four statements relating to on-time delivery and correct ordering. The result was compatible with the research of Wolfinbarger & Gilly (2003). They mentioned that OTAs should emphasize on the non-error ordering process and on-time delivery of an order for online customers.

For the reliability dimension, researcher found out that customer perceived service qualities of OTAs was the highest in the statements about accurate information provided and confirmation email from OTAs. On the other hand the result of booking history in OTAs website was ranged in the average agreement. This result was accordant with the research by Yang & Fang (2004) mentioning accurate order is the most important criteria for OTAs.

For the privacy dimension, researcher found out that customer perceived service qualities of OTAs was the highest in term of privacy policy and notice before sending an additional message to customers' e-mail. This result was agreeable with the research of Lee & Lin (2005) that customers most concern about privacy policy and protection of their personal information.

For the responsiveness dimension, researcher found out that customers perceived service quality of OTAs was the highest in responsiveness of representatives only before booking. The results were slightly consistent with the research by Ho & Lee (2007) that promptly responds to users' inquiries is an important part of online services. The results of this study showed that OTAs performed average to low level of prompt responds after booking which is not consistent with Ho & Lee's research.

For the compensation dimension, researcher found out that customers perceived service quality of OTAs was in the highest agreement in both compensation policy and instruction to cancel a booking. This also matched with the research for Ho & Lee (2007) stating that policies for cancelling order is an important aspect of online services.

For the contact dimension, researcher found out that customers perceived service quality of OTAs was high in four statements except the availability of FAQ page (frequently asked questions). The results were agreeable about with the research of Kim et al. (2006) that online services' users pay attention to the interaction with representatives such as telephone, and live chat program.

Conclusion

From the discussion above, it can be concluded that OTAs performed well in all 7 dimensions of e-servqual. On the other hand, there were weaknesses of OTAs to improve themselves. First of all, companies should improve their potential in providing responsiveness to users both before and after purchasing the products and services. As in the virtual market, customers cannot see the products or service before they buy, therefore it is normal that they will inquire more information before purchasing it. For OTAs and other online booking websites, providing proper services will lead to customer satisfaction and also customer royalty, and re-purchase intention. Firms must not avoid each of dimensions since they are all support the satisfaction level. From this research, researcher found out the responsiveness of the firms should be improved first and followed by other dimensions since it can convey a message that firms care about customers even when they have not purchased.

Processes to increase responsiveness are as follows:

- 1. Invest more on regular training to the representatives on how to serve customers better.
- 2. Hiring more people to the customer relationship department.
- 3. Provide steps to help customers when faced problems and follow up the case.
- 4. Provide FAQ (frequently asked questions) on the website to be a guideline of services.

In summary, this research is limited to study only the sample of international people in Bangkok, Thailand at a particular period of the time. As well, language barriers may lead to missing information from groups of other nationalities. According to the research limitation, this can be an opportunity for other researches conduct research in different time of the year, as it can be different groups of tourists in high and low season of the year. In addition, other researchers can conduct research towards different groups of OTAs' users, such as Thai people. Moreover, this research can be conducted by using other languages in order to maintain information of non-English-speaking users.

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Abstract

Language and communication are deeply conjugated with media in such a way that their phenomenal impact on every aspect of life can be revealed only if they are taken together as one synergistic whole. The principal objective of this paper is to examine approaching trends that characterize an emerging paradigm in language and communication. Evidence from various sources is reviewed in order to clarify issues and to identify trends and their implications. Our review suggests that the ongoing changes in language, communication and media push traditional boundaries beyond established norms. The enormous worldwide growth of the new media is having an increasingly significant impact on freedom of speech and communication which is shaping the emerging paradigm. Development of language and communication is a complex process where cognitive models, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and socio-economic aspects play important roles.

Keywords: abbreviation, digital media, semantics, transmutable context.

Introduction

Is the growth of digital media transforming how we communicate with each other? Are new technologies altering our essential language habits, and the ways in which we think, read, write, distribute, and publish? Does the digital age have broader implications for individuals, society, and global communication? "The medium, . . . is reshaping and restructuring patterns of social interdependence and every aspect of our personal life. It is forcing us to reconsider and reevaluate practically every thought, every action, and every institution formerly taken for granted." (McLuhan, Fiore & Fairey 2001, p8). Through the power of new media and technology, age-old obstacles to human interaction and globalization, like geography, affordability, language and limited information, are falling and a new wave of connectivity, communication, creativity and potential is rising (Schmidt & Cohen, 2013). The proliferation of communication technologies is altering everything on a grand scale. Phenomenal changes are taking place in various domains. The Washington Post reported on May 3, 2005 that circulation of 814 of the largest US daily newspapers declined by 1.9 percent over the six months ending March 31, 2005 compared with the same period of previous year. The decline continues a trend in the newspaper industry as people increasingly turn to other media such as the Internet (Shin, The New York Times reported on May 19, 2011 that customers of amazon.com buy 2005). more e-books than print books (New York Times, 2011). There is an emerging consensus that the pace of change is accelerating which would impact social, political, personal and economic aspects of our life in an unprecedented way. New technologies, such as the Internet, smart phones, MP3players, PDA's and other new devices provide people with new opportunity to access news, advertisements, work, entertainment, shopping and other daily activities. According to a survey by the Pew Internet & American Life Project, 95 percent of American Teenagers between 12 and 17 years use the Internet (Madden, Lenhart, Duggan, Cortesi, & Most teenagers use technology for legitimate purposes although some Gasser, 2013).

traditionalists have reservations about the nature of the use. Access to information provided by the internet is so flexible that it is hard to avoid this convenient facility in a modern society. The Internet "has transformed into an omnipresent and endlessly multifaceted outlet for human energy and expression" (Schmidt and Cohen 2013: p3). It is invading our life in an unprecedented way and changing the way we learn and live. Internet use is influencing the ongoing changes of communication patterns, language and learning habits, which may or may not be perceived negatively (cf. Baron 2009; Plester, Wood, & Bell 2008; Galanter 2012; Wood & Bell 2008).

In order to study an emerging paradigm, one needs to study the rapid changes that are taking place now, and their consequences. This is a study in connecting the present to the future. "We should be concerned about the future because we will have to spend the rest of our lives there" (Kettering, 1949). One has to ask "What is the nature of change? What is the trajectory? How will it be in the next few years?" There appears to be a general understanding that languages, cultures and communication are changing with the emergence of new digital media. The main goal of this paper is to examine the linguistic and communicative changes that are taking place now and try to fit them in the old paradigm. If the changes do not fit into the old paradigm, then there must be an emerging paradigm where these new changes need to be accounted for a logical explanation of the changes. In the process, we review published research papers and books in this area as sources of evidence and information and examine their data and interpretations for assessing their contribution.

The concept of paradigm is used in this research from Thomas Kuhn (1962) in a broad sense without any attempt to redefine it. The concept of emerging paradigm implies that a new framework is required for accommodating some new developments which are inconsistent with the old paradigm. For the purpose of this paper, it is important to characterize the emerging paradigm adequately with the new developments that are inconsistent with the old paradigm. In other words, we need to demonstrate that there are some important facts that are not consistent with the old paradigm. The emerging paradigm needs to be characterized with some salient features based on recognized or published evidence. Language and communication are always changing. However, minor changes are not likely to lead to a new paradigm. Massive new radical changes are altering linguistic and communicative aspects at mental and socio-cultural levels. The expressions such as "cu2nite" (See you tonight) are not acceptable in the old paradigm although these expressions are widely used in the new media for communication. Practitioners of the old paradigm complain about these expressions. On the other hand, multimedia users are most comfortable with them (Crystal, 2009). We discuss plausible explanations for the efficient semantic interpretations for the new expressions in the new media that make the language and communication widely acceptable despite complaints from some critics. One can isolate language and communication from media for special treatments; however, our approach is to treat them in an integrated whole. This is important for interpreting the meaning of communication in context. Users are able to understand the messages in the media taking into consideration all contextual aspects. The media is rich with peer reviewed journals, books, respected intellectual work as well as blogs, chats, and new styles that push the boundaries of language and form to new limits (Hale, 1996). "In today's complex world, communication is the social nexus where interpersonal relations and technological innovations, political-economic incentives and socio-cultural ambitions, light entertainment and serious information, local environments and global influences, form and content, substance and style all intersect, interact and influence each other" (Lull 2000: p10).

For the purpose of this paper, the concept of new media is taken in a broad sense from various published sources (Gane 2008; Socha & Eber-Schmid, 2014). The most recent wave of the new media is the Internet (Flew, 2002, Schmidt and Cohen, 2013); however, all aspects of the new media for the past two decades need to be considered in order to understand its sustained effect on us.

Evidence for an Emerging Paradigm

Most of the evidence we consider in this paper comes from published articles, books and internet sources (Hale 1996; Hu, Talamadupula & Kambhampati, 2013; Kovarik, 2011). This research considers the evidence presented in the available sources and brings social cognitive modeling techniques interpreting the combined effect of the evidence. Our comments on the sources of evidence are motivated by analytical purposes of this paper. The effect of media is not just superficial; it is changing our thought processes in deeper levels. One of the most important proposition for review is that "we think through, with and alongside media" (Hayles, 2012: p1). Our thinking process, approaches to communication and conceptual framework of meaning are changing with the new media.

On October 12, 2012, BBC reported that "There are almost as many mobile phone subscriptions in the world as people, a United Nations telecom agency has said." (BBC, 2012). The vast majority of the world's population is hungry for communication and demanding easy access to information. The practical use of the media is changing our language and communications. Studies on linguistic styles on various platforms can be found for SMS and instant massaging (Thurlow and Brown, 2003, Tagliamonte & Denis 2008, Crystal 2008), emails (Baron, 1998) and blogs (Herring et al. 2004). These studies of vast amount of data indicate that the use of new media is widespread. An important feature of the linguistic style is that it resembles conversation. It is distinguishable from traditional written styles and therefore it is often referred to as netspeak (Crystal, 2013). Social network services (SNSs) provide tools and environment for netspeak. From Michele Zappavigna's research we have come to know that "in 2010, Facebook had over 500 million users, each with an average of 130 'friends' (Facebook 2010), and Twittter users were generating 65 million Tweets a day (Schonfeld, 2010)" (Zappavigna, 2012). Table-1 shows some search results obtained in January 2014, using Google, on a small sample of linguistic strings. For each string, the exact form submitted to the search engine is show on the leftmost column.

Strings Searched	Paraphrase in plain English	Number of results
gr8 day	Great day	2,070,000
love4ever	Love for ever	1,210,000
gr8 deal4u	Great deal for you	1,090,000
face2face	Face to face	680,000
give2charity	Give to charity	561,000
Cu2moro	See you tomorrow	268,000
cul8r	See you later	132,000
cu2nite	See you tonight	71,800

gr8nite	Great night	58,000
donate4charity	Donate for charity	38,600

Table 1: Some examples of frequently used linguistic strings

For the communication to be effective with the linguistic strings mentioned above, one needs to establish a structure-meaning relationship (Pietroski, 2003, de Swart, 1998). This relationship is appropriately established by the users of the emerging paradigm, because they understand the strings. That is, there is at least one semantic method in the emerging paradigm that allows communication through proper interpretations of the linguistic strings of Table 1. For example, "cu2nite" is not a simple abbreviation; multiple processes need to be used for such examples (Crystal, 2009). There must be a semantic method rich enough for interpreting these forms.

A string like "cu2nite" (See you tonight) requires consideration of transmutation of contexts in an integration semantic approach. Integration semantics must combine multiple approaches together to provide semantic interpretation to the string. Without considering the contexts we can say that 2 is a number, which is successor of 1. The context must allow the approach to consider 2 as "to" along with "nite" as "night" and "cu" as "see you". In order to assemble the meaning compositionally, integration semantics combines case-frames (Fillmore, 1985), denotational, operational, axiomatic semantics (Sebesta, 2012) with English spelling rules, netspeak norms and puzzle solving strategies through transmutation of contexts, where context is not homogenous. Transmutation context method allows transformation of contexts from one form to another in search of a reasonable interpretation. Case frames for commonly used expressions may help the user in accelerating the search process. Charles Fillmore suggests that case frames may help in understanding deep thematic relations among constituents of an expression (Fillmore 1968; Fillmore1985). The basic concepts of case frames originally developed in ancient India were found to be useful for establishing deep thematic relations among constituent parts of an expression (Dev, Amin, Datta, Yu, Badkoobehi & Sinha, 2011) when isolated consideration of individual parts seems to fail.

The problems in language and communications need to be studied carefully. Radical changes are taking place right now such that practitioners' way of thinking about problems is changing. In the web, a new style is emerging (Hale, 1996). The new language style deserves to be examined by actual usage, not rigid rules. Traditionalists and elitists may insist on rigid rules and may not be receptive to changes. On the other hand, the web users are pushing the boundaries of language and form to new limits (Hale, 1996). The communicative goals may be better achieved by combining all aspects of language including semantics and pragmatics not just syntax and morphology. A goal is to achieve fluency in the new styles of language and communication because of the rapid increase in the size of the audience or readership. This emerging paradigm of language and communication deserves attention. It is accompanied by another paradigm in the teaching learning environment which is called the Computer-Supported Teaching-Learning paradigm or Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning paradigm (Koschmann, 1996). These emerging paradigms work together. Thus, we ask, "How can we develop games to teach English?", "What kinds of tools can help with learning English?". Examining the immense role of technology, style and stakeholders in the emerging paradigms is a central goal of this paper. The primary importance is on the language and communication paradigm. The learning paradigm is studied just for understanding its interactions with the language and communication paradigm.

Mass Participation

Language and communication do not change without mass participation. Our participation in the new media is rapidly increasing. "According to a recent study by the Kaiser Family Foundation, kids spend eight hours per day on average outside of the classroom using digital media" (Blascovich & Bailenson, 2011, p4). It is due to mass participation that a phrase such as "give2charity" or "cu2nite" has become so popular. Under rigid rules this would be considered an improper formation. However, it happened due to large scale participation of common users of the emerging paradigm. Mass participation in online communication has a lot to do with the changes that are taking place right now. Various tendencies that are emerging in online communication are often rapidly replicated for usefulness, succinctness, style, technology, "An online idea earns italics not just when it is creative, but meaningfulness and pragmatism. when it passes a simple test: Does it have an audience? In other words, Do people want to hear page 106). Using and spreading certain phrases may add onto the it see it?" (Hale 1996: cultural currency of a language. It is important to the speakers of the language due to the foundation it provides for identifying within a group (Garcia, Standlee, Beckhoff, & Cui, 2009). The changes that are taking place today are not due any long term plan that was made by some leaders years ago. The language style on the web is "organic, evolving and dynamic" (Hale 1996: Page 1).

The prime reason for the mass participation is rooted in our mind. "The patterns of neurons that fire when one watches a three-dimensional digital re-creation of a supermodel, such as Giselle or Fabio, are very similar – if not identical – to those that fire in the actual presence of the models" (Blascovich & Bailenson 2011). This may explain why the new media is becoming so popular so fast. Our mind is receptive to the new media. Hannu Luntiala, a Finish author, has written his 332-page novel Viimeiset Viestit (The Last Messages) entirely in SMS (Write Now is Good 2007). Another case of interesting use is reported by BBC, where a 13 year old girl wrote: "My smmr hols wr CWOT. B4, we used 2go2 NY 2C my bro, his GF & thr 3:- kids FTF. ILNY, it's a gr8 plc." (In translation: "My summer holidays were a complete waste of time. Before, we used to go to New York to see my brother, his girlfriend and their three screaming kids face to face. I love New York. It's a great place.")(BBC, 2013).

Concluding Remarks

The phenomenal changes taking place around the globe are clear signs of an approaching new paradigm in language and communication impacting our minds and thinking processes and raising our hopes and aspirations for human connectivity and freedom of speech. Review of evidence from various sources indicates that the emerging paradigm unleashed by the new media is inspiring people around the world to use their language in their preferred style to share contents, messages, emotions, news, views and love. More studies of the paradigm would be needed to assess its quantitative socio-economic impacts and its scope and limitations in multi-cultural and multilingual environment.

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New Media as a Tool to Create HIV AIDS Awareness in Media with Reference to Red Ribbon Express 2010-12

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New media is the buzzword, shorthand for a volatile cultural and technology industry that includes multimedia, entertainment and e-commerce. However in social research the term has a long history, having been used since the 1960s and 1970s by investigators studying the form, uses and implications of information and communication technologies. (ICTs) (*E.g. Parker and 1970a, 1970; Parker and Dunn, 1972*) [1]

Social Media refers to the means of interactions among people in which they create, share, and exchange information and ideas in virtual communities and networks. Furthermore, social media depends on mobile and web-based technologies to create highly interactive platforms through which individuals and communities share, co-create, discuss and modify user-generated content. It introduces substantial and pervasive changes to communication between organizations, communities and individuals.

In India 11 million people follow Facebook while Twitter has an audience of 82 million as per industry data. A 37.4% social networking growth has been recorded this year alone—among the highest in the world.

What is Social Media?

Social Media refers to the means of interactions among people in which they create, share, and exchange information and ideas in virtual communities and networks. Furthermore, social media depends on mobile and web-based technologies to create highly interactive platforms through which individuals and communities share, co-create, discuss and modify user-generated content. It introduces substantial and pervasive changes to communication between organizations, communities and individuals The Red Ribbon Express in 2012 visited 23 states, stopping at 162 stations, reaching more than 10 million people with messages about HIV prevention in rural India. The focus of the train's year–long journey across India was on mobilizing adolescents and youth.

Benefits of New & Social Media Use

• Ensures anonymity of communication

Companies and causes are awakening to the value of social media, the connection can deepen an experience and a relationship while maintaining confidentiality –a point that is absolutely vital keeping in mind the stigma and discrimination associated with HIV-AIDS even today.

• Ensures prompt communication

Scientific research, new discoveries and essential communication can be accessed at the click of a mouse or the press of a mobile key that can be a life saver in case of HIV-AIDS scenario. <u>http://www.unicefusa.org/campaigns/tap-project/</u>

Some of the most fascinating facts regarding New & Social Media are:

• 74% of marketers believe Facebook is important for their lead generation strategy



- 28% of retweets on Twitter are due to inclusion of "please RT!"
- 40% of marketers use Google+, 70% desire to learn more and 67% plan to increase Google+ activities
- 42% update their profile information regularly on LinkedIn
- Every second 8000 users like some or other photo on Instagram
- 80% of total Pinterest's pins are re-pins
- 4.2 billion people use mobile device to access social media sites
- Social media generates almost double the marketing leads of trade show, telemarketing, daily mail, or PPC
- More than 23% of marketers are investing in blogging and social media

Facebook is most popular social media marketing platform in India. An Indian spends Internet user spends and average 77 minutes per day browsing the Internet! Facebook is most popular social media marketing platform in India.

On Social Bakers India is on #3 in the list of the countries which is using Facebook, its penetration of population in India is 5.24% compared to the country's penetration of the online population. The total Facebook users tally in India in the last quarter of 2013 was 61,499,220 which has increased by 78,35,680 in the last 6 months. Most of Indian Facebook users age is between18 to 24and a total of 29,415,660 users were followed by users in the age of 25 to 34 (75% male and 25% female users. (Source: Digital Insights) [2]

The Vice President of the Sales and Marketing, group and General Manager of Worldwide Embedded Systems Group at Intel states, "We view the internet-of-things driving the next wave of computing. Early indications from India that we see a lot of interest around these new solutions." Internet –of-things refers to the growing trend of devices getting connected to the internet and indicates growing e-literacy in a country. Obviously e-governance comes under its purview and Elections 2014 are not going to remain unaffected by the same, states Indu Nandakumar in her article in *The Economic Times* from India's e-hub, Bangalore. [3]

The Indian Electorate has never been younger. There will be approximately 800 million voters by the time elections arrive and a major chunk of this population will be 25 years or younger. Given the state of affairs in recent years the young India has expressed a fair amount of dissatisfaction and restlessness. A major channel that catalyzed this process was social media which allowed the angry young India to express themselves openly and collaborate with a widespread desire for change. The citizenry has found a voice that can no longer be suppressed. This trend has set forth a new avenue which is being called the C-governance or Citizen led

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governance. With elections less than six months away, the role that Social Media will play is integral, both to the candidates and the public.

Earlier this year a report from IRIS research group put forward the role that social media, particularly Facebook will play in the 2014 elections. According to this study, out of the 534 constituencies, 160 were identified as High impact zones, 67 were identified as Medium impact zones while rest were classified as Low impact zones. They were categorized on the basis of internet and *Facebook* users in that particular constituency. On basis of data collected from past year and equating it with current stats, it concluded that the high impact zones will be the major game changer in 2014 elections. Most analysts dejected the implications of this report saying that the numbers are insignificant. But the scenario seems to have changed.

As of June 2013, Facebook itself has about 82 million users from India and 75% of them were on mobile. Thanks to the Indian mobile manufacturers, the multimedia sets are now cheaper than ever allowing people from all economic strata to access the internet. The sudden surge of social media literacy has now spread all across the country. Thus, mobile apps provide not only ease of access to the users but it also allows users from the mid and low impact zones to access social media. It is observed that although a large chunk of these users may not be proactive but they do act as listeners. Listeners who when required, act.

Utilizing this potential market, our marketers have implemented a number of tactics to fill their vote banks. They are not only accessing social media to network but they are targeting the youth primarily, which is an active partaker in daily communications. The essence of these tactics is to convey their message and build a credibility which is often the requisite for most urban youths to follow a person. A basic CRM (Customer Relationship management) system is enough to execute this simple yet highly effective strategy. The shroud of a direct conversation between a leader and a common man has enough potential to earn you more than a follower. Of course a large number of users are aware of the dynamics behind such accounts but considering the rate at which the mobile consumers are increasing, it can be estimated that reaching the mid and low cap zones is no more a dream. Imagine the impact on a daily wage earner to be talking to a prime leader or for that matter, even on an urban student youth.

These followers in turn promote the content and the leader in the easiest and most effective way possible, social media. Even if we cut the gatekeepers or peer group influencers out of this equation, the amount of content being recycled and shared is gigantic. On an average, a user shares at least 10 pieces of external content per day. This results in what we call '*word of mouth*' publicity, the best available on the block. Even a mere 1% of users recycling this data is more than enough for a web crawler to pick it up and promote as trending. Continue producing the same output for a couple of days and you are already showing up on all trending charts across the web. Think about an all-out 6 months to yearlong campaign. [4]

Impact of Social Media

A recent report released by the <u>Internet and Mobile Association of India</u> and <u>IRIS Knowledge</u> <u>Foundation</u> has revealed that of India's 543 constituencies,160 can be termed as 'high impact' — that is, they will most likely be influenced by social media. As the report explains, high impact constituencies are those where the numbers of Facebook users are more than the margin of victory of the winner in the last Lok Sabha (Lower House of Parliament) election, or where Facebook users account for over 10% of the voting population. The study goes onto declare 67 constituencies as medium-impact, 60 as low-impact and 256 as no-impact constituencies. In 67 other 'medium-impact constituencies', Facebook users comprise over 5 per cent of voters. Politicians here, the study says, 'cannot afford to ignore social media.'[5]

The study certainly seems to echo the general euphoria over social networking as a political tool. However, the number of Facebook users might not translate into any change in voting patterns — Though high in numbers, 7.8 crore Facebookians and 2 crore Twitteratis make up only 8.5 % of the total Indian population. Ratnakar Kumar speaking on this vast divide between the internet haves and the have not says, "As you know the number of people active on social networking sites is small when compared to a vast majority of non-internet Indian electorates. However, a socially committed and politically aware 98 million in itself is a huge force to reckon with, especially when the voting turn-out in Indian politics is not always high, 98 million can play a major role."

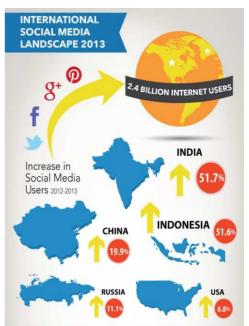
According to Randi Zuckerberg CEO of Zuckerberg Media, author of Dot Complicated, a selfhelp book on evolving digital lifestyles - and Facebook founder Mark Zuckerberg's sister, Social Media will have a pivotal role in determining the winner of 2014 elections in India. Randi, who runs a webzine also called Dot Complicated where questions on appropriate online behaviour, sharing and networking are answered, in an interview with The Times of India's Kim Arora spoke extensively about social media's role in India's elections.

Says Randi, analysing the role of social media in Indian elections: "I worked with Facebook India in 2009 and saw some exciting differences. India is far more advanced in mobile technology. There is a large community that has first accessed the internet directly on mobile devices. I think that is going to make a huge difference in the elections - the ability to tap into their networks and to leverage them."

Speaking on her emphasis on using real names online – she defended her stand vis a vis a country like India that's not liberal with free speech saying "There are areas of the world where anonymity is absolutely necessary. I know I come from only one side of the spectrum. The Facebook culture of using real names and pictures came to be because we wanted to authenticate these profiles for a university network. There were chances of you meeting these people you saw online offline as well. It created a culture where people were nicer online.

When you compare it against other networks, the difference is of night and day. People could use a screen name and there was just so much hate and bullying. They would say things there that they would never say

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to someone's face. I believe that the internet should have a culture of using real identities. Social media is a great gift - with that gift comes responsibility. I think we should use this gift responsibly." [6]

Not surprisingly the largest online community is of youngsters and the urban middle class in the age group of 18-35. To ascertain the impact of new media tools and social media in use during the run up to the 2014 elections one may kindly refer the infographic above. One can see there has been a 51.7 per cent increase in Social Media users in India over 2012-13. With the increased sale in Smartphones, Mobile Internet Traffic has surpassed Desktop Internet Usage in India in an exponential growth graph. [7]

Period	f	Linked in	9	P
Aug 2012	51 million	15 + million	16 million	1,34,000
Nov 2012	65 million	17 million	33 million	1,680,000
Feb 2013	71 million	18 million	33 million	1.232 million
April 2013	78 million	20 million	33 million	5.55 million

Data for Social media penetration worldwide by country and projections (2012 to 2017) In India it is Expected to Grow from the Present 5.7 % it is to 17.2 % by 2017!

While social media growth around the world has slowed, certainly in the U.S. and Western Europe, it's far from stopped, with the huge opportunity to recruit new users in less-developed markets ensuring that the social networking uptick will continue for years to come. Some 200 million users globally were added in the past 12 months, with 1.61 billion people now active in social media. This is expected to advance to 1.82 billion next year before breaching the 2 billion mark in 2016.

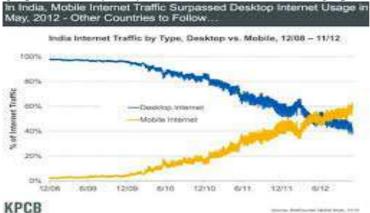
Social Media Role in Political Impact

Whether it was in the Arab Spring or Egyptian Uprising or more recently the Syrian crisis, Facebook has a role to play in all! Recently, Wall Street Journal's Alexander Martin reported how Japanese electoral candidates employed Social media experts to campaign for them on SM. Even Smartphone Games were launched by the ruling party (right)

The numbers say it all. As of March 2013 India had 63 million active Social Network Users. This number is estimated to have crossed the 70 million mark by now.

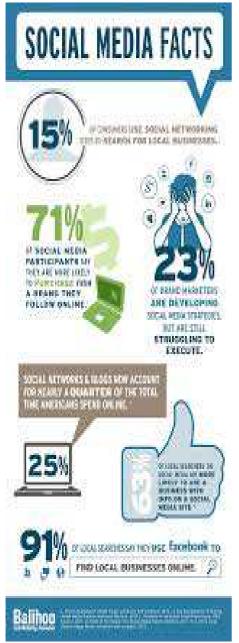
Hike in Mobile Internet Usage in India

Mobile Internet Traffic surpassed Desktop Internet Usage in India in an exponential growth graph as seen by the yellow trend line iun the infographic above.



Microsoft India Head, HR, Rohit Thakur while accepting that Social Media has emerged as a highly influential professional tool, avers, that Social Media is fast emerging as an effective tool for self branding. In such a scenario it is imperative that prospective candidates create an appropriate social profile that has complete and accurate information about their education and professional qualifications, agenda, affiliation and stand on critical issues. [8]

Current social media users are pegged at 85 million and was expected to hit 91 million by December 2013. The Digital Media market is estimated at a total of 227 billion rupees in India with 127 users with PCs and laptops and another 100 odd million accessing internet through mobiles tablets and other devices. [20] With so many accessing the internet each minute, it is clear that in the new age of cyber savvy netizens voting probably for the first time this year, Social Media will prove to be the clinching factor.



Facebook out on top!

Once restricted to college students, Facebook's fastestgrowing demographic is users over 18. MySpace is another social networking site gaining popularity

John Haydon in his essay non-profits are better than brands at Social media states, "Nonprofits seem to "get" social media way more than brands. Or at least they have a baked-in advantage. Brands spend billions trying to get people to feel passionate about them. And still very few, like Starbucks, Apple and Google, actually succeed that. As long as they keep this seed alive in their culture and in how they treat their supporters, they will kick ass in fundraising, employee happiness, and changing the world. Never forget the seed that is the nonprofit. The seed that once exclaimed "I want to make the world and awesome place!" (9)

Having an online presence can definitely help nonprofits spread their message and their demographic range. While more and more people spend their time accessing Twitter, Facebook, LinkedIn and other social media sites, one can get one's name out there when plugged in as well says Tina Samuels in Social Media & Non profits . (10)

Jennifer James in an article on Effective use of Social Media for Change avers "The past few years have seen the critical rise and mass adoption of social media for social change. As global conversations have escalated around using social networks to reach new audiences and spread philanthropic and charitable messages, questions still remain about how to effectively use social media to achieve measured results in communication strategy." (11)

Pioneering Work: Iclc2013-305 The use of New and Social Media during Red Ribbon Express' Uttar Pradesh run 2010 was a unique effort to use cutting edge technology to create awareness on a social issue. For the first time ever a sensitive health campaign on an issue such as HIV AIDS was explored through social media in rural and backward regions of Uttar Pradesh. It was found that New & Social Media was an extremely effective tool for swift and economic communication.



The RRE/ Red Ribbon Express was launched in India on World AIDS Day, December 1, 2007. The seven coach train was flagged off by UPA Chairperson Mrs. Sonia Gandhi. The Red Ribbon Express became the first time information and awareness about HIV/AIDS was disseminated through a train service, Indian Railways. The Red Ribbon Express train has travelled more than 27000 kilometers across India bringing a special message of AIDS awareness to more than 50 000 towns and villages. "The Red

Ribbon Express has carried messages about HIV to all corners of the country," stated Michel Sidibé, UNAIDS Executive Director. "This train has been a profound success—ensuring young people get support and learn about AIDS and how to protect themselves from HIV." (12)

The Red Ribbon Express' second phase was flagged off again by UPA Chairperson, Mrs Sonia Gandhi on World AIDS Day, 2009. This second phase aimed to reach out to a larger portion of the rural poor and the government hoped that more people would get tested and treated. (13)

The Experiment

While HIV AIDS awareness and prevention was a great concern, it dawned upon UNICEF's Uttar Pradesh Office to ensure efficacy of media coverage and create a buzz about the RRE on its IInd run in UP in 2010 through live documentation on social media.

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This would serve two purposes, firstly to ensure immediate transference of knowledge from the 17 reporting stations in the state and keep media interest alive during the journey of the RRE through Uttar Pradesh. Secondly it would also create a buzz on social media networks about the RRE initiative and make available photos, videos and write-ups almost live for all those interested in following the RRE's journey through Uttar Pradesh. (14)

Red Ribbon Express in 2012

The Red Ribbon Express in 2012 visited 23 states, stopping at 162 stations. It reached more than 10 million people with messages about HIV prevention in rural India. The focus of the train's year–long journey across India was on mobilizing adolescents and youth. In the most populous state of Uttar Pradesh it once again covered maximum territory and create a buzz even though the response in the media—both traditional and social media was not as strong as the earlier campaign as campaign strategy did not specifically target these groups as in 2010.

Strategy

In the 2010 run, efficacy of Social Media as a sensitization tool was put to test by two teams comprising a scribe, photographer and videographer in each who embarked on a hectic, adrenaline surging journey to document this amazing campaign through the rural interiors of the

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state. The result was phenomenal coverage and media sensitization to the cause of HIV/ AIDS and exhaustive media coverage.

When working in the world of social change, it's easy to get excited about a new campaign when one is inspired by hope or outraged by injustice. But in the scramble to make change happen, one can forget about the tactics and tools that actually help implement the visions for a better world. Three sometimes-overlooked components of digital campaigns that are essential for success are: a) Tangible goals, and tactics to meet them. Many well-meaning groups often paint their goals with broad strokes that are difficult to measure Or, their goals are so narrow and out of reach that they leave little room for casual bystanders to interact with the campaign. b) One must have metrics tools at the ready. Once the goals are set, it's critical before the campaign launches to make sure all the tools are in place to measure potential impact and c) Sample posts to share make it easy for supporters to get the word out about the campaign: One should create sample tweets, or suggested Facebook text, that can be used as templates to share with their networks. These samples should be included in the emails one sends out to make it easier to get the word out. It was the effective use of these tools that contributed to the success of the campaign. (15)

Tools Used & Findings

Intensive use of new and social media tools were applied to ensure the success of the campaign. Good quality internet coverage through private internet service providers helped ensure prompt reportage and e-tools--email, SMS, Twitter, Facebook and Orkut were liberally used to provide updates of progress, facts and regular news items, features, photos and videos. It is this constant flushing of information to the media that resulted in exhaustive coverage of the campaign. The team travelling with the Red Ribbon Express was pleasantly surprised to find good quality

Internet access and concluded that signals across the state were sufficiently reliable to support constant news transmittal through email/SMS/ Photo and Videos.

Though a challenging assignment, effective planning and selection of media persons on the documentation team can ensure maintenance of deadline sanctity and ensure proper coverage.

Achievements

Unprecedented media coverage received for RRE 2010 which resulted in UPSACS receiving the award from NACO for best performance rated at an All-India level over 23 states and a commendation for the team which conducted the outreach initiative.

Gap Analysis

While New Media and Social Media use has proliferated over the last decade, most research studies have concentrated on Social Media Marketing. While several NGOs in the development sector are using the tools of the same, there was no study available to indicate the benefits of its usage nor point at the efficacy of using the same to propagate Communication Plans.

There was thus a need to study the feasibility of using New Media and Social Media techniques in rural set ups in the background of HIV-AIDS and test its efficacy in reducing spending on traditional Communication Budgets.

Future Prospects: Data Deluge

There are over 2.1 billion plus Internet users in the world today with over 45% of them in Asia alone and over 5.3 billion mobile subscribers — 77% of world's population! Some 500 million to 1 billion people access Internet via mobile, many of them only through mobile. Almost 1 in 5 global mobile subscribers have access to fast mobile Internet (3G+). Today 85%+ of new handsets can access mobile Web. In 2011 alone, a total 8 trillion text messages were sent! (17) As the impact and efficacy of New and Social Media increases, bodies like the United Nations stress that more NGOs use these tools to raise public awareness of their cause, utilize the same for fund raising, to reach new constituents & supporters, build a community of passionate champions and get people to take real-world actions.

However, one needs to remain realistic. In order to enhance existing communications programs one must understand that social media is a series of stages: Crawl, Walk, Run, fly. One should create a Strategic Plan with realistic, concrete goals, identify internal and external champions. And consider how one can create content and induce outsiders to create content. (18)

This pilot research has tested the ground for a further study of the impact and outreach of New & Social Media in backward areas of the state can conclusively lead to further study in the field to promote successful communication and sensitization campaigns by NGOs using New and Social Media techniques.

Infinite Possibilities

Despite being an area that has witnessed exponential growth and virtually changed the field of communication in the last decade, research on New & Social Media which plays a vital role as an inexpensive and expedient method of outreach, is negligible.

Social Media is all about reaching out to masses and connecting with them. That is what NGOs want to do. Only a few NGOs have surfaced in India, a very few have expanded and created an impact on the community. Blame it on the abundance of social issues and lack of transparency in the country. Known or unknown, small or big, every NGO can leverage the power of social media if done correctly.

NGOs need communities to reach out to and engage, what better way than social media platforms. NGOs need to viral out a message; social media has the potential to spread things around. NGOs need to raise funds; social media is just the right place to connect with the right people.

To put it simply, social media can get the attention of people to the issues that matter the most. One should work to create a social impact: Make a burning issue, their issue: Social Media is all ears to social issues. People love talking about problems and suggesting a solution. An NGO must make their supporters believe that by helping them, they are only helping themselves.

Lead by an example: Fighting for a cause is never an easy task. Updating a couple of posts on Facebook and tweeting one's problems is not going to get one any attention. To make a

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representation on an issue, one must lead by an example. Use of blogs, tweets shares, Linked In profiles and discussion boards will help create awareness on the issue. (19)

With mobile telephones reaching almost the very heart of rural hinterlands it is now possible to explore whether new communication plans using Internet and Satellite telephony and Social media can be utilized by NGOs to reach rural hinterlands.

With a 51.7% increase expected in the Indian subcontinent in Social Media users, the time is ripe to usher in a new digital revolution which entails the use of inexpensive efficient and prompt tools to aid social causes like HIV/AIDS research and communication. With transliteration and translation tools available across various e-platforms, the stage has come when these will be the tools of the future to push intensive research and study in these spheres. The field is now open to innovative communicators who wish to take the lead and take e-communication to ne heights in this digital age.

As the popularity of social media continues to grow, backed by successful IPOs from Twitter, LinkedIn and Facebook, Patrick Clinger, whose company, ProBoards, recently surveyed this evolving landscape, made six predictions about what's likely to happen in the social media market for 2014. "It's hard to see how 2014 can top 2013 in terms of sheer seismic activity in the social media industry," said Clinger. "But there are bound to be new platforms and technologies emerging as well as continued industry consolidation."

Companies will increasingly come to rely on the advantages of a forum-based, crowd-sourced solution as a resource for both customer support and marketing. The continuing trend towards mobile devices for everyday content consumption will move faster, putting an even greater emphasis on designing social media experiences for hand-held devices. (20)

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Abstract

The research objectives were to compare the level of creativity before and after the application of set of creative activities and idea sharing through communication with social media program and to evaluate the satisfaction towards idea sharing through communication with social media program.

The research method was quantitative research using two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was to compare the level of creativity before and after the application in overview and in each activity. The second questionnaire was to evaluate the satisfaction of idea sharing through communication with social media program. The quantitative data was then analyzed by t-test dependent, frequency and percentage.

The research findings were as follows:

1. The level of creativity after the application was higher than before, significantly different at .05.

2. Among twelve creative activities in the set, the students' view towards activities most promoting creativity were activity 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 12 with means 5.00, 4.67, 4.50, 4.50, 4.83, 4.83, 5.00 respectively and activities viewed as promoting creativity were activity 1, 2, 4, and 5 with means 4.33, 4.17, 4.33 and 4.33 respectively.

3. The satisfaction of idea sharing through communication was viewed to be at a good level. (X=4.47).

The research findings indicated that creativity could be increased if there were approaches to help promote creativity. The set of creative activities and idea sharing through communication with social media program were viewed as useful and practical approaches stimulating creativity as the results suggested that they could help promote creativity.

Keywords: Set of creative activities, Idea sharing, Communication with Social Media Program, Creativity

Background of the Study

Innovation and creativity are essential for sustainable growth and economic development and the ultimate cause of all innovation is human creativity (Business and Industry Advisory Committee to the OECD, 2004). If human creativity can be developed and enhanced, the potential of personal and organizational growth and development will be higher. Kraiyot Patarawat (2013) stated that the capability of educational system to promote innovation and creativity will be the critical success factor for economic system in 21st century and there were increasing curriculum development emphasizing on 21st century competencies, which aimed for learning process and creativity to create innovation to promote sustainable economic growth in the future in many countries such as Singapore and South Korea.

However, the research center of Bangkok University published results from the survey of Thai people in the topics of "Creativity and Nation Development". They were asked for their thoughts

whether Thai people lacked creativity or not. The results showed that 66.20% agreed that Thai people lacked creativity with supporting reasons such as not thinking out of the box, imitating others, no supporting system to build up creativity and not building up on ideas. Moreover, 81.50% thought that universities should play an important role in promoting creativity (Research Center, Bangkok University, 2012).

In fact, many studies show that creative abilities can be developed by the implementation of creativity techniques (Mansfield, Busse and Krepelka, 1978, Parnes and Brunelle, 1967, Rose and Lin, 1984 and Taylor, 1972) as creativity is present in everyone. It can be learned, practiced and developed by the use of proven techniques which, enhancing and stimulating the creative abilities, ideas and creative results, help people to move out of their normal problem-solving mode, to enable them to consider a wide range of alternatives and to improve productivity and quality of work (Sefertzi, 2000).

Adult education and other parts of educational systems are confronted with demands that their learning environments and teaching practices should foster creativity (Rasmussen, 2012) while Corso & Robinson (2013) indicated in their research that most universities acknowledge creativity as a valuable graduate quality/attribute but often this does not translate this into teaching practice. Moody (2002) also stated the view that people become less creative as they grow older is widely shared and David Straker (in Hoban, 2010) stated that as adults, we do become less creative, but not in traditional way. Our continued creative decline is more due to falling into a number of traps than the fading of old age as following

1. Habitual ossification. Where creativity does fade away is when we do not use it. "Use it or lost it", as they say. One of the biggest culprits here is the simple pattern of human habit. Once we start doing something one way, we get comfortable with it and then do not change or vary it.

2. Expert trap. Those of us who do study and become experts can easily fall into the expert trap, where experts can spend more time defending their hill than building it further.

3. Unintelligent closure. Intelligence is, to some extent related to creativity, and brighter people generally are able to be more creative. Another reason is the premature closure of quick thinking, where bright people get it in seconds flat and hence stop any further divergent thinking.

Furthermore, there was pressure from environment obstructing creativity as Heilman (2005) stated that creativity often requires a fostering environment. Creativity remained a topic of relatively low interest in both educational and psychological research until the later part of the twentieth century, when researchers began studying how to stimulate creative individuals and how their environment impacted their creativity (Harring-Smith, 2006) while Davidson (2003) stated that creativity thrives in an environment that allows exploring, communicating and skills-building. Therefore, recently, more attention is being paid to social and environmental factors that influence creativity (Kerka, 1999). Researchers have increasingly focused on the social and environmental factors which promote or limit an individual's creative activity (Csikszentmahaliyi in Sternberg, 1999).

Sternberg and Lubart (1991) and Torrance (1981) suggested that the environmental context is important in stimulating creativity in three ways: (a) "Sparking" creative ideas, (b) encouraging follow-up of creative ideas, and (c) evaluating and rewarding creative ideas.

Creativity is the generation of imaginative new ideas (Newell and Shaw, 1972). Therefore, the environment where creative ideas were simply, freely and socially generated and shared to stimulate

creativity was essential but communication face to face is the base of the complex and unpredictable process of coming up with new ideas (Hylerstedt, 2012) while idea sharing propels creativity so the right kind of communication is needed to help propel creativity along with social networking platforms and online communities, which are now an integral part of student's everyday lives and increasingly albeit informally their educational experience (Corso & Robinson, 2013).

Jackson and Sinclair (in Jackson and et.al, 2006) discuss a strategy for developing the student's creativity and designed a teaching and learning system to help students develop their creative potential. This system includes teachers developing their own understanding about what it means in terms of the context of their teaching, and teachers revealing their creativity.

Next, encourage students to articulate and construct their own meaning of creativity in the context of what they are studying and learning. In addition, teachers can show the students they value their understandings and help them widen their range of perceptions. Fourth, students should be given an opportunity to experience and practice their creativity by creating the curriculum spaces, conditions, and experiences that are stimulating, relevant, and authentic to their field of study.

Fifth, give the students challenging problems that allow the students to practice being creative and by asking what if and how questions, so students can become critical evaluators of their own creativity. Finally, evaluate students against their own potential, using portfolios and their own self-evaluation. In other words, the assessment should be criterion and not norm-referenced.

Frank Williams (1993) presented the Williams Model based on studies of the creative person and process. This model has three dimensions as following.

Dimension 1: This consists of subjects that make up the school curriculum.

Dimension 2: This comprises 18 strategies to be used by the teacher to develop student thinking and creativity.

Dimension 3: This consists of eight student processes that have been shown empirically to be involved in creative thinking.

These processes include the opportunity for creative thinking (characterized by fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration). The teaching strategies also enable the expression of the personality factors of curiosity, imagination, risk-taking and complexity that have been identified as important processes for the expression of creativity.

This model provides a useful framework for developing activities that will provide stimulation and the opportunity for thinking such as following.

1. Paradox. At first glance this is something that appears to be counter–intuitive. Paradoxes can be used to evaluate ideas and challenge students to reason and find proof.

2. Attribute Listing. This involves the skill of analysis. Students can be asked to list the attributes of or list the properties of something.

3. Analogy. Students find the similarities between things and compare one thing to another.

4. Discrepancy. Williams is referring to the exploration of deficiencies in a person's understanding. Students should be challenged to discuss what is not known or understood

5. Provocative Question. These are questions that require thoughtful consideration to clarify meaning or develop new knowledge. Many types of challenging questions can be posed to elicit

higher-order thinking using Bloom's taxonomy, e.g. questions that require analysis, synthesis and evaluation

6. Examples of Change. Demonstrate the dynamic nature of things, make modifications or alterations.

7. Examples of Habit. Teach about rigidity, fixations and habit

8. Organized Random Search. Given a situation or body of knowledge possibly from an historical context ask students to search for other information to answer questions such as, what would you do or what would you have done? Justify your response

9. Skills of Search. This involves searching for ways that something has been done before or searching for the current status of something. For example, looking for cause and effect, analyzing results, drawing conclusions

10. Tolerance for Ambiguity. In other words, an observation could mean one thing or it could mean something else. Pose open–ended questions, provide situations that puzzle. This is a good technique that leads to self–directed learning

11. Intuitive Expression. Being sensitive to inward hunches or nudges

12. Adjustment to Development. Learn from mistakes and failures. Show how failure, mistakes and accidents have led to the discovery of worthwhile things

13. Study Creative Process. Analyze the traits and characteristics of eminently creative people through biographies

14. Evaluate Situations. Evaluate solutions and answers in terms of their consequences and implications by posing the question what if?

15. Creative Reading Skills. Students generate as many ideas as possible after reading a text, which can stimulate a student to develop new ideas

16. Creative Listing Skills. This is the skill of generating ideas by listening

17. Creative Writing Skills. This is the skill of generating and communicating ideas through writing

18.Visualization Skills. Provide opportunities for students to perceive or visualize themselves in many contexts

Katz (2003) also recommended vision creation technique with the purpose to stimulate the search for desired things by looking forward to the future.

Davies (1991) and Davies & Rim (1985) stated that besides using individual assignments to stimulate creativity, teachers should provide situations for students to participate in group activities. However, participation in activities requires communication (Diouf, 1994) as Hylerstedt (2012) stated that the creative process is a communication process. Creativity happens through communication and to be creative is simply to generate ideas that are original and simultaneously useful while social media program is believed to unleash creativity (Heilman, 2005) if used as communication channel.

As a result, the key to promote creativity may involve creative activities, idea sharing and communication channel with social media program to help propel creativity. Therefore, applying creative activities and share creative ideas through the use of social media program seems to have a very high potential to help build a creative environment and use it as a useful and practical tool to promote creativity as society looks to the future, the creative person will be the individual in demand, making it urgent for educators to be a role model and a guide that will lead today's student into the future (Marriner, 1979).

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Research Objectives

1. Compare the level of creativity before and after the application of set of creative activities and idea sharing through communication with social media program

2. Evaluate the satisfaction towards idea sharing through communication with social media program

Methodology

The research method was quantitative research using two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was to compare the level of creativity before and after the application of set of creative activities in overview and in details by using self-rater questionnaire to measure the perception of level of creativity in form of numeral rating scale.

There were 12 creative activities purposively selected from 18 activities of the William Model and the vision creation technique according to the convenience and easiness in creating situations and questions according to those selected activities. Creative activities were attribute, example of change, an organized random search, creative person and creative process, perspectives, analogies, skill of search, visualization skill, example of habit, creative writing skills, vision creation, and evaluating situation.

The second questionnaire was to evaluate the satisfaction of idea sharing through communication with social media program by using 5-point Likert Scale measuring satisfaction.

Experts helped verify two questionnaires before applying to students and the researcher took advice and adjusted accordingly.

The samples were 6 students selected by purposive sampling from graduate students who enrolled in Innovation Management and Technology course in Business and Computer Education, Vocational Education Department, Faculty of Education, Kasetsart University during the first semester of 2013 academic year.

12 creative activities were posted via Facebook, which is one of social media programs most popular and most used by students. Students were then encouraged to participate in those activities and communicate to generate, share and build up on ideas via Facebook.

The researcher then examined the application of set of creative activities and idea sharing through communication with social media program with two questionnaires mentioned above. Quantitative data was then analyzed by t-test dependent, frequency, percentage and mean.

Results

The results from the research were as following:

1. Compare the level of creativity before and after the application of set of creative activities and idea sharing through communication with social media program

				N=6
Creativity	Х	S.D.	t	Р
Pre-test	3.68	0.81	2.03*	0.0490
Post-test	3.98	0.53		

Table 1: Level of Creativity before and after the application in overview

*the mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Data from Table 1 indicated that the level of creativity after the application of set of creative activities through idea sharing with social media program was higher than before, significantly different at .05.

Table 2: Level of Creativity after the application in details (Frequency & Percentage)

Ν	=6
	-

Activity	Most I	Promoting	Very 1	Promoting	Average	Promoting	Less I	Promoting	Least 1	Promoting
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1	2	33.33	4	66.66	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	2	33.33	3	50.00	1	16.66	-	-	-	-
3	6	100.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	1	16.66	5	83.33	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	2	33.33	4	66.66	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	4	66.66	2	33.33	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	3	50.00	3	50.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	4	66.66	1	16.66	1	16.66	-	-	-	
9	5	83.33	1	16.66	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	5	83.33	1	16.66	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	3	50.00	2	33.33	1	16.66	-	-	-	-
12	6	100.00	-	-	-	-				

Data from Table 2 indicated that all students agreed that each creative activity could promote creativity ranging from average promoting, very promoting and most promoting level.

Table 3: Student's View towards Level of Creativity in each activity (Mean and S.D.)	
N=6)

Activity	Mean	S.D.	Interpretation
1	4.33	0.52	Very Promoting Creativity
2	4.17	0.75	Very Promoting Creativity
3	5.00	0.00	Most Promoting Creativity
4	4.17	0.41	Very Promoting Creativity
5	4.33	0.52	Very Promoting Creativity
6	4.67	0.52	Most Promoting Creativity

7	4.50	0.55	Most Promoting Creativity
8	4.50	0.84	Most Promoting Creativity
9	4.83	0.41	Most Promoting Creativity
10	4.83	0.41	Most Promoting Creativity
11	4.33	0.82	Very Promoting Creativity
12	5.00	0.00	Most Promoting Creativity

Data from Table 3 indicated that among twelve creative activities in the set, the students' view towards activities most promoting creativity were activity 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 12 with means 5.00, 4.67, 4.50, 4.50, 4.83, 4.83, 5.00 respectively and activities viewed as promoting creativity were activity 1, 2, 4, and 5 with means 4.33, 4.17, 4.33 and 4.33 respectively.

2. Evaluate the satisfaction towards idea sharing through communication with social media program

 Table 4: Student's Satisfaction towards idea sharing through communication with Social Media Program

 N=6

			N=6
Activity	Mean	S.D.	Interpretation
1	4.50	0.55	Most Satisfied
2	4.17	0.75	Satisfied
3	5.00	0.00	Most Satisfied
Activity	Mean	S.D.	Interpretation
4	4.67	0.52	Most Satisfied
5	4.00	0.63	Satisfied
6	4.33	0.52	Satisfied
7	4.33	0.52	Satisfied
8	4.67	0.82	Most Satisfied
9	4.33	0.52	Satisfied
10	4.83	0.41	Most Satisfied

11	4.17	0.98	Satisfied
12	4.67	0.82	Most Satisfied

*mean = 4.47 (in a good level of satisfaction)

Data from table 4 indicated that the satisfaction of idea sharing through communication was viewed to be at a good level. (X=4.47).

Discussion

Results showed promoted creativity from the application of set of creative activities and idea sharing through communication with social media program, which leads us to believe that creativity can be increased with right supporting factors as following:

Right Creative Activity

The set of creative activities can be used as learning activities to support creativity. Strong evidence demonstrated that creativity can be trained, developed and practiced in accordance to research studies showing that creativity can be built (Corso & Robinson, 2013) by the implementation of proven creativity techniques (Mansfield, Busse and Krepelka, 1978, Parnes and Brunelle, 1976, Rose and Lin, 1984, Sefertzi, 2000 and Taylor, 1972) to enhance and stimulate the creative abilities, ideas and creative results, help people to move out of their normal problem-solving mode, to enable them to consider a wide range of alternatives and to improve productivity and quality of work despite of many pressure from environment.

Evidence from this research also confirmed the increased creativity if there are creative activities in place to help draw, practice and develop to promote creativity while Davies (1991) and Davies & Rim (1985) stated that besides using individual assignments to stimulate creativity, teachers should provide situations for students to participate in group activities. If right creative activity is properly built, the possibility of increased creativity will be higher.

Right Communication

Communication can be used as learning tool to facilitate idea sharing to support creativity as participation in activities needs communication (Diouf, 1994) and Davidson (2003) stated that creativity thrives in an environment that allows exploring, communicating and skills-building.

The findings was in accordance with what Hylerstedt (2012) stated that the creative process is a communication process and creativity happens through communication as there are three main characteristics of communication that are the foundation of creativity, that is, unmediated communication face to face, which is the base of the complex and unpredictable process of coming up with new ideas, open thought exchange as a free flow of ideas, knowledge and experience, which is realized and encouraged through communication and positive climate and feedback in organizational communication, which give rise to more ideas by decreasing the fear of critique and by forming a creative identity in the organization.

Right Communication Channel

The communication channel via Facebook, which is one of social media programs can be used as communication channel to support idea sharing in the creative process as creativity is about Iclc2013-319

exchanging ideas and communication is utilized to discuss those ideas by encouraging student input from idea exchanging and discussing those input through social media program that students have expertise in using.

Communication with social media program seemed to be easier than face-to-face communication in order to access, exchange and share ideas freely at any time and any place when their ideas are available in accordance with recommendations for allowing time for students to think about and develop their creative ideas as not all creativity occurs immediately and spontaneously and letting everyone get involved, and demonstrate the value of involvement by supporting student ideas and solutions to problems and projects (Feldhusen & Treffinger, 1980).

It can also be used as helping learning management tool to support creativity as social media program is viewed as the tool that suits student's lives and fit for their lifestyles (either time or place) in order to support creative activities, facilitate learning, communicate ideas and connect to other students as Simpson (2010) stated that using technology, individuals can be more engaged in the global communication and teachers can develop a teaching format that focuses on a learner-centered environment, stimulates the child's creativity, and help them go beyond their immediate experiences and observation.

Furthermore, the use of social media program in higher education as part of a learning management system is becoming increasingly common and moving beyond mere instructional approaches that characterize a lot of traditional teaching. Social networking platforms and online communities are now an integral part of student's everyday lives and increasingly albeit informally their educational experience and there was an opportunity to develop the pedagogy based on greater learner engagement in how knowledge is presented and processed, and acknowledged peer review processes that enhance dialogue and content creation in how creative ideas are developed and reviewed to harness its educational potential in an effort to foster creative thinking (Corso & Robinson, 2013).

Conclusion and Recommendation

It can be concluded that the application of set of creative activities and idea sharing through communication with social media program can promote creativity as it has a positive impact and can be used as useful and practical approaches to stimulate creativity. Therefore, it is recommended for instructors to take into consideration in building the learning environment that fosters creativity by using creative activities and idea sharing through communication with social media program to stimulate student creativity.

However, more research is necessary to measure the exact level of creativity instead of measuring perception of creativity increase and there may be many creative activities or techniques to choose from, which students may be encouraged to select their activities or techniques that they prefer instead of the selection by teachers.

Future Research

Further research may consider the change of outcomes from promoted creativity to a much more tangible outcome such as creative product or project to measure the exact level of creativity instead of measuring perception of creativity increase, which is quite intangible to measure. In addition, the study of the relationship between age and creativity by selecting bachelor degree students to compare

the differences between bachelor degree students and master degree students may be useful to explore the interrelationship between age and creativity.

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Abstract

The study aims to identify the relationships between technology acceptance of movie mobile advertising and purchase intentions in the pursue of creating movie mobile branding. Technology Acceptance Model was used, as it is most suitable in predicting the acceptance of computer-based technology based on technology use and usefulness in various fields. The main objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between technology acceptance (use and usefulness) towards movie mobile advertising and purchase intention. Positive acceptances of a mobile advertising have lead to the emergence of a mobile branding. Data was randomly collected from 400 Twitter users in Malaysia using simple random sampling and was analyzed with statistical analysis (SPSS) using descriptive and correlation analysis. The findings of this paper advocate that technology acceptance (use and usefulness) in movie mobile advertising contributed significantly towards movie purchase intention and the setup of mobile branding of movies in the country. This paper introduces the contribution of use and usefullness in the study of communication utilizing mobile telecommunication technology and the creation of mobile branding of movies in Malaysia.

Keywords: mobile advertising; marketing; movie advertising

Introduction

Film production was introduced in Malaysia in the 1930s during the colonial era. The Malaysian government formed FINAS (National Film Development Corporation Malaysia) in 1981 to aid, to improve and to control the growth of the national film industry. From that moment onwards, the indigenous business of filming was transformed into a much proper and accepted national industry that is contribute to the nation's percent of wealth (Ahmad, 2000). Malaysian film industry however contributes insignificantly to the Malaysian economy. Therefore, the onset and state of development of mobile digital media in the global marketing practices is expected to embody new opportunities and encounters to movie marketers. Chang and Villegas (2008) argued that smart phones have remarkable potential in terms of delivering advertisements because of its ability to instill high penetration rate. In fact, they claimed that it is the only advertising medium that consumers bring with them almost anywhere they go, with by logic is true.

Since the past five years, mobile phone subscriptions in Malaysia have shown an increasing trend (Eng & Masri, 2010). Not only in this country, immense potential of mobile advertising to succeed in conjunction with high penetration and subscriptions rate were also found in other countries (Adham, K. A., Said, M. F., Ramlee, S., & Hannien, S., 2008; Basheer & Ibrahim, 2010; Beneke, Cumming, Stevens, & Versfeld, 2010; Friedrich, Grone, Holbling, & Peterson, 2009; Gao, Sultan, & Rohm,

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In Malaysia, Noor, M. N. M., Sreenivasan, J., and Ismail, H. (2013) recently did a study demonstrating significant relationships between the consumers' attitude towards mobile advertising, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and their intention to purchase products and services. Bidin, R., & Abu Bakar, S. (2013) also did similar study but much focused on movie mobile advertising. Positive attitudes towards movie mobile advertising and purchase intentions in Malaysia were found from the study.

Davis (1989); and Norazah Mohd Suki and Norbayah Mohd Suki (2011) have also studied the use and usefulness of mobile advertising and found positive relations to purchase intention of products advertised. Due to that reason, it is essential to study the use and usefulness aspect of mobile advertising to ensure future promotional movie programs conducted via mobile devices can be accepted without prejudice in Malaysia. This study wanted to further understand in terms of use and usefulness of the subject matter towards purchase intention of movie tickets as attitudes towards the subject matter has been studied before in Malaysia and was recorded, positive. This is further enhanced by the speedy development of the use of social media that has created top of the plan for many corporate officials today. Many of social media network providers try to ascertain ways in which companies will be able to create money-spinning usage of applications of Facebook, Twitter and blogs. The items used in this study were items adopted from studies of Pedersen (2003) and Serenko & Bontis (2004) that have already found positive correlation between technology acceptance (use, usefulness) and mobile advertising that led to mobile branding of a particular product. Therefore the objectives of this paper are to investigate Twitter users' technology acceptance after receiving movie mobile advertisement, to investigate Twitter users' purchase intention after receiving movie mobile advertisement and to determine the relationships between Twitter technology acceptances with purchase intention. The end result of this study will determine whether technology acceptance of movie mobile advertisements will lead to the emergence of a movie mobile branding.

Movie Mobile Marketing

Rapid proliferations of mobile marketing around the world were caused by loads of factors. Such factors can be the global connectivity, user-friendliness, interoperability of the Internet towards human race and many others. Abdullah (2004) found that Malaysian claimed that possessing a mobile phone is a fundamental part of their life even in the early stage of Internet development. These sets of people will naturally be dependent on technology as they've regarded the mobile phone as a way to express themselves besides the old tool for interaction (Ito and Okabe, 2004). Studies from other scholars also suggested that the usages of mobile phones are fashionable and current. This situation is contrary to older generations who usually see the importance of mobile phones in the perspective of social or business purposes (Bianchi & Phillips, 2005).

Mobile marketing is a new lifestyle that offers superfluity of technology that motions mobility and convenience to its users, and in some occasions it offers better prospects

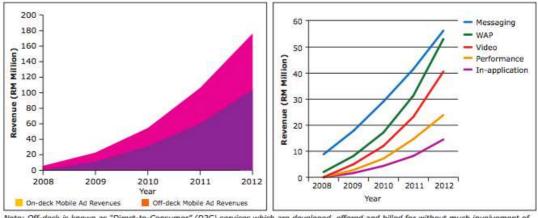
to marketers in their quest to reach their customers wherever they may be (Rayfield, 2010). She further elaborated 9 types of mobile marketing namely; short message service (SMS); multi-media message service (MMS); Mobile Applications; Bluetooth Wireless Proximity Based Marketing; Location-Based Marketing; quick-response barcodes (QR Codes); Pay Per Call Mobile; Voice Marketing; and Mobile Banner Ads.

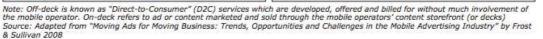
One famous mobile marketing medium is Twitter. Numerous researches conducted on the practices of Twitter as mobile advertising. Twitter is said as vital in terms of internal communication (Ehrlich and Shami, 2010; Riemer and Richter, 2010; and Zhao and Rosson, 2009); as an online listening tool (Van den Putte, and Bas, 2009); and as crowd sourcing medium to understand a particular phenomenon (Ehrlich and Shami, 2010). In the situation of movie advertising, these social networks were taken seriously and regarded as an instrument to generate words of mouth electronically and as a new viral marketing device (Asur and Huberman, 2010). Nowadays, as it is already made known that consumers fundamentally have accepted and embraced the mobile life in the life cycle, the smartphone market is blasting to a maximum rate thanks to the love of Apple's iPhone, RIM's Blackberry and Google's Android.

Companies and content providers are aiming to reach niche communities in rural areas with lower PC penetration. According to a report on Malaysia's internet penetration (The Digital Media Across Asia, accessed August 20, 2012), Malaysia is one of the main users in the world with a 0.47% share of voice; the third biggest user of Twitter in Southeast Asia behind only Indonesia (2.34%) and Singapore (0.88%); and there will be an estimated total of 866,280 Twitter users in Malaysia by the end of 2013. Malaysian also mostly uses social networking sites for social engagement; to keep in touch with the people they concern; and to discover local the latest happenings in local scenes.

As in figure 1, total mobile advertising revenues in Malaysia were predicted to rise from RM10.4 million at the end of 2008, and the forecasted 2012 total revenue was RM175.5 million.

Figure 1: Mobile Advertising Revenue Forecast for Malaysia (2008-2012) Source:<u>http://www.skmm.gov.my/skmmgovmy/files/attachments/Ad_Dev_Malaysia.</u> <u>pdf</u> Mobile Advertising Market: Revenue Forecast (2008-2012)





The bonding between advertising movies through mobile phones has become a world hot niche. At first, mobile advertising has the critical role of updating movie-goers about play times for movies at their specific local theaters, which makes the medium of keen interest to film marketers. This then leads to the creation of various applications to cater for various other technological demands. Ahmad (2007) however, regards Malaysian filmmakers as failed capitalist for unable to balance production process (film making costs), distribution (advertising) and exhibition (sustainability of product in the market). He argued that poor ticket sales in local movie market could occur because most filmmakers are still opted for traditional paid media to advertise their products. This is further supported by Herwina Rosnan, Mohd Nazari Ismail, Norzaidi Mohd Daud (2010) that found difficulty to increase ticket sales in Malaysia as many filmmakers are still using conventional advertising medium to promote movies in Malaysian small domestic market. Unfortunately, traditional promotional activities might no longer cut it for local films to do so (Vogel, 2001). As Hoskins and McFadyen (1991) suggested that films should be first successful in the local market in order to penetrate the international market, this problem has definitely become a big block in attracting international attention towards local productions. Thus, it is very important for Malaysian filmmakers and moviegoers to have awareness and right attitude in the promotion of movies using mobile marketing.

Mobile Advertising and Branding

A positive correlation between use and usefulness of mobile advertising has led to strong mobile branding in various products in Malaysia such as Tiger Beer. However, there have yet studies testing the potential of making movies as a mobile brand. In regards to Tiger Beer, the needs to re-build their brand started when they realized that the Malaysia beer market is getting crowded each year, with an array of various generic brand jostling for attention and offers. Tiger Beer needed to remain relevant among its young target audience of 21- to 30-year-olds. At the same time, they wanted to strengthen brand positioning and increase loyalty, and ultimately increase share of the market. Using mobile advertising and positive acceptance of it, perception of Tiger as 'a beer for good times and fun' increased by 14 per cent; an additional 12 per cent of consumers described the beer as one 'my friends approved of'; and consumption among young adults increased by six per cent. Tiger Beer has successfully re-brand themselves using mobile advertising ("Case study: Building," 2009).

That is why, the role of mobile advertising as an effective marketing tool in reaching the mass and creating a mobile brand has long being agreed (Scharl, A., Dickenger, A. and Murphy, J., 2005). In the study, it was found that respondents were open to trying new and interesting things. Respondents were also found acting as innovators in adopting new technologies, according to a study by Kumar & Lim (2008). Similar to all forms of advertising, it is more efficient to have a directed campaign and the youth market demonstrates to have the greatest potential for mobile advertising campaigns. In a March 2013 survey, 38% of smartphone users ages 18 to 24 especially recalled viewing ads on a website or app while using their device. Younger consumers also showed more engagement with ads on mobile social networks, with 27% of younger respondents clicking on ads. This is a rising trends as young adult UK consumers are progressively likely to use smartphones. It is also estimated that 84% of UK consumers ages 18 to 24 will use a smartphone this year, and increase to 98% by 2017 ("Uk young adults," 2013). Thus, results of a research conducted by Muk (2007) on American and Korean university students were no surprise. Muk found a positive relationship between consumer attitudes and beliefs and their intention to prefer to participate in mobile advertising. Additionally, the attitudes of Koreans towards mobile advertising were more positive than Americans.

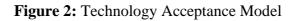
Studies on the subject matter was continued by other scholars such as Hanley & Becker (2008) matter by finding that the perceived risks of receiving mobile advertisements (annoyance) are not a barrier towards mobile advertisement acceptance among citizens. It is also found that content credibility; product profiles, personalization, consumer pattern, previous experience, privacy and permission affect a consumer's purchase intention, responses and behaviours. This is the result of a study did by Peng (2006). However, there were studies indicated that not all were receptive of mobile advertising. A study by Wais & Clemons (2008) for example found that the Americans perceived promotional messaging more positively when they receive it from friends and relatives as oppose from companies promoting their products. Chowdhury, H., Parvin, N., Weitenberner, C., & Becker, M. (2006) however claimed that when a mobile advertisement is pleasing and contains appropriate information that are useful for usages, consumers have a positive attitude toward the mobile advertisements.

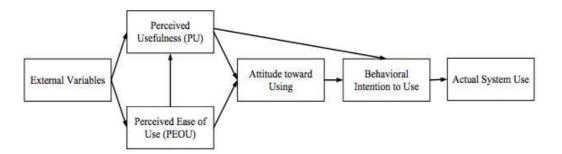
Technology Acceptance Attitude: Use and Usefulness

As time grows, so do human's behavior, their intentions and expectations. The needs to further know the use and usefulness of a product and services before making any purchasing decisions has led Davis (1989) to pioneered The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). This model expanded the Theory of Reasoned Action, developed by Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen (1975, 1980) suggesting that perceived usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEU) are also important in predicting behavioral aim in purchase intention. One using a particular system describes usefulness as the extent of an individual to believe that, it would later enhance his or her productivity. Meanwhile, perceived ease of use is defined as the extent an individual believes that by using a particular system, difficulties would be spared (Davis, 1989). Although these variables might look similar to one another, Adams, Nelson & Todd (1992) and

Davis (1989) claimed that unlike perceived ease of usefulness, perceived ease of use has an uninterrupted effect on both perceived usefulness and technology usage.

Poustchi's (2003) study on the acceptance towards mobile payment procedures found that 93% of the respondents regarded easy handling of the system as at utmost importance. 81% of the respondents specified that the ease of learning about a system is also vital. Davis (1989) coined the elements of perceived usefulness in influencing a purchase intention. It is the extent, which the user believes that using a system would improve their job performances, in a hassle-free process. If yes, then a person will commit to purchase the goods or services. Going hand in hand with the ease of use, various studies of TAM have also tested the influence of usefulness on user acceptance and/or purchase intention. 91% of the respondents in a study done by Pousttchii's (2003) found that fast, quick and hassle-free processing in mobile transactions is crucial. Such findings has enabled mobile content providers to foresee the importance of increasing the effectiveness and efficiency in other areas of mobile applications such as paying for digital content, Point of Sale (POS) payments, virtual POS, vending machines and topping up pre-paid mobile accounts.





TAM model was further prolonged to Extensive Technology Acceptance Model (ETAM) by V. Venkatesh, F.D. Davis (2000) that integrates innovation diffusion theory, perceived risk and cost into the TAM to investigate what determines user mobile commerce (MC) acceptance.

Methodology

An online survey of 50 questions using Google Docs was done to 400 Malaysian Twitter users. Simple Random Sampling method was used as suggested by Jianguo Lu, Dingding Li (2012) due to irrespective of respondent's status in a scale-free nature. According to The Digital Media Across Asia (accessed August 20, 2012), current active Twitter users in Malaysia has amounted to 2.4mil (0.47% out of 500mil active users worldwide), thus the sample chosen for this study is 400 (p=.5, >100,000) by referring to table by Israel, Glenn. D. Twitter users irrespective of age, gender and so on, were approached using the ChurpChurp and #Movies hashtag (#ChurpChurp, #Movies). According to Global (2012), current active Twitter users in Malaysia has amounted to 2.4mil (0.47% out of 500mil active users worldwide), thus the sample chosen for this study is 400 (p=.5, >100,000) by referring to table by Israel, Glenn. D. Twitter users worldwide), thus the sample chosen for this study is 400 (p=.5, >100,000) by referring to table by Israel, Glenn. D (n.d) Malaysia Twitter users irrespective of age, gender and other characteristics were approached using the ChurpChurp and Movies hashtag (#ChurpChurp, #Movies).

The research instrument in this study comprises of 4 sections, namely demographics, technology use, technology usefulness, and purchase intention. All sections except for Section 1 used 5 point Likert Scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 5 = "Strongly Agree". Crosschecking with the subject matter Professors in order to get the standardization of the questionnaire and wording of the questions was done to get the instrument's validity. Cronbach Alpha reliability test on 30 respondents for pretest gained high score (0.85). Data from 400 respondents were analysed with SPSS using descriptive statistics and correlation.

As for the operational definition of the variables, purchase intention refers to a plan of acquisition towards a particular good and the process of how consumers make consumption-related selections (Solomon, M., 2009). Use refers to then extent of an individual believes that by using a particular system, difficulties would be spared and usefulness refers to which the user believes that using a system would improve their job performances, in a hassle-free process (Davis, 1989). Movie mobile advertising refers to the interaction of movie products or services to mobile device and smart phone of customers. The mobile advertising scale sorts from short message service (SMS) text to interactive advertisement (Okazaki, S., and Taylor, C.R., 2007). Brand refers to a product, concept or service that are publicly distinguished from its competitors. It must be easily communicated usually marketed. Branding refers to the process of setting-up and dispersing the brand name (Solomon, M., 2009).

Findings and Discussions

6.1 Respondents' Characteristics

The demographic characteristics of respondents indicated that 58.3% of the respondents were male. Majority of them were Malay (89.5%), 42% of them spent 6-7 hours per day in online activities, and 50.7% were aged between 21–25. In terms of education level, 54.0% of the respondents hold a diploma, and 31.0% were STPM (Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia) graduates.

6.2 Users technology acceptance on mobile advertising promoting movies

The first objective of this study is to investigate Malaysian Twitter users' technology acceptance after receiving mobile advertisements promoting movies. Technology acceptance attitude is measured by the attitude towards technology use and technology usefulness. The items used in this study were items adopted from studies of Pedersen (2003) and Serenko & Bontis (2004) that have already found positive correlation between technology acceptance (use, usefulness) and mobile advertising that led to mobile branding of a particular product. For attitude towards technology use, it is found that, respondents agreed that movie mobile advertising has led to an easy options in recording histories of setting bookmarks in a smartphone (x=5.0, sd=0.0). Respondents also agreed that and it was easy to web navigate on movie mobile advertisements in the devise as well (x=5.0, sd=0.0). Respondents also regarded movie mobile advertisements in Twitter as most suitable because it is easy to read information on latest movie via a smartphone (x=4.5, sd=0.5). In overall, respondents agreed that mobile advertisements promoting movies were usable in their quest to seek updates about latest movies in the market (x=4.2, sd=0.4). These findings are consistent with the findings of a study done by Pedersen (2003) whom found that mobile advertisements are indeed usable to its receivers. Since the marketing environment today is jumbled with marketing communications due to

numerous market segmentations, the positive usage traits of mobile advertisements are considered vital.

Table 1: Malaysian Twitter Users' Technology Acceptance (Use) After Receiving	
Mobile Advertisements Promoting Movies. $(n = 400)$	

Use	Mean	SD
It is easy to set bookmarks on movie mobile advertisements in my smartphone.	5.00	0.000
It is easy to surf on movie mobile advertisements	5.00	0.000
in my smartphone.	4.50	0.500
It is convenient to read information on latest movie via smartphone.	4.52	0.500
Overall	4.52	0.5

As for the attitude towards technology usefulness, respondents agreed that such advertisements expand social interaction among moviegoers (x=4.5, sd=0.5) and the past browsing record on advertisements promoting movies made life easier as it can be easily accessed by its users (x=4.5, sd=0.5). Respondents also agreed that movie mobile advertisements are new value added for moviegoers (x=4.5, sd=0.5). In overall, respondents agreed on the usefulness of mobile advertisements promoting movies in acquiring and retaining information about latest movies in the market (x=4.3, sd=0.5). These findings are consistent with the findings of a study done by Serenko & Bontis (2004). This is a prove that customers are becoming a better decision maker as little by little customers decided to filter advertisements before making their purchase. This is especially when it comes to mobile advertising as it is a very new occurrence.

Table 2: Malaysian Youth Twitter Users Technology Acceptance (Usefulness) AfterReceiving Mobile Advertisements Promoting Movies (n = 400)

Usefulness	Mean	SD
Movie mobile advertisements improves social interaction among moviegoers. Past browsing record on movies can be	4.50	0.500
easily accessed.	4.50	0.500
Movie mobile advertisements are new value added for moviegoers.	4.30	0.500
Overall	4.30	0.5

Purchase intentions after receiving mobile advertisements promoting movies

The second objective of this study is to investigate the respondents' purchasing intentions after receiving movie mobile advertisements. The respondents almost agree that they have positive intention towards purchasing after receiving movie mobile advertising (x=3.9). They had given positive remarks to continuously read all the movie mobile advertisement messages they receive in the future (x=4.5, sd=0.500); would probably purchase the product or service mentioned in the text message or take part in the event (x = 4.0 sd=0.000); and interested in getting more information on the product, service, or event in question (x=4.0 sd=0.000). Therefore content providers and advertisers should revise their marketing mix and add the use of mobile advertising with social media marketing and location-based services.

Table 3: Malaysian Youth Twitter Users Purchase Intention after Receiving Mobile				
Advertisements Promoting Movies $(n = 400)$				

Purchase Intention	Mean	SD
I will read the entire movie mobile advertisement messages I receive in the future. I will probably purchase the product or service mentioned in the text message or take part in the event.	4.50 4.00	0.500 0.000
Overall	3.90	0.5

The relationships between Twitter users technology acceptance on purchase intentions

The third objective of this study is to determine the relationships between technology acceptance (use and usefulness) on purchase intentions. It is found that technology acceptance records positive perfect relationships on purchase intention (r=1.0 for both use and usefulness) as results showed that these elements recorded a very strong correlation with purchase intention. This means that respondents in this study perfectly accepted movie mobile advertising through Twitter and has influenced them greatly in their purchase intention to go and watch the movies advertised. Studies with positive perfect correlation are common, for instance Y. Srinivasa Rao (2011) found positive perfect relationships between variables in his study. With all these data being gathered, it is proven that mobile connectivity is continuing to grow as a means for audiences to keep track with latest films releases. These multiple mediums enable deeper one-to-one relationships between filmmakers, content providers with moviegoers. These findings has also supported findings of Serenko & Bontis (2004) that have already found positive correlation between technology acceptance (use, usefulness) and mobile advertising that led to mobile branding of a particular product. Thus it is advocated that positive technology acceptance (use, usefulness) of movie mobile advertising has led to the emergence of mobile branding for movies.

IV	Purchase Intention	
	R	
Technology acceptance	1.000	
Use	1.000	
Usefulness	1.000	

Table 4: The Relationships between	Technology	y Acceptances on Purchase Intentions
	(n = 400)	

P<0.01/p>0.05

Conclusion and Suggestions

The findings of this study recorded positive and strong relationship between technology acceptances with purchase intention in movie mobile advertisement in Malaysia. As the items used in this study were adopted from studies proving the success of mobile branding in their specific products, it is safe to say that the use and usefulness aspect of mobile advertising to ensure future promotional movie programs conducted via mobile devices can be accepted without prejudice in Malaysia. In terms if use, respondents agreed that it was easy to set bookmarks on movie mobile advertisements in a smartphone (x=5.00, sd=0.000) and it was easy to do web navigation on movie mobile advertisements in the device as well (x=5.00, sd=0.000). Respondents also regarded movie mobile advertisements in Twitter as appropriate because it is easy to read information on latest movie via a smartphone (x=4.52, sd=0.500). In overall, respondents agreed that mobile advertisements promoting movies were usable in their quest to seek information about latest movies in the market (x=4.18, sd=0.4). These findings are consistent with the findings of a study done by Pedersen (2003) whom found that mobile advertisements are usable to its receivers.

In terms of usefulness, respondents agreed that such advertisements improve social interaction among moviegoers (x=4.47, sd=0.500) and the past browsing record on advertisements promoting movies can be easily accessed (x=4.47, sd=0.500). Respondents also agreed that movie mobile advertisements are new value added for moviegoers (x=4.47, sd=0.500). In overall, respondents agreed on the usefulness of mobile advertisements promoting movies in acquiring and retaining information about latest movies in the market (x=4.32, sd=0.5). These findings are consistent with the findings of a study done by Serenko & Bontis (2004).

In terms of Malaysian Twitter users purchase intention after receiving movie mobile advertisements, it is found that the respondents will continuously read all the movie mobile advertisement messages they receive in the future (x=4.47, sd=0.500). Respondents would also probably purchase the product or service mentioned in the text message or take part in the event (x=4.00, sd=0.000). In overall, respondents have positive purchase intention after receiving movie mobile advertisements (x=3.87, sd=0.5). Such findings are consistent with the findings of a study done by Sultan, Fareena and Andrew Rohm (2005) and Heinonen (2007). Such openness showed by respondents will in future generate more incomes for mobile advertising in Malaysia and the opportunity to build a much stronger force in movie mobile branding.

Such results proved that marketers, advertisers and content providers should

emphasize on upgrading 'use' and 'usefulness' features in their ads. This is because respondents in this study agreed on the usability of movie mobile advertisements allowing them to use it for bookmark features, better fluidity on web surfing and better readability as opposed to read using a laptop or desktop. Respondents also agreed on the usefulness of movie mobile advertisements as they regarded it as a very useful tool as it has links to specific groups in social network and a fast retrieval of past browsing/purchase history.

Respondents in this study positively agreed that use and usefulness of movie mobile advertisements received influenced them greatly in their purchase intention to go and watch the movies advertised. With all these data being gathered, it is proven that mobile connectivity is continuing to grow as a means for audiences to keep track with latest films releases. These multiple mediums will enable deeper one-to-one relationships between filmmakers, content providers with moviegoers. This will be able to inspire film organizations to comply with mobile-enabled technology, setup mobile sites, build mobile apps and full extend their ads using these mobile platforms.

These finding should be able to inspire film organizations to comply with mobileenabled technology, setup mobile sites, build mobile apps and full extend their ads using these mobile platforms and create their own movie mobile branding. Advertisers and content providers also should create ads geared towards a collective approach. Besides enabling various businesses to obtain the whereabouts information of its customers, mobile technology also enable organizations to extend their reach and objectives to various levels of consumers. Future studies should consider using other statistics and other theories such as ETAM.

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COMMUNICATION STUDIES

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BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

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Abstract

This research paper is designed to study the development work related to the position of the health promotion center as a new tourism product with the opening of the AEC in 2015. This is a qualitative research project conducted through non-participatory and participatory observations, in-depth interviews with the population concerned with the health promotion center in the form of the service providers and the service recipients in Saraburi province. There were 98 samplings dealing with tourism management. There were 23 key performances that provided the main data. The three steps to the research methodology are categorized into; the present context, the feasibility of developing tourism for health, and the guidelines for development of a tourism product for health. The data collected and used by the researcher were subsequently brought for investigator triangulation. The research study has found that the Health Promotion Center in Saraburi province is located in an area surrounded by mountain views with fresh air and cool weather all the year- round. It is also operated in line with Academic Medicine's rule or principles and is under the supervision and control of the Medical Agency incorporating many well-designed activities. There is a possibility of developing this medical tourism center and the issues raised are concerned with its location, client-customer groups and tourism-related groups that are linked with other groups. The guidelines for further development of this important tourism product are expected to help develop the people in the center itself, as well as the people in the linked The activity forms are also created to maintain the ASEAN level of tourism groups. international standards. Searching for more tourists, working as a network and creating the evaluation system forms for all level are therefore underway.

Keywords: Health Promotion Center, Tourism for Health

Background

Thai tourism is one of the main activities that generates the country's huge volume of revenue income. Thailand incoming revenue from the tourism sector is rated as number one among ASEAN country members. In 2008, Thailand earned more than 715 million baht in revenue from the tourism industry (it is about 9 percent out of all the country 's Gross Domestic Product, and this could create employment for more than 1.9 million workers or about 5 percentage out of the country's labour workforce (Ministry of Tourism and Sports, www.mots.go.th)

However, in 2015 there will be the opening up of a gateway to the ASEAN Economic Community. Although this is a bright outlook for the tourism industry as a whole, it will also affect largely and negatively on Thailand's main income from the tourism industry. For example most of the ASEAN countries are not much different in terms their landscapes, and attractions. In some countries the virgin natural attractions attract the largest numbers of tourists. However the tourists could choose to spend less or lower their travel expenses for these attractions by going to the cheapest country. Thai tourism was ranked No 3 in ASEAN countries by The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness in 2009 (of the World Economic Forum

(WEF)), for Thai tourism and competitive capacity in the region, running after Singapore and Malaysia (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2010).

When the customers and group members have more choices for their own tourism spots, and attractions, what Thailand needs to do is to prepare and support the readiness for tourism-related business competition. Thailand needs to be creating more new, different and interesting tourism products qualified with standards and high potentials, and an uniqueness which could not be easily and or quickly imitated. One of the strong points for Thailand tourism is the health care issues dealing with Thai spas and Thai massage, both of which are recognized worldwide. Please see Health Care (Office of National Research Council, 2012).

Particularly, Thailand's Health Care and Promotion Centers which are in large numbers, but it is found now that there is not yet any clear integration of Health Care and Tourism. If these health centers, which are Thai potential, and are introduced as new tourist spots, the centers could help generate more income from tourism in the local communities, and the country as a whole. (Thai Embassy in Brussels). Health care in Thailand is really developing and it is well recognized that Thailand is one of the countries in ASEAN and in the world - that has high potential .Thailand has many health care or promotion centers that bring in large incomes. However, most of the centre's present customers are local Thai people (National Health Assembly 2012).

Thailand has many health promotion centers, but it is found that this health issue is never seriously brought in for further integration with tourism authority, So to get ready for the opening up of the gateway to AEAN in 2015, and to be in line with strategy on national tourism research from 2012- 2016, as well as to be in line with Government policy on boosting and promoting Thailand to be a medical hub in Asia, the researcher has paid interest to developing and promoting health centers to be a new tourism product, to deal with tourism competitiveness in the near future through a case study of a health promotion center in Saraburi province.

Research Objectives

To study guidelines for developing the health promotion center to be a new tourism product when the AEC opens up in 2015

Literature Review

This research is a response to the strategy of national tourism plan 2012 -2016, (The Office of National Research Council, 2012) that has designated three research strategies, by the second strategy that supports research in specific areas which have high potential for tourism development, as well as linked tourism areas so as to build up creative and sustainable tourism. And also following the Strategy 2.2 that promoting and supporting research work in the clusters that have high potential, and also the tourism in terms of health care and beauty is categorized into the clusters that have high potential.

For tourism in terms of heath care and beauty, there are groups of foreign tourists of more than 1.4 million using the health promotion centers to get medical services, and generating income of more than 45,000 million baht. The most popular medical services are such as health medical check-ups, Lasik (eye surgery), beauty surgery, dentistry, surgical operations, specific disease treatment, and therapy (Tourism Authority of Thailand 2010).

The growth rate of the Tourism market in terms of health care in the world or in the Asia, is increasing from 20 percent to 28 percent. In 2010, foreign tourists in terms of health care and beauty treatment amounted to 60 percent. Most of them both travelled about and then got health care and related services at the same time. In addition, the Thai government policy on promoting Thailand to be the medical hub in Asia, is hoped to help boost continuously a greater tourism market in terms of health care and beauty services (Tourism Authority of Thailand)

Methodology

This is a qualitative research study conducted by the researcher through three steps. The three steps to the research methodology are categorized into the studies; present context of health promotion centers and their operations, feasibility of developing tourism for health cares, and guidelines on the development of a tourism product for health cares and beauty.

The research study was done through non-participatory and participatory observation, indepth interview with the population concerned with the health promotion center in the form service the providers and recipients of the services in Saraburi as well as those tourism managers, administrators and authorities concerned. There were 98 samplings dealing with tourism management interviewed, particularly 32 key performances that provided the main data for the analysis. The three steps to the research methodology are categorized into; present context, feasibility of developing tourism for health, and guidelines for development of a tourism product for health.

The data collected and used by the researcher were subsequently brought for investigator triangulation.

Findings

The research study has found that

Step One: The present context of tourism-related business operations

This step, the research study conducted through non participatory observation, participatory observation, in depth interview, with health promotion center staff concerned from 3 centers in Saraburi province. The data were mainly provided by the three service providers and 7 recipients of services, making totally 10 people.

It was found that generally, the health promotion centers in Saraburi that provide services to both Thai and foreign tourists, were mostly located in a district, where has abundant important and natural tourist attractions. This is one of the strong points of Saraburi province and of the nearby provinces. Also these health promotion centers are not located far away from each other. The centers are all situated amid peaceful mountainous surroundings, nice, cool and fresh weather throughout the year. These centers have easy road access.

The Health Promotion Center in Saraburi province is located in the area surrounded by mountain views with fresh air and cool weather all year-round. It is also operated, theoretically, in line with academic Medicine's rule or association, and under the supervision and control of the Medical Agency in corporating with many well -designed activities.

There is a possibility of developing this medical tourism center and the issues raised are concerned with its location, client/customer groups and tourism-related groups that are linked with other groups.

The Saraburi health promotion center consists of an office building, room accommodation, guesthouses, a public park, health gardens and a sports field with facilities full amenities. There are year-round public services, programs and services. Each center can provide services not less than 100 clients at a time. The center offers its services to both small groups (10 persons a group) and large groups (100 persons a group).

The centre opens to provide public services for health promotions, room accommodation, food and equipment, a fitness room, a sauna room, a recreation room, and a lecture room. The service charge for each facility fee is still low and depends on local rates, the number of group members, and some other conditions.

Every health promotion center in Saraburi has operated its own business providing medical services to Thai and foreign customers. Each centre is using principles of food and nutrition and up-to-date tools and equipment, Following academic theory and medical science and controlled or guaranteed by A Medical center. Most of them consists of health care and beauty in terms of 8 aspects such as Nutrition, consuming the nutrients with Dietary Fibers, low fat, and not much pasteurized products, regular exercise for health, drinking clean water, using the spa and sauna, sunbathing (in the sunshine), reducing cholesterol and glucose intake, food temperance, breathing fresh air, taking more rest, building trust, concentration or medication.

The health promotion center has activities for both short term and long term plans. For the short term stay, there are two program services of two nights and three days, three nights and four days, four nights and five days. The long term program is 21 days long. However, most of the customers use the popular short term program services, which are divided into three groups, such as general health promotion program, health promotion program for staff, detox program for health, health promotion program service for the retired officials to be. Every activity are offered with various programs and services, clear times schedules, and program practicing under academic principles, starting from 6.00 a.m. to 8.30 p.m.

However, this time and schedule is subject to change according to the needs of the customer groups.

Step two: the feasibility of tourism development in terms of health care

For this second step, the research was conducted through the in-depth interview. The data provided were mainly from the three services providers from the health promotion centers in Saraburi, as well as, the five tourism managers concerned, one tourism administrator concerned, 10 foreign tourists, and 20 people who provided mainly the data. It is found that the possibility of health promotion center development in term of tourism for health care, judging from four factors, such as location, customer groups, form of operations/ implementation, and linkage with other groups of tourism-related business.

1. Location

At present, it is very convenient to access the health centers from Bangkok-Saraburi-and also along the tourist routes from other nearby provinces, like Nakhon Nayok or Nakhon Ratchasima. From here the tourists could also travel by road to reach the health centers easily and conveniently.

2. Customer group

The local Thai customers are mostly from government offices and state enterprises. They come for the services as recipients, mainly in medium-sized group of about 60-70. The time favoured for program services are mostly in March-June, and in April –August. The programs mostly offered are for those about to be retired government employees, and these are five days and four nights programs promoting tourism for health, and detox program for health both four days and three nights, three days and two nights.

The foreign customers are mostly from Singapore, Hong Kong, and Korea. Customers mostly come for the program services as small recipient groups. Each group has about 10-20 people, and this is a year round service. While some even come to the health center more than once in the same year. The most popular program is the detox program over three days and two nights.

In general, the customer groups possibly come to the health center for program services throughout the year, and it seems to be the low tourist season in October-December of the year, and it is possible that there are repeat customer groups from old companies or organizations. The old customer groups also revisit the health center, while some more new customer groups will be further developed during the tourist season in October –February and these new groups will not affect to the old main customer groups at present. However, the feedback or responses from any customer groups, it is found that it is a very good feedbacks from the customer groups which come to the health center for program services for three or four consecutive years. It is, therefore, concluded that there is an opportunity for the health center to be further developed to be as a tourist product to help support the tourism for health care.

3. The model of Operations /Implementation

This is an activity model to be developed for the health promotion center to be used as a tourist product. It is found that there is a high opportunity for both health center administrators, and tourism group managers. And the high-level administrators, who are responsible for the health promotion center, said that there is a high possibility that this model could be developed or managed as tourism for health care. The health center also used to participate in the meetings with some of tourism groups, such as shopping tourist group.

Following a few meetings held with travel agencies, they all agreed that tourism promotion for health care could be implemented together with an activity to help promote tourism for health care. This would be in line with other tourism groups, such as shopping group, natural attraction group, world heritage group, and so on.

Most tourists spend 5- 7 days there at the health promotion center. This is their last stop on their visit to Thailand. The center could also arrange program services for general health promotion, or detox programs for health care which take three nights and two days and provide meals, a healthy atmosphere including other program services as scheduled in the service program.

Healthiness is a tourist product, and it can be indicated that tourists have their own physical bodily systems that need relaxation, as well as good excretory systems. However, there is not yet clear agreement about this type of tourism operation Each group of tourists could not reach a conclusion, and there should be a neutral body or focal point to help reach a compromise among these groups, so this branch of tourism for health care should be worked

out every well and in line with the concepts or ideas of the tourism groups, managers or administrators that agree that it is possible at the high level and this should be a new tourism product that could compete with other tourism markets in the AEC. In addition, this tourism promotion for health care should be worked out over time.

4. Linking the health center with other tourism groups

From the research study, it is found that there are many tourism groups that could be linked with health promotion center, and the administrators or tourism authorities concerned said that developing the health promotion center, to be as a new tourist product, could be also operated by itself and the tourism product that could be linked with other existing groups in the tourism markets. These groups are such as meetings, seminar and exhibition organizers, shopping and entertainment group, eco- tourism in tropical rain forest climate areas, agrotourism group, tourism conservative group, and world heritage tourism group. From the interviews with foreign tourists for each group of tourists, it is found that many groups showed great interest and have the intention to come again and again to the health center for the program services of health care.

Step three: Guidelines for the development of a tourism product for health care

This step is dealing with the research study through the in-depth interview with the key people. These key people could provide the main data, especially important data is from those five people concerned with the tourism authorities and the additional three people concerned with tourism management. There is a total of eight key performances, and then, it is found that:

1. Guidelines for developing the health promotion center as a new tourist product There will be fiercer competition for the tourism-related business in the AEC tourism market. Therefore there should be further development of more new tourism products, especially in terms of the health promotion center itself. For this sector and other sectors concerned, with the cooperation, assistance, support or promotion to be provided by a neutral body or a focal point like the Tourism Authority of Thailand by using the existing strengths from the tourism sectors. This step also includes the tourism bodies or organizations that could also create the audit system, evaluation system, and higher-level operation system so as to raise the quality and standard of any new tourism operations.

2. The significant issue of development This consists of six key issues,

2.1 Human development for the program service providers for both manpower in the health promotion center, and human resources in each tourism group that links with other groups. With manpower in the center that strives for developing quality of services, such as tourists learning about nature. Each group of tourists uses the English language. For those people in the tourist groups that link with other groups they should aim to receive more information about the new products. Also there should be the development of a process of linking tourism bodies together to cope with regional tourism.

2.2 To build up the model of activities run by the health promotion center The model organized at the center must include activities that follow the academic principle or medical science, and the activities that are flexible, measureable for improved health under the medical principle. Also, the activity to promote health that could be linked with activities of other tourism groups. 2.3 To build standards for the working operations of the health promotion center, and to maintain the standard of working operations so as to create a new and qualified tourism industry. At least, there will be a cooperation agreement for the tourism industry development in the ASEAN regional level or at the international level.

2.4 Searching for or focusing on more quality tourists through public relations exercises, creating more images, including organizing activities, promoting sales and marketing of tourism-related business. These tourists could spend around five to seven days for a trip and also could participate with other groups in activities promoting tourism for health care.

2.5 Networking among group members of the health promotion center businesses and among members of other groups that are linked with the health promotion center. This will strengthen the long term operations of this tourism-related business

2.6 Creating an evaluation system at every level, from the receipt of program services of the health promotion center. This system will be clear and up to standards designated by medical science and medical ethics. There will be an evaluation form for the resource base used in setting up the health promotion center as to how that might affect the environment. Also the evaluation of production, and maintenance of human resources potential at the health promotion center as well as the evaluation of economic impacts. Plus the evaluation of the risks created from business operations and the negative impacts that were caused by operations of the health promotion and development center to be as a new tourism product in the AEC tourism markets.

Conclusions

For the research study results, it is found that

1. In the present context of operations of health promotion, from a case study in Saraburi province, found that 1) Generally, the health center is located amidst mountain views, with fresh air and cool weather all year-round. 2) Principle of operations - using knowledge dealing with nutrition when preparing menus, following the medical science and academic principles, and Medical Unit (Hospital), 3) Activity – organizing the programs promoting tourism for health under the short and long term program service. Programs can be anywhere from two to twenty-one days. The most popular healthcare program service is the short-term detox program.

2. The possibility for developing health promotion center, to be a tourism product for health and it is found that it is at the high level of possibility. There are at least four issues regarding the location, customer group, model of activity and the linkages with other tourism groups.

3. Guidelines for developing the health promotion centre, to be a tourism product so as to cope with the opening up of the gateway to AEC. This is also including the human resource development, creating the model of activities, creating and maintaining the health center, searching for more tourists, implementing networks, and create the evaluation system.

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CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

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The Significance of Conflict Resolution, and CulturalSensitivity behind the Theory of Relational Exchange: An Empirical Study of Thai-Japanese International Joint Venture (IJV) in Thailand

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Abstract

An International Joint Venture (IJV) is the popular strategic mode of entry in South-East Asia. Particularly, in Thailand where the majority of the IJVs are from Japan, and are mainly engaged in the automobile and assembly industries. Although, the IJV trend is increasing, the IJV failure rate is high, between 30 to 70 percent in some countries, and particularly 25 percent in Thailand. The Inter-partner relationship after the IJV has been created is identified as the main problem causing the IJVs high failure rate. Looking inside the IJV through the lens of the relational exchange theory, it cannot be denyed the significans of conflict resolution, cultural sensitivity and its effect on the IJV business performance. Despite the quantitative study made by Wadeecharoen (2011), the importance of conflict resolution and cultural sensitivity with the IJV performance in Thailand has been rejected. To clarify this knowledge gap, a qualitative analysis has been made with the data from interviews with five senior IJV managers. The findings indicate that the partners in the IJV have never been in conflict and they also have never been in cultural clashes due to their IJV operation. Thus, the finding of this study similarly supports the quantitative study of Wadeecharoen (2011). In Addition, the rational support of the research findings regarding the conflict resolution and cultural sensitivity are described empirically in this study. Keywords: Conflict, Culture, IJV, ASIAN, Thailand, Japanese

Introduction

Thailand is an emerging economy country whereby the trend of international joint ventures (IJV) growth has been observed since the 1980s by (Racela & Thoumrungroge, 2012). Apparently, the majority of the IJV parent companies are from Japan and some other ASEAN countries (Wadeecharoen, Kanjanavanikul, Lertnaisat & Teekasap, 2012). Such IJVs have been mostly engaged in the automobile and assembling industries. The motive of foreign IJV investors located in Thailand is due to their further market expansion and the use of cheap labor cost (Wadeecharoen et al., 2012:a:b:c; Racela & Thoumrungroje, 2012; Suwannarat, 2012; Suwannarat & Mumi, 2012; Suwannarat, Williams, Smith & Ibrahim, 2010). Hence, IJV is the most popular strategic mode of entry used by multinational enterprises entering a developing country in South-East Asia Pacific (Hieu, 2013; Julian, 2010: 2009: 2008: 2005; Thuy & Quang, 2005; Julian & O'Cass, 2004, 2002).

The IJVs allows local firms, to access larger volumes of capital resources, generate employment, and have technology transfer, managerial expertise and marketing networking (Wadeecharoen, Kanjanavanikul & Teekasap, 2011; Park, 2011; Nik, Osman & T, 2004). Moreover, the IJV enable foreign firms to bring their expertise to upgrade the local human resources competencies, which in turn enhance Thailand competitive advantage (Glaister, Husan & Buckley, 2005).

From this point of view, there is no reason to deny the significant role of the IJV towards Thailand economic development and the enhancement of the country competitiveness. This is supported by the large number of 2,443 foreign companies in Thailand which are mainly in the form of IJV (Thailand Factory Directory, 2009).

Despite the IJV being the most popular strategy for multinational enterprises, the presence of two or more parent firms make the IJV difficult to handle (Geringer & Hebert, 1991). Conflict and cultural clashes between partners seem to be unavoidable due to the differences in cultural background, management styles, working environment and incompatibility between partner objectives. These are the basic sources of problems occuring in the IJV organization and the IJV partners involved may not be aware of these issues.

The evidence of the IJV failure rates shows that it can be as high as 30-70 percent (Hieu, 2013; Makino & Beamish, 2004; Yeheskel, Newburry & Zeira, 2004; Hennart, Kim & Zeng, 1998; Inkpen & Beamish, 1997) and 25 percent in Thailand (Wadeecharoen, 2011). The high failure rate of the IJV inter-partner relations after the establishment of IJV can be one of the main problems causing the high failure rate of IJV (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, 2010: 2009; Wilson & Brennan, 2009; Robson, Leonidou & Katsikeas, 2002; Lin, & Wang, 2002).

Since the IJV involves atleast two or more legally distinct organization, each one sharing the decision making and joining of their own entity (Geringer & Hebert, 1989). Conflict issues arise when the IJV partners represent different characteristic backgrounds in order to achieve their IJV objectives (Webster, 1989). Their Partner differences in management style, business practice and organization cultures leads to conflicts within the IJV partners (Contractor & Kundu, 1998; Meschi & Roger, 1994; Lane & Beamish, 1990).

According to Maschi, (1997) found that the differences in national culture are the main problems eroding the effective IJV operation. Moreover, partner's national or organizational culture differences have an influencial effect on every aspects of the IJV collaboration (Lyles & Salk, 1996). Particularly, the IJV between one partner in a developing country and the other from a developed country is more likely to have different attitudes (Killing, 1983).

It seems that the IJV partner conflicts arise from cultural differences as both partners originated from different territories, with historical and economic differences (Hieu, 2013). Thus, managing an IJV professionally cannot avoide the problem of cultural differences, on the other hand, 'how to manage conflict and cultural differences' this important proposition needs to take an action. To fill this knowledge gap, Wadeecharoen, (2011) investigates how foreign and Thai IJV partners manage conflict and cultural differences in a positive way and how these factors affect the IJV overall performance within Thailand manufacturing.

Surprisingly, their findings show that the differences in management and cultural sensitivity have no significant effect on the IJV overall performance. Creating a suspicious gap in the context of conflict resolution and cultural sensitivity through the lens of the relational exchange theory. Hence, based on the quantitative study result of Wadeecharoen, (2011); Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, (2010: 2009) and Thuy & Quang, (2005) leads to the proposition of Wadeecharoen et al., 2011) who propose that the IJV in Thailand may be using a 'legalistic or forcing a strategic method' instead of 'joining to solve a problem' and 'compromising' to settle the partner conflicts. Additionally, they also propose that IJV partners in Thailand have no 'cultural clash' due to the long-term partners learning and cooperation. Thus the use of qualitative techniques twith five IJV manager interview, enable to clarify the equivocal result of conflict and cultural factors and explore the real picture of the conflict resolution methods used by IJV in Thailand.

The reminder of this research is organized in the following sectors. Firstly, the study represents the research background and objectives. Secondly, a brief review of the relevant literature related with past research studies. Then discuss the research methodology and present the result of the study. The Final section will be discussing the implications of the results and suggesting for further research.

Objectives of the Study

Through the lens of relational exchange theory, Wadeecharoen and Nik Mat, (2009: 2010) have proposes a positive relationship aspects between cultural sensitivity and conflict management with UV performance. Such findings indicated that culturalsensitivity and conflict management have no significant relationship effect on IJV business performance. Despite, the research findings, it is still both inconsistent and equivoqued comparing past research studies and also to be against the relational exchange theory. Thus, to clarified the truly picture of relational factors (cultural sensitivity and conflict management) and IJV performance. The 'qualitative methods' through personal interview was adapted in the study to have access to the IJV operations management. Hence, the qualitative technique is the most appropriate to bring the inside of the inter-partner relationship into the reality and practice (Wadeecharoen et al., 2011). Thus, this study proposes the following objectives as below:

- 1. To investigate the reasons for Thai-Japanese IJV formation
- 2. To demonstrate the importance of '*partner relationship*' for the success of Thai-Japanese IJV's in Thailand
- 3. To investigate the conflict resolution strategies used by Thai-Japanese IJVs in order to resolve their inter-partners conflicts
- 4. To investigate and demonstrate the cultural sensitivity in a positive manner by looking inside the Thai-Japanese IJVs in Thailand manufacturing sectors.

Literature Review

The literature review of the study start with the definition of International Joint Venture (IJV), followed by the core theory of partner relationship, in order to explaining the holistic framework of IJV performance. Previous research studies have been discussing the significance of interpartner relations relationships regarding cultural sensitivity and the conflict of management. These contents will be presented in the next section below.

The Definition of International Joint Venture (IJV)

Since the characteristic of IJV firm is defined as a hybrid organization formed between two or more distinctly separate organizations (Geringer & Herbert, 1999). These organizations have a different perspective depending upon the IJV formation. Thus, defining IJV performance as the degree of IJV partners' goals accomplishment is the primary step in capturing the overall picture

of IJV operations management. The perfect definition supporting IJV concept is backed up by previous researcher an stated in the caption below.

'International joint ventures are legally and economically separate organizational entities created by two or more parent organizations that collectively invest financial and other resources to pursue certain objectives' (Schuler & Tarique, 2005)

Relational Exchange Theory: (Macualay, 1963; Macneil, 1980)

The high failure rate of IJV performance was caused by inter-partner relationship problems (Robson et al., 2002). Consequently, the importance of IJV partnership management can't be denied as evidence. 'Vantage partners LLC of Cambridge' found that that 'Partnerships are not failing because of legal or financial issues, but because of the relationship between the companies' (Krasner, 2001). In contrast, to enhance the successful inter-partner relationship, relational factors and the partner's behaviors are critical to the success of strategic alliances (Doz, 1996). In this way, IJV managers are required to understand the nature of relational success factors, i.e. trust and commitment in the IJV formation process (Samiee & Walters, 2003). Despite, the antecedent of IJV through the lens of behavioral perspective or relational approach it is still limited and fragmented (Robson et al., 2002; Thuy & Quang, 2005). Therefore, to understand the relational factors which affect the IJV operational performance, the holistic frameworks of IJV performance represented by Robson et al., (2002) will be explored with structural detail as in the figure below

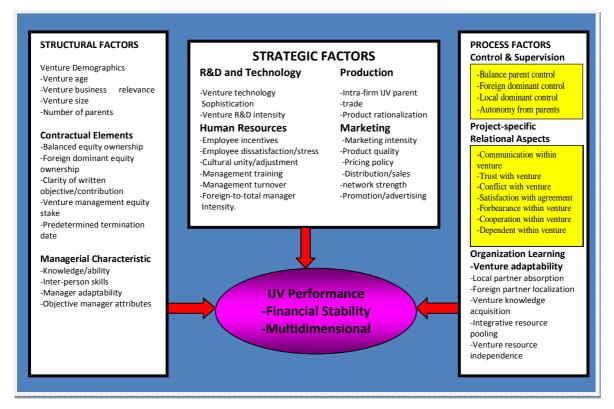


Figure 1: Holistic Model of IJV Performance (Originated adopting from Robson et al, 2002) Sources: Wadeecharoen, Kajanavanikul & Teekasap, (2011) Bases on the 'holistic model of the IJV performance' exhibited in figure 1, classifying the IJV antecedent generally into three largest factors; explicitly structure factors, strategic factors and process factors (Robson et al., 2002). Particularly in the process factor which includes the relational factors such as communication, trust, conflict, satisfaction, forbearance, cooperation and dependent within venture. These relational factors are categorized under project specific and have been testing the relationship effect with IJV performance such as trust with venture, conflict with venture, satisfaction with agreement, and cooperation within venture, cultural between IJV partners (Wilson & Brennan, 2009; Ozorhon, Arditi, Dikmen, & Birgonul, 2008(a); 2008(b); Lu, 2007:2006; Thuy & Quang, 2005; Dermirbag & Weir, 2006; Robson et al., 2002; Demirbag & Mirza, 2000; Steensma & Lyles, 2000; Lin & Germain, 1998). As of these previous relational evidence, it is sufficient to confirm the importance of inter-partner relationship within IJV organization. The predominant theory that can be explaining the effect of relational factors and overall IJV performance is the 'relational exchange theory' represented by Macneil, (1980) and Macualay (1963). This theory has been interesting for marketing research and business practice. This is because relational exchange for long-term partner relationship has become the most important resource to develop the firm competitive advantage (Dyer, 1998). Thus, long-term IJV partners' relationship can be developed by both partners' capabilities to commit necessary resources, joint decision, and equality in exchange relationship in the IJV firms (Macneil, 1980).

The Relevance of Past Research Studies

The theoretical framework of this study is based on the *'relational exchange theory'* and backed up by past research studies (refer to figure 2). The relational exchange is selected to explain the IJV partners' relationship activities and its guarantee of successful partnership (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Thus, this research object is focus on the long-term relationship between parent and IJVs' own organization. The Thai-Japanese IJV motivest in Thailand, the inter-partner relationship, the cultural sensitivity and conflict management are subjective to improve the IJV partnership quality which in turn will be reflected on its business performance and so on.

Since IJV has been formed between local and foreign firms then they would created an equity sharing agreement to reserve the right of resources division, share of risks and functioning of business units divisions in an IJV (Geringer & Herbert, 1991). Moreover, IJV enable foreign firm to access new markets, geographic knowledge, sharing of resources while local firms have access to financial capital and enhance capabilities (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Beamish & Lupton, 2009). In this way, the formation of IJV is to attain their own objectives and definitely meet the IJV parents' expectation. For example, Makino, Chan, Isobe and Beamish, (2007) classified the purpose of IJV formation into four objectives: (1) resources/labor seeking (the procurement of raw material, natural resources and access to low cost inputs); (2) market seeking (to follow customers in emerging markets and market expansion); (3) capital seeking (to transfer dividends and earn royalties) and (4) strategic asset seeking (research and development). Obviously, IJV partners are acting in different activities to achieve different purposes, for example, foreign partners constitute investment in production while local partner focus on marketing distribution and advertisement. According to Beamish and Lupton, (2009) suggested that IJV is the superior choice enable partner firms to access each other's complementary resources and capacities. This make easy for partners to achieve host country economic of scale and fast develop new product at cheapest cost than either firm can do by acting alone. Bases on these discussion points, the motive of IJV formation is to minimize the transaction cost, decrease cost of production, sharing of resources dependent, enhance competitive advantage and knowledge acquisition (Beamish & Lupton, 2009; Inkpan & Tsang, 2005; Hennart, 1988; Kogut, 1988).

According to Krasner, (2001) stated that 'partner relationships aren't failing because of legal or financial issues, but because of the relationship between the companies'. Inter-partner relationship is identified as a one of major problem causes IJV firms fail due to poor performance (Robson et al., 2002). This can be explained by relational factors and the partner's behaviors are critical issues indentifying the success and unsuccess of strategic alliances. In order to increase the chances of successful partnership management, IJV managers needs to understand the nature of relational factors such as trust and commitment between IJV partners and how it effects on the IJV partners relationship outcome (Samiee & Walters, 2003). Thus, this study believes that a good health of IJV partners' relationship is the most important factor to determine a successful IJV.

'*Conflict within venture*' is a significant part of the relational aspects and becomes one of the important antecedents affecting the IJV performance (Robson et al., 2002; Thuy & Quang, 2005). A conflict in IJV organization occurs when partners are in serious disagreements or with different goals which leads to miss understandings, ineffective communication, lack of trust and reliability between partners, coming out with the result of failure to response to the needs and aspiration of each other (Killing, 1983).

Despite, conflict in IJV research has been defined and tested in both negative aspects (Thuy & Quang, 2005; Demirbag & Mirza, 2000; Ding, 1997; Johnson, Cullen, Sakano & Takenouchi, 1996; Hebert, 1996; Cullen, John, Johnson, Jean, Sakino & Tomoaki, 1995) and positive aspects (Lu, 2007: 2006; Lin & Germain, 1998). This bipolar aspect of conflict makes the researcher getting consistent of the research findings between conflict factors and IJV performance difficulties. Wadeecharoen, (2011) revised the conflict factor with positive aspects adapted from Thuy and Quang, (2005). The results indicated that conflict management has no significant relationship with IJV performance unless mediated by relationship marketing orientation (RMO) (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, 2010:2009:2008). Interestingly, RMO consist with bonding, empathy, reciprocity and trust enable to revise a new sense of conflict resolution methods. As of this point, IJV in Thailand may be using negative conflict resolution methods such as '*legalistic or forcing strategic*' instead of '*joint problem solving or compromising*' to settle of conflict issues between partners.

Since IJV partners comes from multinational countries which possess different cultural background. Thus, cultural sensitivity between partners can reflect the partners' mutual understanding of their cultural differences (Thuy & Quang, 2005). However, the results of *'cultural factors'* and IJV performance is still equivocal and inconstent. There are numerous studies founding positive relationship with significant results (Ozorhon et al, 2008; Lu, 2006; Li, Karakowshy, & Lam, 2002; Li, Lam & Qian, 2001; Luo, Shenkar & Nyaw, 2001; Zeira & Harari, 1997) and some others studies found positive relationship but no significant support (Thuy & Quang, 2005). On other hand, several studies have found negative relationship with significant results (Ozorhon et al, 2008a; Li et al, 2002; Fay & Beamish, 2001; Lasserre, 1999) and negative relationship with no significant results (Pothokuchi et al, 2002; Fay & Beamish, 2001). The recent study by Wadeecharoen and Nik Mat, (2011) confirm that result of cultural sensitivity has no significant relationship with IJV performance in Thailand. This result is similarly supported by Thuy and Quang (2005). At this point, qualitative research should be examining the real picture of

the actual motive of IJV formation and the effect of relational factors with IJV performance empirically.

Theoretical Framework

Relational exchange refers to relationship activities toward establishing, developing and maintaining successful relational exchanges (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Generally, IJV operational management is concerned on long-term partner's relationship and its own IJV organization. Maintaining and developing the IJV partner's relationship is an important source to develop the firm's competitive advantage (Dyer, 1998). The theoretical framework of this study is based on the relational exchange and past researchs supported by the representing figures below.

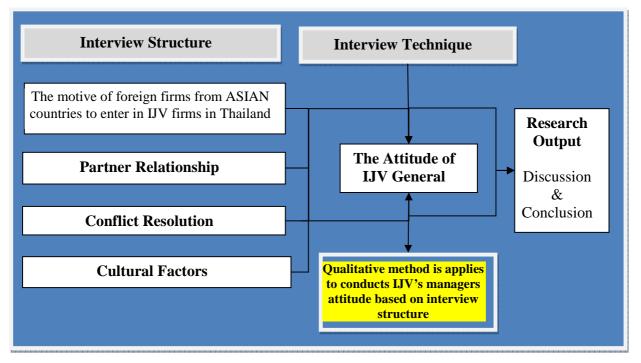


Figure 2: Theoretical Frameworks

Scope of the Study

According to Geringer and Herbert, (1999) defined the characteristic of IJV firm as a hybrid organization formed between two or more distinctly separate organizations. Hence, no wonder these organizations entity may have different objectives and may evaluate the performance of the IJV differently (Julian, 2005). For instance, local partner may have perceived IJV performing as being *successfull*. This is because the local partner has achieved its stated objectives of profitability and return on investment. In contrast, foreign partner may have perceived IJV performance as being *unsatisfactory*. This is because local partner may refuse to use the raw materials from foreign partner in IJV production. Thus, to access of IJV overall performance accurately, IJV must be considered as a stand-alone entity (Julian, 1998: Anderson, 1990). As of this point, data was collected from partners in IJV firms considered as single unit. This method have been used and supported by research findings of Wadeecharoen and Nik Mat, (2009, 2010, 2011) who evaluated IJV overall performance as a stand-alone entity.

Research Methodology

Bases on the quantitative studied by Wadeecharoen and Nik Mat, (2009: 2010) have show non relationship significance between cultural sensitivity and conflict management with International Joint Venture (IJVs) firm in Thailand manufacturing sectors. Despite, conflict management has partial positive relationship effect to IJV performance when it is mediated by partner relationship marketing orientation (RMO). As of this point, IJV partner's relationship is the important indicator to determine the performance of IJV. Hence, this study aim to explore the IJV partners relationship through the lens of relational perspective from inside out empirically. A qualitative technique through personal interview is the most appropriate method applied in this study to interprete and capture the real picture of the IJV.

Since Japan firms is the major foreign investment country in ASIAN (Tiwari, Syamwil & Doi, 2003) and possess a largest foreign investment position in Thailand (Poon & Sajarattanochote, 2010). Similarly to the previous study by Wadeecharoen and Nik Mat, (2009: 2010) shows that the majority of their respondents came from ASIAN countries such as Japan, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia, Korea, and India; while over half of their IJV respondents (53 %) came from Japan. Consequently, five of Thai- Japanese IJV firm were taken for the research sampling units of the study. The lists of Thai- Japanese IJV firms were taken from the Thailand Company Directory, 2011. IJV senior executives are identified as the gatekeeper information of the IJV operational system (Julian, 2008; Julian & O'Cass, 2005: 2004: 2002; Li & Calantone, 1998). This is backed up by the previous studies who agreed that the data obtained from IJV executive managers are considered reliable (Geringer & Hebert, 1991; Child, Yan & Lu 1997). The interview structure was designed as the theoretical support which is recognized as the most appropriate method used to capture the real picture of the IJVs management. The interview method enables IJV manager to express their vision, beliefs, attitudes and behavior at clear length. Hence, an interview method is the best alternative in case of inadequate theory and equivoques finding from quantitative survey techniques (Frederikson, Fisher & Wik, 1996).

Technical Analysis Methods

The qualitative techniques used in unstructured interviews are widely problematic causing defects in the analysis and miss conclusions of the study. In defense of this problem, ethnographic future research (EFR) involves semi-structure interview; adapted from past literature; it will be applied in this research (Wadeecharoen et al., 2011). The cumulative summarization techniques are designed to elicit their perceptions and preferences among possible and probable alternative futures for IJV cultural cooperation and conflict resolution used by IJV firms in Thailand (Sutton, Abrams, Jones, Sheldon & Sing, 2000).

The Respondents Profile

Five of Thai-Japanese IJVs firms were selected as research respondent of the study. The interview's data was collected from five Japanese partners (62%) from five IJV companies. The Japanese interviewed positions were: president (40%), vice president (40%) and managing director (20%). The ownership of Japanese partners is classified into three groups: as 10-15 percent (20%), 25-50 percent (40%) and 76 percent plus (40%). On the other hand, Thai ownership in IJV was grouped into three types as 10-15 percent (40%), 16-25 percent (20%), 26-50 percent (20%) (See the detail in Table 1).

Characteristic	No.	Percent (%)
Interview Data		
Respondent Position		
Japanese Position		
1. President	2	40
2. Vice President	2	40
3. Managing Director	1	20
Total	5	100
Industry of IJVs		
1. Manufacturing	4	80
2. Heavy Industry	1	20
Total	5	100
Japanese Ownership		
10-15%	1	20
16-25%	-	
26-50%	2	40
51-75%	-	
76% plus	2	40
Total	5	100
Thai Ownership		
1. 10-15%	2	40
2. 16-25%	1	20
3. 26-50%	1	20
4. 51-75%	-	
5. 76% plus	1	20
Total	5	100

 Table 1: Thai-Japanese IJV Profile

Results of the Study

Since the largest of ASIAN investors come from Japan and those Japanese companies are operating their business in the IJV form (Julian & O'Cass, 2005; 2004). Hence, 5 IJV general Manager (GM IJV) in manufacturing sectors were selected as the target group for making in dept interview. These GM in Thai-Japanese IJV firms are representing the holistic population of ASIAN foreign investor. This is because of nearly half of IJV from ASIAN countries are in Thai-Japanese IJV manufacturing sectors (Wadeecharoen, et al., 2011: 2013a:b; Wadeecharoen, et al., 2012a; 2012b). Thus, supported by these evidences, 5 sampling of Thai-Japanese IJV firms are sufficient enough to confirm the reliability and credibility of research output for this study. As such the research output is exhibited in the table 1 below;

Why foreign firms are engaged in IJV?

Proposition 1a: Foreign firm has formed an IJV in order to decrease their cost of production.Proposition 1b: Foreign firm has formed an IJV in order to enhance their competitive advantage.Proposition 1c: Foreign firm has formed an IJV in order to gain organization knowledge.Proposition 1d: Foreign firm has formed an IJV in order to share resources dependency.

The motive of IJV formation is categorized into four proposition backed up by theoretical support and past research studies (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Beamish & Lupton, 2009; Makino et al., 2007;

Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Geringer & Herbert, 1991; Hennart, 1988; Kogut, 1988). The results show that Thai-Japanese IJV in Thailand manufacturing sectors are established for the main purpose of 'strategic behavior', followed up by 'cost reduction and sharing of partners resources dependency'. Besides, organization knowledge is not a motive factor for the Thai-Japanese IJV setting up their plants in Thailand manufacturing sectors (refer to table 2).

As for the findings exhibited on table 2, four of five companies focus on 'strategic behavior' as their major motive of Japanese firm entering Thailand IJV manufacturing sectors. To maintain firm competitive advantage in the global market, Japanese firms must focus on strategic behavior in order to share risk, enable product diversification, facilitate international expansion, overcome Thailand regulation restriction and conform to Thailand government policy. The next important motivs of IJVs are 'decrease the cost of production' and 'sharing of resources dependency' (refer to table 2). Commonly, the foreign investors from developed countries enter Thailand to decrease their production cost whereby cheap labour is available, cheap skilled labour; available raw materials, geographycal location advantage and the strength of the national logistic system are the significant motive factors for Japanese investors choosing Thailand as their offshore production.

Hence, Japanese firm join operations with Thai local partner for lower costs and Thailand economies of scale. Moreover, sharing of resources dependency is also equally important as compared with cost reduction. This is because Japanese firms require complementary resources from local partner to achieve their goals. For instance, local knowledge marketing, channel distribution and exchange of trade mark. Surprisingly, acquiring organization knowledge is not a motive factor for Japanese firms to enter the IJV.

	The Motiv				
Industrial Sectors	To decrease the cost of production	For Strategic Behavior	To gain Organization Knowledge	To share resources dependency	Total No. of IJVs
Interview Data					
Manufacturing (Automobile Component)	0	X	0	X	1
Manufacturing (Car Air-condition)	X	0	0	0	1
Manufacturing (Car Engine)	X	X	0	0	1
Manufacturing (Electronic)	0	Х	0	0	1
Heavy Industry (Chemical)	0	Х	0	Х	1
Total Motivation Objective	2	4	0	2	5
Total in percentage (%)	25%	50%	0	25%	100%

Table 2: The Motivation of Thai-Japanese IJV formation (Interview Data)

Is partnership contributing to the successful of IJVs in Thailand?

Proposition 2:'Partner relationship' is the most important factor for successes IJV in Thailand.

Partner relationship is identified as the most important factor contributing to IJV success (Wadeecharoen et al., 2011: 2013:a:b). As the results of the study exhibited in table 3, four of five companies state that 'the relationship of Thai and Japanese partners is fairly important for success IJV'. These four IJVs are from automobile components, car-air condition, automotive engine manufacturing and heavy industry (chemical). Likewise, IJV firm in electronic manufacturing state that 'partner relationship between Thai and Japanese partners is very important for success IJV'. This is because IJV operational management is collaborating between both partners upon their goals and objectives. When IJV partners are in a superior relationship then both partners will explore all information with each other, organization knowledge will be transferred from parent firm (Japanese) to local partner (Thai). Organization resources of each IJV partners will be sharing the risk and profit in order to achieve IJV ultimate goals. This study concluded that 'partner relationship' is the most important factor for successes IJV in Thailand.

Thus, a well being of IJV partnership quality is needed to exist in IJVs organization. This will enhance the IJV overall business performance, preserving the firm competitive advantage in Ithe long-run business orientation (Wadeecharoen et al., 2013: 2012b:d:2011; Wadeecharoen, 2011; Wadeecharoen & Nik, 2010a:b: 2009: 2008).

	The important of Thai-Japanese partner relationship for IJVs success					
Industrial Sectors	Not at all Important	Not particularly important	Important	Fairly Important	Very Important	Total
Interview Data	^			^		
Manufacturing (Automobile Component)	0	0	0	Х	0	1
Manufacturing (CarAir-condition)	0	0	0	Х	0	1
Manufacturing (Car Engine)	0	0	0	Х	0	1
Manufacturing (Electronic)	0	0	0	0	Х	1
Heavy Industry (Chemical)	0	0	0	Х	0	1
Total	0	0	0	4	1	5
Total Percentage (%)	0	0	0	80%	20%	100%

Table 3: The important of Thai-Japanese partner relationship for IJVs success

Additionally, there are some important relational factors supporting the partner's relationship quality and success of Thai-Japanese IJV firm. The set of significant relational factors are grouped into five factors such as (1) communication; (2) trust; (3) commitment; (4) cooperation and (5) satisfaction (refer to table 4). As of the finding shown on table 4, indicated that *'trust within IJV organization'* is the most important relational variable for success IJV; followed by *'commitment within IJV organization'*. Trust and commitment are the important factors contributing to success of the IJV performance which is supported by numerous past research studies (Wilson & Brennan, 2009; Kown, 2008; Ng, Lau & Nyam, 2007; Julian & O'Cass, 2002; Griffth, Zeybek & O'Brien, 2001; Dermirbag & Mirza, 2000; Herbert, 1996). As soon as partners are trusted then they are able to work along during IJV longevity. In case of IJV company size is differ, then one firm bigger may acquire the other smaller firm. Hence, trust between partners creates an IJV reputation and enable to eliminate the problem that may concern on IJV operational management.

The second relational important after mutual trust is commitment between IJV partners, when Japanese and Thai partners are committed then they are aware of their role and work on their boundaries to achieve the IJV mutual goals. Moreover, through IJV commitment, it facilitate the partners to define further goals and enable them to watch for IJV further business trends to stay ahead of their competitors. Subsequently, communication within IJV is the important factor for Thai and Japanese partners running business effectively. When partners are well communicated then they can create mutual trust and understanding. Thus, partners' effective communication enables IJV to achieve their objective and goals. Cooperation within IJV allow partners firm to created inter-firm connectivity in order to exchange information, joint research community, exchange of expertise staff in specific areas and finally leading to the partners satisfaction of their ultimate goals. Therefore, these relational factors are fairly important contributing long-term partners' relationship and making IJV successful.

Relational Factors	IJV-1	IJV-2	IJV-3	IJV-4	IJV-5	
Communication within IJV	**	***	***	*	*	
Trust within IJV	***	***	***	***	***	
Commitment within IJV	**	***	***	*	**	
Cooperation within IJV	**	**	***	*	*	
Satisfaction within IJV	*	*	***	*	*	

Table 4: The important of relational factors for successful Thai-Japanese IJV

Note *** Very important

* Important

Is IJV in Thailand using 'legalistic or forcing strategic methods' instead of 'joint problem solving' and 'compromising' to settle of conflict issues between IJV partners?

- *Proposition* **3a:** *'Conflict Resolution'* is the important factor affecting the performance of IJV firms in Thailand.
- *Proposition* **3b:** IJV in Thailand is using *'legalistic strategic method'* to resolve conflict issues between IJV parties.
- **Proposition 3c:** IJV in Thailand is using *'forcing strategic method'* to resolve conflict issues between IJV partners.

According to Lu, (2007) 'conflict resolution' is categorized into four strategies such as (1) joint problem solving; (2) compromising; (3) forcing and (4) legalistic strategy. These conflict resolution methods have difference aspects which can be classified into positive (joint problem solving and compromising) and negative aspects (forcing and legalistic). Based on the past research studies, these conflict resolution methods have shown an equivoque and inconsistent results with different aspects. Positive aspects as joint problem solving have been found to have no significant relationship with US-China IJV performance in China (Lu, 2007). Similarly to the study of Lu, (2006) found that problem solving has no relationship related IJV performance both Sino-Japan and Sino-Taiwan groups. In other study by Lin and Germain, (1998) has found a positive relationship between joint problem solving and US-Chinese IJV performance in China. Compromising has a positive relationship with US-Chinese IJV performance (Lu, 2007).

Lu's study shows that compromising is positively related to the Sino-Japanese IJV but it is not in the Sino-Taiwan relationship. Additionally, Lin and Germain, (1998) also has found that no significant relationship exist between compromising and IJV performance in China.

^{**} Fairly important

A negative aspect such as forcing strategic method has no significant relationship with US-Chinese IJV performance (Lu, 2007: 2006; Lin & Germain, 1998). Legalistic strategic method has a negative significant relationship with US-China IJV performance in China (Lu, 2007; Lin & Germain, 1998). Lu, (2006) show that legalistic strategies is negatively related to Sino-Japanese IJV performance, but not in Sino-Taiwanese IJV performance in China. Lastly, forcing strategic method has no significant relationship with IJV performance (Lu, 2007:2006; Lin & Germain, 1998).

Wadeecharoen (2011), Wadeecharoen and Nik Mat (2010:2009) has studied the conflict factor in a positive aspect, by adapting the conflict management concept and its measurement from Thuy and Quang, (2005). Based on the concept of Thuy and Quang, (2005) it measures the extent of conflict which were managed between foreign and Vietnamese IJV partners. They are using joint problem solving strategic method to manage the conflict in an integrated fashion. They use specific words of to ask the respondents about things such as (1) an explicit mechanism has been established and used to address or resolve conflict; (2) managerial interaction between partners is closely monitored identifying potential conflicts; (3) great emphasis is placed on dealing with culture obstacles while resolving conflicts; (4) the partner engage in joint problem-solving while resolving conflicts; (5) top management from both side is involved in resolving conflict. Despite the finding of Thuy and Quang (2005), it shows no significance between conflict management and IJV foreign-Vietnamese in Vietnam manufacturing sectors. Similarly to the study of Wadeecharoen, (2011) and Wadeecharoen and Nik Mat, (2010:2009) found that conflict management has no relationship related to foreign and Thai IJV performance in Thailand manufacturing sectors.

Bases on the past research studies by (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, 2010:2009: Lu, 2007:2006; Thuy & Quang, 2005) confirm that joint problem solving has no relationship effect on IJV performance. Classified these research by countries, conflict management in a positive aspect has no relationship related to foreign-Thai IJV in Thailand (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, 2010:2009), in China (Lu, 2007:2006) and in Vietnam (Thuy & Quang, 2005). Despite, the study of Lin and Germain, (1998) also adapted the joint problem solving strategic in their framework but they have found a positive relationship related to US-Chinese IJV performance in China country. This creates suspicious gaps in the context of conflict resolution methods used by IJV in ASIA countries. According to Wadeecharoen, Kanjanavanikul and Teekasap, (2011) propose that 'IJV in Thailand may be using '*legalistic or forcing strategic methods*' instead of '*joint problem solving*' and 'compromising' to settle partner conflicts. Thus, qualitative research by using personal interview enables to clarify the equivocal result of conflict resolution methods used by IJV in Thailand.

The result of the study indicates that Thai-Japanese IJV in Thailand has no conflict between partners. Inversely, Japanese and Thai are well cooperated because they have deep historical links with each other. Hence, this study is confident to state that 'Japanese and Thai partners in Thailand IJV firm have no conflict between each other'. Consequently conflict resolution methods in negative aspect such as 'legalistic or forcing strategic methods' have never been used in ThaiJapanese IJV before (refer to table 5)

Industrial Sectors	Industrial Sectors Question Statement		No
Interview Data	Have you ever had conflict with you IJV partners?		
	Interviewee position & Year of work in IJV		
1. Manufacturing (Automobile Component)	Executive Vice-President (18 years)		√.
2. Manufacturing (Automobile Air-condition)	President (10 years)		√.
3. Manufacturing (Car Engine)	Vice President Regional Administration (3 years)		√.
4. Manufacturing (Electronic)	Vice President Administration (6 years)		√.
5. Heavy Industry (Chemical)	Managing Director (9 years)		√.
Total			5
Total Percentage (%)			100

Table 5: Conflict Resolution Strategic Methods & IJV Industrial Sectors

Note: In case 'yes' please specific the conflict resolution methods are as below;

1. 'legalistic or forcing strategic methods'

2. 'joint problem solving'

3. 'compromising'

Based on the table 5 exhibited the interview data collected from five IJV excusive managers in Thailand industrial sectors. Five IJV companies have confirmed that they ever have conflict with their partners. Therefore, the respondents of five IJV companies are describing the reason to support the finding 'why Japanese and Thai partners have ever been in conflicts' in the next section below;

The first IJV firm has been doing business in Thailand for decades. Thus, no wonder both partner understand that 'the business practices are done differently between Japanese and Thai partners'. In this way, conflict between IJV partners is rare to happen from partners getting along. Despite, the perception differences between Japanese and Thai partner happen upon specific situation like, when the company's performance, come out with poor results. The Japanese supervisors will call the Thai subordinate to discuss on those specific problems and the possible reason behind the case. Japanese talk is serious with a strong complain to the Thai subordinate in order to improve the company performance. The Thai staff listen whatever the Japanese supervisor complain and suggest but he doesn't take action to improve. In doing so, theJapanese supervisor keep complaining and, finally the Thai staff resign from his job. This is because the Thai staffs perceive that he isn't able to work with Japanese and he isn't smart enough for this position responsability. On other hand the Japanese and Thai partners are having different perceptions, this may cause differences in the partner management style. However, this differences did not cause the partners conflict, but the Thai staff decides to quitted from IJV is their last decision.

The second IJV Company has been operating business in Thailand over thirty year. It is well known, that Japan has long historical link with Thailand after the Second World War. This makes Japan to rely on Thailand economy which do not surprise why Japan is the major investor in Thailand. Japanese and Thai partners are well coordinated without any problems during their IJV longevity. Thus, conflicts between partners never happened since IJV has been established.

The third IJV firms have been doing business in Thailand for over past sixty years. This long-term duration is sufficient to state that Japanese and Thai partners are familiar with the way of each other doing things and making decisions. This could be the answer why IJV partners don't have any problem due to their culture differences. Despite, the way of thinking is different between Japanese and Thai managers, it does not cause conflict between Japanese and Thai staff. Even some partner's opinion is different, and leads to partner's argument during IJV meeting. This may cause some problem between Japanese and Thai staff individually but it doesn't cause problem between Japanese and Thai group. However, the differences between partner management style and the way of thinking do not make any impact on the IJV profitability and the business performance.

The forth company said that 'our IJV partners clearly understand the goals of the team'. Thus, we perform our work with awareness of our own roles and the roles of our partner. Based on this point, we collaborate with our partners without any problems and conflict.

The fifth IJV firm focuses on the organization level. The managing director said that the most common problem occurs in the production line like machine problems, supplier problems and shortage of raw materials. There are some personal problems which are complicated and difficult to solve. The general problems related to personal management is 'compensation management'. Generally, when the employee receives sufficient and fair compensation then they will be satisfied with their job and look forward to their career path. On the other hand, when the employee perceives an unfair compensation then they will act against the company rule by protest or leave and don't take any action to make the business activities go on. If the president couldn't solve the problem immediately, this will cause the company productivity, loss of business opportunity and put the company with negative image. Conflicts may occur due to unbalanced benefits among Japanese executives and Thai staff.

Even through, these conflicts ever happen in a IJV or even there is no labor union in the company. This is because, the IJV has a reliable compensation system by listening from the employee requests, then come out with a middle rate point that enable to satisfied both parties. In addition, the IJV encourages the employee to develop in every aspects such as language; the employee who can speak English will receive a benefit of maximum 5,000 Baht and Japanese 10,000 Baht additional to their salary. In case of the employees are able to speak both Eng and Japanese, the maximum is 15,000 (5,000+10,000) Bath added on the salary. This policy has motivated Japanese and Thai employee to communicate and cooperate effectively. Moreover, the IJV creates a human resources program with training. PDCA is adapted in every organization department and KPI is used to evaluate the personal performance. The personal performance outcome with average grade a continuously for over 3 years and above is sent to Japan parent firms for training before post to a higher position. Hence, based on systematic organization, it confirms that the company has never been in conflict with the IJV organization members.

In summary, Japanese managers concluded that they have never been in conflict with IJV partners. Inversely, both partners well understand the way of each partner doing their things. They are also being cooperative with each other to achieve the IJV mutual goals. Hence, Thai-Japanese IJV in Thailand manufacturing sectors has never been using conflict resolution in negative aspects like *'legalistic or forcing strategic methods'*.

Do IJV in Thailand have no 'culture clash' due to partner's adaptability or learning process between both side (Japanese and Thai partners)?

Proposition 4a: *'Cultural Sensitivity'* is the important factor affecting the performance of IJV firms in Thailand.

An IJV firm is established from at least two organizations or above and one of them comes from an oversea country. Hence, multi-cultural differences from each partner may reflect on the IJV management style. This is because business practices are done very differently between the foreign and local partners due to cultural differences. Understanding the partner cultural sensitivity is important to get through the way the partner think. In doing so, they will try to adapt to other partner's way of doing things. When the IJV partners understand the cultural differences, then they always conduct business approaching a decision making together with their partners firm. As a result the cultural sensitivity between partners leads both partners to accept the IJV common goals and take actions to achieve their goals. Thus, based on these points and finding of the study (refer to table 6) allows to predicate that cultural sensitivity is the important factor effecting the performance of IJV firms in Thailand.

Industrial Sectors	Question Statement		No
Interview Data	Is ' <i>Culture Sensitivity</i> ' is the important factor effecting on your IJV performance?		
	Interviewee & Year of work in IJV		
1. Manufacturing (Automobile Component)	Executive Vice-President (18 years)	1	
2. Manufacturing (Automobile Air-condition)	President (10 years)	✓.	
3. Manufacturing (Car Engine)	Vice President Regional Administration (3 years)	1	
4. Manufacturing (Electronic)	Vice President Administration (6 years)	✓.	
5. Heavy Industry (Chemical)	Managing Director (9 years)	✓.	
Total			5
Total Percentage (%)			100

Table 6: Culture Sensitivity is the Important Factor Effecting on IJV firms in Thailand

Proposition 4b: IJV in Thailand have no *'culture clash'* due to the long-term partners learning and cooperation between both side (Foreign and Thai local).

According to Wadeecharoen, (2011) and Wadeecharoen and Nik Mat, (2010:2009) studying the cultural factor in a positive aspect adapting the cultural sensitivity concept and its measurement from Thuy and Quang, (2005). Based on the concept of Thuy and Quang, (2005) measure the extent of cultural sensitivity between foreign and Vietnamese IJV partners. They result shows that cultural sensitivity between IJV partners has no relationship effect to IJV performance. Similarity, in Thailand manufacturing sectors, cultural sensitivity between foreign and Thai IJV partners has no relationship related with IJV performance (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, 2010:2009). Based on these past research studies can conclude that IJV in East Asia countries like

Vietnam and Thailand are flexible to adapt with other foreign partners culture during partners learning and operating with each other. Thus, this study assumes that the IJV in Thailand have no *'cultural clash'* due to the long-term partners learning and cooperation. The findingsexhibited in table 7 confirm that IJV partners in Thailand have no *'cultural clash'* due to their long-term partners cooperation and learning.

Industrial Sectors	trial Sectors Question Statement		No
Interview Data	Have you ever had culture clash with your IJV partners?		
	Interviewee & Year of work in IJV		
1. Manufacturing (Automobile Component)	Executive Vice-President (18 years)		✓.
2. Manufacturing (Automobile Air-condition)	President (10 years)		✓.
3. Manufacturing (Car Engine)	Vice President Regional Administration (3 years)		✓.
4. Manufacturing (Electronic)	Vice President Administration (6 years)		✓.
5. Heavy Industry (Chemical)	Managing Director (9 years)		✓.
Total			5
Total Percentage (%)			100

Bases on table 7 exhibited the interview's data collected from five IJV executive managers in Thailand industrial sectors. The five IJV companies confirm that they ever had '*cultural clashes*' between their partners (Japanese and Thai). There are minor cultural differences between Japanese and Thais which cause miss understanding between the partner groups. This is not a big deal for both partners working along in an IJV operational structure. Therefore, the respondents of five IJV firms describe the reason to support the finding 'why '*cultural clashes*' have ever happened between Japanese and Thai partners' in the next section below;

The first IJV Company stated that Thai and Japanese partners are having similar thoughts about religion, believe (Buddha) behavior which reflects personal reaction. Both Japanese and Thai respect each other national cultural aspects. Particularly, Thai culture is open to a warm hospitality environment and also welcomes Japanese to live and work in happiness in Thailand. Thus, Japanese is comfortable to adapt with their Thai partner in the way of doing thing and its Thai business environment.

The second company perceived that Thai and Japan countries have a long-term history regarding partner trade and political relationship over 125 years. Consequently, both partners understand each other from the history and cultural background. Japanese firm in Thailand is familiar with the way of local partner doing things and its local business environment. Thus, *'national cultural clashes'* have even happened with IJV in Thailand.

Third IJV executive manager said that 'we couldn't avoid the cultural diversity' as long as our IJV is having global branch connected in several countries. Therefore, the difficulty to manage cross cultures in an IJV firm is how to combine all employees' national cultural background identity.

The first step to create cultural value is for the parent firm (Japanese) to accept the local partner's mind and understand the Thai partner management style. This is basically a concept making both partners to recognize each other before they sett the same target goal and create a process to achieve what they are targeting. Apparently, partners in IJV are collecting the partner's opinion before they create their own cultural identity. Our IJV cultural identity collaborates with over 200,000 people in several regional. Since our IJV culture refers to people belief in one goal and one vision for the future. Therefore, our IJV employees believe in doing the same principle to fulfill our customer's satisfaction through quality products and services. Moreover, we contribute the global growth through anticipation of change, we save the environmental and harmony with society and we cooperate and respect the individuallity. Hence, our IJV culture is respected for individual spirit like to be creative in though and steady in action, to be cooperative and pioneering and to be trustworthy by improving ourselves.

Consequently, due to multi-national employee in our IJV organization, we could make a different management style. Both Japanese and Thai partners are learning these differences and try to adapt with each other national culture. Japanese manager is adapting to Thai management style with his own work. For instance, Thai manager is fast in making a decision without agreement from meeting with all the people concerned. In case of emergency, this management style is more efficient than Japanese style. Similarly, Thai partner also adapt to Japanese management style with his own work like reporting all the operational process to his supervisor. This can help supervisor to see more detail how Thai partner do the job and what process make his job difficulty. When Japanese knows all the operation processes then he would know what are the things he should give an assists to the Thai partner in order to improve the overall IJV performance.

The forth IJV company believed that partners are committed in term of collaboration, customer satisfaction with IJV product and service quality. Thus, our IJV partners understand the difference of Japanese and Thai management style. Whatever action is done by our partners aim to achieve the IJV goal and objectives. Due to the same partners objectives, they are able to adapt with each other partner management style and able to manage the IJV organizational culture differences. We declare that no *'cultural clashes'* due to partners learning and cooperation with each other. The last IJV managing director stated that the beginning stage to understand between Japanese and Thai partners is 'how both partners communicate'. When partners open the sense of communicating then they will open the eyes to learn and accumulate information that may be beneficial for them. Here we called it 'interactive learning or learning by doing'. As of this point, both partners will use their own sense to learn and adapt with each other culturalbackground. This is the reason behind the policy why our IJV encourage employee ability to communicate both in English and Japanese language. Based of these reasons, our IJV has no *'culture clash'* due to culture adaptability or learning process between partners.

In summary, the five Japanese managers inferred that Japanese and Thai partners in Thailand IJV firms have no *'cultural clashes'* due to their long-term partners learning and cooperation. As a matter of fact, they have long historical link with each other after Second World War. This is because Japan and Thai traditionally are trading partners over several decades and consistent in great political relationship.

Thus, no wonder why Japanese firms choose Thailand for their long-term production base. Additionally, Japanese and Thai partners worship Buddhism religion; this leads both partners to believe in the same thing which will be reflecting in their management reaction and style.

Discussion and Conclusion

The critical issues of inter partners relationship has become an interesting research topic and an important sources for developing a long-term IJV competitive advantage (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, 2009; Wilson & Brennan, 2009; Ainuddin, Beamish, Hulland & Rouse, 2007; Robson, Skarmeas & Spyropoulou, 2006; Thuy & Quang, 2005; Robson et al., 2002; Macneil, 1980). According to Wadeecharon & Nik Mat, (2011: 2010: 2009) assume that conflict management and sensitivity are having a positive relationship related to IJV business performance in Thailand manufacturing sector.

Surprisingly, their finding shows that conflict management, cultural sensitivity has no significant effect with the IJV performance. Similarity to the study of Thuy & Quang, (2005), who found no relationship significance between conflict management, cultural sensitivity and IJV performance in Vietnam manufacturing sector. Apparently, these studies were investigating conflict and cultural factors with positive aspects while their result shows that these factors have no significant relationship with IJV performance (Wadeecharon & Nik Mat, 2011: 2010: 2009; Thuy & Quang, (2005). Based on this unexpected finding of conflict management and cultural sensitivity it is worthy to investigate the following research questions. Are the IJV's in Thailand using '*legalistic or forcing strategic methods*' instead of '*joint problem solving and compromising*' to settle conflict issues between IJV partners? Do IJV's in Thailand have no '*cultural clashes*' due to the partner's adaptability or learning process between both sides (Wadeecharoen et al., 2011). These research questions enable the study to '*what actually happened inside Thailand IJV*'.

To clarify the significant role of 'conflict resolution' and 'cultural sensitivity' through the lens of relational exchange theory (Wilson & Brennan, 2009; Robson et al., 2006: 2002; Macneil, 1980), a qualitative technique has been chosen to interpret the findings of five IJV managers' interviews. Five IJV managers Japanese and Thai partners in IJV firms have never been in conflict during IJV operation. Thus, conflict resolution method is not particularly an important factor for the IJV in Thailand. Consequently, the conflict resolution method in the negative aspect such as 'legalistic and forcing strategic methods' have never been used by IJV partners to settle conflict issues in Thailand manufacturing sectors.

Similarly quantitative techniques confirm that conflict resolution methods in positive aspects such as *'joint problem solving and compromising methods'* have never been used by IJV partners in Thailand (Wadeecharoen, 2011; Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, 2011: 2010: 2009). Hence, Thai and Japanese IJV partners have never been in conflict therefore conflict resolution both in negative and positive aspects have never been choose or used to settle conflict in Thailand IJV firms.

Normally, conflict between IJV partners may occur when one or two partners perceive insufficient resources sharing which directly refer to compensation, dividend, profit sharing and mutual benefits. In a matter of fact, when an IJV is established, both partners will commit their resources both in term of tangible and non-tangible asset dedicated to the IJV operation. IJV partner's commitment refers to adjust the partner attitude regarding further investment and inputs made for further exchange (Gundlach, Achrol & Mentzer, 1995). Such partners integrate their inputs based on a commitment structure before a contract between the partners, which aim to achieve both goal and mutual benefits. Both partners understand their contractual commitment and mutual IJV goals and benefits. Both partners understand each other management style and decision making.

Moreover, they will perform their work with the awareness of their role and scope. Consequently, partner's collaboration is generated while conflict is rare to happen between IJV in Thailand.

The quantitative study of Wadeecharoen, (2011) and Wadeecharoen & Nik Mat, (2010: 2009) it shows that cultural Sensitivity is a positive aspect and has no significant relationship related to IJV performance in Thailand. Similarly to Thuy & Quang, (2005) found that cultural sensitivity has no relationship effect on the IJV performance in Vietnam. As of these past research studies enable to aggregate that IJV in East Asia countries like Thailand and Vietnam are flexible to adapted with other foreign partners culture during partners learning and operating with each other. Thus, by using qualitative technique through five IJV manager interview, the study concludes that IJV in Thailand has no *'cultural clash'* due to the long-term partners learning and cooperating between Japanese and Thai partners. This is because Japan and Thailand has a long historical link regarding trading and political relationship over 125 years. Both partners deeply understand and trust each other from the history and national cultural background. Thus, no wonder Japanese firms in Thailand are familiar and easy to adapt with the way of local partner doing thing and local business environment.

Since, Japan is the top investors in ASEAN region after European Union (EU) and United Stage (US); the Japanese total investment worthy 16,182.4 Billion USD accumulated from year 2008 to 2010 (Cheewatrakoolpong, Sabhasri & Bunditwattanawong, 2013). The large amount of Japanese investment diffuse over ASEAN countries indicated that this economic region is still attractive and stay competitive in the global market. As of this evidence, Japanese firm could not *'avoid the culture diversity'* as long as they are having a global branch connected in several countries in the ASEAN region. Hence, the difficult thing is how Japanese firms will manage the cultural differences within subordinate branch firm located in foreign countries. Identifying one parent firm culture, one identity is the best choice to combine multi-cultural difference in IJV firms in foreign countries. At this stage, local partners in foreign countries must accept the culture of the parent firm and believe in the same values before setting into one culture, one identity. When both partner believe in the same values, same culture then they will created one identity to generated organization synergy to achieve the same target.

In conclusion, based on the past research studies and five Japanese managers interview as the discussion above. This is sufficient enough to confirm that Japanese and Thai partners have never been in conflict between each other. Similarly, Japanese and Thai partners have no 'cultural clashes' due to the long-term partner's cooperation and learning'. Based on this finding supported, hence, no wondering why the trend of Japanese direct investment in Thailand has no signal to decline while it is continuously increasing year after year. Thus, 'no conflict' and 'no cultural clash' between Japanese and Thai partners is the reasons motivating Japanese investors to invest in Thailand.

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GENDER AND COMMUNICATION

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Abstract

At the core of Black feminist literary criticism lies the idea of Black women seeking their own identity and defining themselves through bonding on various levels - psychic, intellectual as well as physical- with other Black women. The present paper intends to establish that black women writers of today have responded to issues of queer love, alternate sexualities and lesbianism at a deeper and more complex level than mere debunking of social constructs. Their works represent Black women's lived experiences where socially unacceptable queer love is explored in all dimensions. The paper proposes to interrogate the intersections of stereotypical race and gender notions that are irreversible with that of queerness-a social construct that is based on liminality and fluidity. Adapting the methodology of textual analysis by applying the analytical & critical tools namely Black feminist literary theory and criticism, feminist epistemology and hints of Queer theory, the paper interrogates three novels by three canonical writers of African-America, selected for study in order to comprehend the implications and interactions of alternate sexualities, contested identities, socio-cultural constructs, homophobia and racial and gender oppression in terms of textual representations. Nel and Sula in Toni Morrison's Sula and Celie and Shug Avery in Walker's The Color Purple complement and complete each other. While the former novel subtly suggests the lesbian dimension underscoring the intimate friendship of Nel and Sula, the latter breaks all taboo in its graphic and deliberately overt portrayal of lesbian bonding between Celie and Shug Avery. Juxtaposed against these empowering images is the lesbian relationship in Gloria Naylor's The Women of Brewster Place, where, a "queer" couple seeking a "normal" life is hounded by society, displaced from homes, till, finally, the sensitive and vulnerable Lorraine falls prey to rape and murder. Thus, the paper not only makes a comparative study of the three authors' textual communication of the "unspeakable" experiences of queer-bonding, but goes beyond traditional concepts of homosexual bonding to underscore how psycho-sexual and physical trauma may lead to such bonding, which may be at times liberating or at times debilitating.

Keywords: Black feminism, queer-bonding, unspeakable, textual communication, alternate sexualities, contested identities.

Introduction

"If I didn't define myself for myself, I would be crunched into other people's fantasies for me and eaten alive."

-AudreLorde

"It is not our differences that divide us. It is our inability to recognize, accept, and celebrate those differences."

- AudreLorde, Our Dead Behind Us: Poems

In a groundbreaking anthology All the women are white, all the blacks are men, but some of us are brave: Black Women's Studies, published in 1982, Gloria T. Hull, Patricia Bell Scott, and Barbara Smith sought to give expression to black women's studies. In their introduction, Hull, Scott and Smith state, "black women could not exist consciously until we began to name ourselves" (Hull, Scott, and Smith, p. xvii). Lorraine Bethel in Some of us are Brave writes that at the core of Black feminism lies "Black women-identification". She looked at Black feminist literary criticism as "most simply the idea of Black women seeking their own identity and defining themselves through bonding on various levels - psychic, intellectual as well as physical- with other Black women". She goes on to explain that "Black women-identification is black women not accepting male including Black male -definitions of femaleness or Black womanhood..." (Bethel, 1982). African American writer Alice Walker defines a "womanist" as a "feminist of color- a woman who loves other women sexually or non-sexually ... and is committed to survival and wholeness of an entire people, male and female." (Louis Gates, Alice Walker: Critical Perspectives, 1993, p.331). In making a case for a separate Black Feminism, bell hooks has argued that black women "who live daily in oppressive situations, often acquire an awareness of patriarchal politics from their lived existence, just as they developed strategies of resistance..."(Hooks, Feminist Theory: From Margin to Center, 1984). The joy of being together and the bondage of sisterhood may be new to the white, middle-class burgeoning feminists but to black women like her, "sisterhood" was nothing new for "(she) had not known a life where women had not been together, where women had not helped, protected, and lovedoneanotherdeeply..."(Hooks, 1984)

In literature the process of naming or "identification" in terms of claiming a speaking voice /narratorial voice and articulating unique experiences of gender and racial oppression is problematized further by intersections of sexualities, crossovers or alternate sexualities. Irreversible social constructs like race, class and gender have located African-American women at the extreme periphery of marginalized "others". The present paper hypothecates that black women writers of today have responded to issues of queer love, alternate sexualities and lesbianism at a deeper and more complex level than mere debunking of social constructs. Their works represent Black women's lived experiences where socially unacceptable queer love/friendship/relationship is explored in all dimensions- emotional, psychic, physical, intellectual and spiritual. These women may or may not be partners in sex, they could be soul-mates, "sisters at arms" or lovers - they are in a relationship that is empowering and enabling-that warm their hearts, sustain them emotionally and strengthen them spiritually. The paper also posits after Bethel that Black women-identification is Black women not accepting male- including Black male-definitions of femaleness or Black womanhood. Trauma-bonding was natural and inevitable, given the debilitating circumstances in which they lived and loved. The paper proposes to interrogate the intersections of stereotypical race and gender notions that are irreversible with that of queerness—a social construct that is based on liminality and fluidity. Three novels by three canonical writers of African America have been selected for study in order to comprehend the implications and interactions of alternate sexualities, contested identities, socio-cultural constructs, homophobia and racial and gender oppression in terms of textual representations and authorial communication.Nel and Sula in Toni Morrison's Sula and Celie and Shug Avery in Walker's The Color Purple complement and complete each other. While the former novel subtly suggests the lesbian dimension underscoring the intimate friendship of Nel and Sula, the latter breaks all taboo in its graphic and deliberately overt portrayal of lesbian bonding between Celie and Shug Avery. Juxtaposed against these empowering images is the lesbian relationship in Gloria Naylor's *The Women of Brewster Place*, where, a "queer" couple seeking a "normal" life is hounded by society, displaced from homes, till, finally, the sensitive and vulnerable Lorraine falls prey to a gang of hoodlums who rape and murder her.

Queer is by definition whatever is at odds with the normal, the legitimate, the dominant. There is nothing in particular to which it necessarily refers. It is an identity without an essence. 'Queer' then, demarcates not a positivity but a positionality vis-à-vis the normative. (David Halperin, *Saint Foucault: Towards a Gay Hagiography*,1997, p. 62). Queer theory builds both upon feminist challenges to the idea that gender is part of the essential self and upon gay/lesbian studies' close examination of the socially constructed nature of sexual acts and identities. [http://en.wikipedia.org].The paper adopts this definition and would validate the hypothesis that each of these three writers have challenged essentialist assumptions in their representations/reconstructions of black women's identities.

Nobel Laureate Toni Morrison's has become the touchstone and symbol of African America, of human struggle against various kinds of oppressions, of a global longing for liberation. Significant debates of American literature, culture and ideology have amassed around her name including those about the relation of slavery to freedom, the possibility of creating literature that is aesthetically beautiful and politically engaged, the interlocking relation of racism, sexism and classism and the possibility of laying claim to our 'self's , our lives and our imagination from within a society that is postmodern, patriarchal and capitalist.(Peterson, *Modern Fiction Studies, Toni Morrison Double Issue.* 1993. p. 465.)

Morrison's *Sula* charts the trajectory of a thwarted sisterhood and a woman's solo quest for self and identity. Sula and Nel were "(d)aughters of distant mothers and incomprehensible fathers"(196) due to which they were drawn to each other in a friendship where each complimented and completed the other, an emotional bonding that they couldnot forge with their mothers and the absence of a father figure that both felt in their houses. The psycho-sexual dimension of their bonding is subtly but unmistakably communicated by the author:

"...for it was in dreams that the two girls had first met...they had already made each other's acquaintance in the delirium of their noon dreams. They were solitary little girls whose loneliness was so profound it intoxicated them and sent them stumbling into Technicolored visions that always included a presence, a someone, who, quite like the dreamer, shared the delight of the dream." [*Sula*, p.51]

The point of assertion is that "the presence," "the someone" who was "interested" in the dream and had "shared both the taste and the speed" of the imaginary experiences, was for each, the other girl.[*Sula*, 51-52] During their formative years, both were acutely conscious of the disadvantage they suffered as African-American females:

"Because each had discovered years before that they were neither white nor male, and that all freedom and triumph was forbidden to them, they had set about creating something else to be." [*Sula*, 52]

In their struggle for self-identification, they "use(d) each other to grow on" [*Sula*, 51] as they "found in each other's eyes the intimacy they were looking for" [*Sula*, 51]Their girl-bonding was induced by an empathy that ran deeper than one that could be forged by a consciousness

of fellow-suffering however. Morrison subtly underscores the complex nature of the bonding in a passage which is particularly suggestive:

"They ran in the sunlight, creating their own breeze, which pressed their dresses into their damp skin...they flung themselves into the four-cornered shade to taste their lip sweat and contemplate the wildness that had come upon them so suddenly. They lay in the grass, their foreheads almost touching, their bodies stretched away from each other at a 180-degree angle...Underneath their dresses flesh tightened and shivered...their small breasts just now beginning to create some pleasant discomfort..." [Sula, 58]

The acute awareness of their growing bodies was realized in the intimacy of their cocooned privacy. The import and essence of unuttered words transport their bonding to the realm of the "unspeakable" and even unrealized at that juncture of their young lives. Unconsciously, they reinforce the psycho-sexual dimension of their intense friendship as they enact a ritual of silent lovemaking, one understanding the other in perfect attunement of mind and manifest action:

"Sula ...joined Nel in the grass play. In concert, without ever meeting each other's eyes, they stroked the blades up and down, up and down. Nel found a thick twig and, with her thumbnail, pulled away its bark until it was stripped to a smooth, creamy innocence. Sula looked about and found one too. When both twigs were undressed Nel moved easily to the next stage and began tearing up rooted grass to make a bare spot on earth...Sula traced intricate patterns in it with her twig...(Nel) poked her twig rhythmically and intensely into the earth, making a small neat hole...Sula copied her...Together they worked until the two holes were one and the same...Carefully they replaced the soiland covered the entire grave with uprooted grass. Neither one had spoken a word." [*Sula*, 58]

The homo-erotic sensuousness is apparent in the sequence of "stripping', "undressing", "creamy innocence', "bare spot" followed by Sula's tracing of intricate patterns on the naked earth simulating foreplay, Nel's impatience with it as she "poked" her twig "rhythmically and intensely into the earth" (simulating sex-act), her actions copied by Sula until "the two holes were one and the same". What had begun as separate acts of sensuous experience triggered by their heightened consciousness of their bodies at the threshold of youth, ends in a significant merging of their separate holes into one, snapping of the phallic instrument of "digging the earth", the girls' disgust at it, symbolic of disillusionment with hetero-normative sexuality and the final burial of the phallus with the bits and pieces of trash, "all the small defiling things" [59] that they threw into the hole and covered with uprooted grass. The entire ritual of deconstruction, cleansing and reconstruction isenacted in silence as each follows the other without question or explanation. The liminality or ambiguity of the ritual underscore the fluidity of their identities as both girls stand at the threshold of transition between their previous way of structuring their identity, self, or community, and a new way, which the ritual establishes. (Arnold Van Gennep, *The Rites of Passage*, 1977, p.21).

Morrison writes that the "friendship" shared by the two girls were "sudden and intense"—they found solace and "relief" in each other's personality. During their growing yearsNel was stronger and more consistent of the two—Sula being whimsical and unpredictable. However, Sula's fierce protectiveness towards Nel made her slash off her own fingertip once, to frighten a group of white boys who had blocked their way to bully them, thus sealing the tie with blood. When Chicken Little, a neighborhood child,drowned accidentally as he slipped from Sula's hands whileNel witnessed in shock, the terrible secret forged an unspoken and indescribable tie between them. It made Nel a partner of the

unintentional crime as she felt Sula's grief and guilt as her own. At Chicken Little's funeral, "she felt convicted and hanged right there in the pew..." [*Sula*, 65] even as Sula cried soundlessly.

Sula couldnot confine herself within the codified norms of accepted and expected behaviour. Knowing well her limitations as an African-American woman, and that "all freedom and triumph was forbidden"[52] to her, she embarked alone on a quest of self-discovery. Nel's friendship had been the core relationship in Sula's life, the pivot of her commitment and contentment—they were soulmates, their thoughts and deeds matched in perfect harmony. Nel's marriage to Jude was for her a betrayal that made her leave Medallion to go North on Nel's wedding day. The singling out of Nel by Jude and her acceptance of him established his priority over Sula in her eyes and "selected her away" from Sula's friendship. Sula left Medallion without a backward glance, severing her ties with her hometown as swiftly as one would the birth-chord choking a newborn child. She left not with bitterness, but with amusement, as if she had some secret knowledge that Nel, as of now, couldnot comprehend. Years later, when Sula returned to Medallion, Morrison writes that Nel alone noticed the magic of her presence, "it was she alone who saw this magic," and "her own body was not immune to the magic" [pp.94-95] For Nel:

It was like getting the use of an eye back, having a cataract removed...Sula. Who made her laugh, who made her see old things with new eyes, in whose presence she felt clever, gentle and a little raunchy." [*Sula*, 95]

And again,

She felt new, soft and new. It had been a long time since she had had a rib-scraping laugh. She had forgotten how deep and down it could be. So different from the miscellaneous giggles and smiles she had learned to be content with these past few years. [*Sula*, 98]

Nel's rediscovery of her soul mate who helped her to define herself, lent a buoyancy to her everyday existence, till she was confronted with the double betrayal of her "best friend" and her husband. Sula's nonchalance hurt her more than Jude's infidelity and put an end to their intense bond. What Nel failed to understand was that Sula had never thought her as a separate self. For Sula, they were parts of a whole and each instinctively knew the other's intention/action. "She had clung to Nel as the closest thing to both an other and a self, only to discover that she and Nel were not one and the same thing" [p.119]. The two women had helped to define each other and Sula regrets Nel's regression into selfpity like the other women of the community, who, like spiders, "dangled in dark dry places suspended by their own spittle, ...terrified of the free fall...that required-demanded-invention...alive was what they, and now Nel, did not want to be. Too dangerous." [p.120] Sula's puzzled incomprehension of Nel's insistence on behaving as the wronged wife was because they hadtogether "seen the slant of life and made it possible to stretch it to its limits" [p.120]During her heterosexual affairs, Sula had discovered that "a lover was not a comrade and could never be-for a woman." [p.121] Morrison leaves subtle pointers for perceptive readers of the text when she communicates Sula's stark isolation and profound loneliness (which she actually seeks), her misery and deep sadness when she lay with men, and her psychic "craving for the other half of her equation" which could perhaps been fulfilled if Nel had not been weaned away from her or had she not succumbed to family and society's expectations of her. Not even the irony of Sula's "possessive" lovemaking with Ajax can deter from the core relationship of the novel-the unrealized and unspoken bond between the two estranged black women. Even as Sula lies dying alone, a pariah and outcaste, she contemplates their strange bond and challenges the self-righteous Nel, who had come to confront her with the question of betrayal in the guise of a last visit to her friend, "you say I'm a woman and colored. Ain't that the same as being a man?" [p.142] and "About who was good. How you know it was you?"[p.146]. The significance and import of Sula's words were registered by Nel only after her death, when Nel, returning from her funeral, stops suddenly. In an almost epiphanic realisation, Nel gazes at the tree tops, whispering a question, seeking her "othered" self, Sula:

"All that time, all that time, I thought I was missing Jude." And the loss pressed down on her chest and came up into her throat. "We was girls together," she said as though explaining something. "O Lord, Sula," she cried, "girl, girl, girlgirlgirl." It was a fine cry—loud and long—but it had no bottom and it had no top, just circles and circles of sorrow. [*Sula*. 174]

The magnitude and profundity of the loss of a soulmate, a kindred spirit and the realization of a thwarted relationship reverberates in Nel's soul shaking cry of grief.

Alice Walker's Pulitzer Prize winning *The Color Purple*established her deep involvement and concern, personal identification with and empathy and compassion for black women, and her as a major voice in modern fiction. The novel encapsulates Walker's much celebrated "womanism" in that Celie is represented as an inspiring figure of empowerment whose fascinating journey from despair to fulfillment is made possible by her woman-love and her psychological, physical, sexual, emotional and spiritual bonding/relationship with Shug Avery, her husband's lover.

Walker develops early in her novels a sense of sisterhood and shared perception of oppression among black women who draw together despite their apparently clashing roles/relationships. For example, Celie is her own mother's rival after she is taken by her stepfather but her sympathies always lie with her and when she remarries after her death, Celie and Nettie become naturally close to their stepmother who is a fellow victim in the politics of male oppression. When Nettie leaves her father's house her only worry is about her stepmother. Celie says: "I don't even look at mens...I look at women, tho, cause I'm not scared of them".

It would however be fallacious to assume that Celie's sexual attraction to Shug stemmed out of her traumatic experiences of sex—her father's brutal and repeated rape of her, which burdened her with the guilt of incest (she came to know much later that he was her step father) and destroyed her self confidence as an individual, her husband's regular violation of her body that further erased her selfhood, the beatings and abuse that turned her into "wood". The text is replete with sufficient evidence that points towards Celie's sexual preference. Her unspoken emotions find expression in her "letters to God" – a communication of moving honesty and truth.

Celie is bewitched the instant she sets eyes on Shug's photograph:

Shug Avery was...The most beautiful woman I ever saw...I ast her to give me the picture. An all night long I stare at it. An now when I dream, I dream of Shug Avery. [*The Color Purple*,16]

Her sexual attraction to and fascination with Shug's body finds graphic expression on several occasions, especially when she is bathing and nursing a sick Shug back to health. She says: "I thought I had turned into a man", [p.53] and again, "I wash her body, it feel like I'm praying. My hands tremble and my breath short." [p.53] The sensuousness of her response to Shug's body is

underscored by her distinguishing it from her sisterly feeling towards other women. The mingling of intense passion and tenderness in Celie's confession: "If I don't watch out I'll have hold of her hand, tasting her fingers in my mouth" convey her erotic fantasizing about Shug. It is Shug who acquaints her with the beauty and sensuous responses of her own body [pp.79-80] and with her true generosity of spirit she comforts Celie. Celie has never responded to her husband Albert's lovemaking, which she tolerates as a part of her marital duties:

Most times I pretend I ain't there...Just do his business, get off, go to sleep.[p.224]

To her, it feels as if he uses her like a toilet. Brutalisation of her body at a young age may have destroyed her normal sexual desires and spoiling her forever for men. Celie states her sexual preference in her characteristic matter-of-fact manner without any trace of bitterness:

"...men look like frogs to me. No matter how you kiss 'em, as far as I am concern, frog is what they stay." [p.224]

Shug and Celie's relationship goes far beyond that of mere lovers. Long before their sexual "coming to" and physical lovemaking, they have been soulmates. Shug helps Celie to come to terms with her past, to reclaim it, to rediscover faith, find the true meaning of religion and God, exploreher creativity and give it expression, claim her own identity and rediscover her selfhood and dignity. When Celie leaves with Shug for Memphis, she has gained enough self confidence to declare:

"I'm pore. I'm black, I may be ugly...But I'm here."[p.187]

A heterosexual by choice, Shug has frequent affairs and a string of marriages to men, both older and younger than her. As Celie discovers new dimensions of her personality while living with Shug, she goes through a gamut of emotions as she falls more deeply in love with her "sugar" and discovers the glory and pain that such bonding entails. Celie relocates to her own childhood home which she legally inherits after her stepfather's death. Here, she comes to terms with her life and past, she is self-contained and calm as she waits for Shug to finally come home to her.

I be so calm. If she come, I be happy. If she don't, I be content. [p.247]

It is but poetic justice that it is Shug's turn now to feel jealous and possessive at the easy friendship that has grown between Celie and her former husband. It is a time for reckoning and homecoming for Shug. Celie, the unsure, insecure partner whom she helped to find her own "self", to "be", is now her haven and home. Celie writes:

"She smile, come put her head on my breast. Let out a long breath." [p.248]

Not only has Celie risen, phoenix-like, from her own despair to fashion a world of her own, she has emerged as a figure of empowerment, a stable anchor of love and serenity to Shug's carefree and footloose restlessness, each completing and complimenting the other, while nurturing family and friends alike. The novel closes on a note of wellbeing as Shug has decided to retire from show business, Celie has been reunited with her sister and family and Albert is an old friend now. Celie is among her own: "I point up at my peoples. This Shug and Albert, I say." [p.250]

Gloria Naylor won the American Book Award for *TheWomen of Brewster Place* in 1983. The gripping realism of the novel has placed her in the league of leading contemporary novelists. She has proved her social consciousness and awareness of the exploitation of black women not only her first but also her subsequent novels. Dorothy Wickenden writes in *The New Republic* that "Gloria Naylor's women, much like those of Toni Morrison and Alice Walker are daunting even in desolation. Most of them find that through laughter and companionship, they can make themselves virtually impregnable"(Wickenden, *The New York Republic*. September 6, 1982).

In *The Women of Brewster Place* Naylor sets Theresa and Lorraine apart from the other women of Brewster Place by placing them in the chapter titled "The Two", suggesting their isolation and alienation from the cloistered black women of Brewster Place not only in terms of their better jobs or affluent background (at least Theresa's) but also due to their psychological alienation as lesbian women. Brewster Place has been a shelter for people who have nowhere to go. Brewster's women have witnessed pain, misery and betrayal and have accepted life's unfairness and aberrations of human behavior. Yet, even for them, Theresa and Lorraine were not "nice girls" because they were "*that* way". Naylor plumbs the depth of human intolerance, irrationality, homophobia and societal and social dogma as she writes:

So it got around that the two in 312 were *that* way. And they had seemed like such nice girls...The quiet that rested around their door on the weekends hinted of all sorts of secret rituals, and their friendly indifference to the men on the street was an insult to the women as a brazen flaunting of unnatural ways. [*Women of Brewster Place*, 131]

The notion of evil associated with the unfamiliar and the "different" stems from normative expectations of sex and gender behavior and performance. The imagined mystery that shrouds the socially unacceptable and "deviant" or "queer" relationships triggers hatred and stigmatization. Naylor's hard-hitting narrative conveys with stunning ruthlessness the mindless cruelty towards what society has condemned as taboo.

While the backdrop prepares the reader for an imminent ostracization of the lesbian couple and a reigned-in discontent that is gradually gaining momentum, Naylor's sensitive representation of Theresa and Loraine as a "queer" couple foregrounds a relationship that precludes the sexual/gender politics present in a man-woman relationship but nevertheless operates on its own problematic dynamics. Theresa is portrayed as the more aggressive of the two, very pretty and very confident, whose "lousy attitude" (WBP, 133) did not invite friendly overtures or curiosity from her neighbors. She could not care less about what they thought and underlined her wish to keep a distance from them. In her relationship with Lorraine, she was the stronger partner of the two in that she was the decision-maker, the advisor, more articulate, independent and forthright. She made no attempt to be extra-polite to anyone, nor did she encourage the men of Brewster Place, but she made her intentions clear of not moving from this place because she was weary of Lorraine's insecurities and fears that had compelled them to shift residence time and again, in search of undisturbed peace. Brewster, with its dead-end wall and dilapidated buildings in a "God forsaken part of town" and its "bunch of ignorantniggers with the cotton still under their fingernails..."(Women of Brewster Place, 134) was the last resort for her. Theresa herself had been originally from Georgia (South) but had gone to college in the North and had acquired a sense of her self-worth, unafraid to take the responsibility of the rightness or otherwise of her decisions and unapologetic for being what she was. However, as Lorraine felt, because her job was not threatened by her sexual preferences, she was unafraid of gossip or people's opinion. Theresa had absorbed, confronted and adjusted to the difference of being a lesbian and learned to dismiss people's contempt when they discovered that she was "that way" (*Women of Brewster Place*, 131) and accepted it unquestioningly and unashamedly. But in living with Lorraine, she was confronted with the ugliness of it every day because Lorraine wanted to justify herself to others, wanted her neighbours' appreciation, wanted to be with them. In her toughened and hard-headed, practical attitude towards life (a defensive shield erected of necessity for aggression may often indicate a defensive stance) she could not understand Lorraine's sensitiveness, emotional vulnerability and constant need for support. Having blamed Lorraine for being paranoid and over-sensitive about their neighbours' changing attitudes, she was shaken by the hostility and suspicion she encountered from the mother of a young girl whose scraped knee she had been tending to. True to character, she reacted with a smouldering fury and later uncharacteristic tears, to be consoled for the first time, by Lorraine—a role reversal that blurs the rigid binaries of hetero-normative replications even in a lesbian relationship.

If one attempts to categorize Theresa and Lorraine into gender roles according to gender constructs, the former would fit the more powerful, masculine, head-of-the-house image while the latter would be recognized as the feminine, weaker and more submissive of the two. Corresponding with the image is the fact that Lorraine was a first grade school teacher, a job that required affection, patience, tolerance and also entailed child care with instruction-categorised traditionally as "woman's work". Theresa on the other hand handled a job that required toughness and decision making, classified traditionally as "man's work".However, when Lorraine's personality undergoes a change after her friendship with Ben, Theresa is disturbed by the new confidence and firmness she sees in her. Perhaps, as Loraine accused in a confrontation, she had wanted Lorraine to be independent of other people and look up to her for guidance, thus confirming the possessiveness of her love that had stifled the growth of Lorraine's personality. Their last fight culminated in Loraine's uncharacteristic decision to attend a lesbian party alone, returning from which she was gang-raped and left to die on the streets. After this, Theresa prepared to move out of Brewster Place, but at Kiswana's block party, she joined hands with the women of Brewster Place to destroy the wall that turned the place into a dead-end alley.

Lorraine's vulnerability and sensitivity had initially appealed to the women of Brewster Place but, later, these same qualities had made her the target of their venom and still later, a victim of gang rape. Lorraine had reminded Theresa of "smoked honey" (*WBP*, 135) when she first met her, and in their relationship, Lorraine had always been the more insecure and eager-to-please of the two. At seventeen, and still at school, Lorraine had been banished from her home by her father, whose disgust at her "unnatural" inclination (as a lesbian) made him burn all her possessions. Her insecurities and fears stemmed from a very practical problem—thepossibility of losing the goodwill and healthy reputation that her job demanded because the care of impressionable students was entrusted with her. In a society where behaviourial expectations and codes of conduct had condemned homosexuality as taboo, she was striving always to prove and establish her high moral standards. Unlike Theresa, Lorraine cared greatly about her neighbors' opinions, their attitudes and their approval because in an earlier instance, complaints from neighbours and guardians to her school authorities had forced her to resign. To an extent therefore, her insecurities could be justified. So it was Lorraine who was hurt and shaken by their sudden withdrawal and aloofness, by Sophie's various and obscene accusations and by C.C. Baker's (the local gangster)

verbal abuse and name-calling- noneof which she had provoked. Sophie's verbal attack on Lorraine was motivated by a jealousy (that crystallized a social attitude) because both she and Theresa were on a different plane than these women-beyondthe periphery of risk, betrayal, motherhood, pain and care, out of reach of their men (their indifference to whom perversely insulted them). They also represented a threat to their own womanhood because, in the aftermath of their own disillusionment in their relationships with men, they had always fallen back on their closeness with women. As Etta and Mattie both realize, these women felt jeopardized by the fact that they themselves had always forged more abiding and loving relationships with women than men. Targeted by Sophie's crude and indecent accusations, Lorraine stood trembling and crucified before a roomful of people at the block association meeting her defenseless frailty and valiant struggle for control moving Ben to defend her and offer her fatherly protection and comfort and a friendship that gradually changed Lorraine's personality. Her timidity and dependence were replaced by a quiet determination-achange that Theresa paradoxically resented. During their fight, Lorraine confronts Theresa with issues she had never brought up before. While Theresa insists that they are "different" and therefore should be unapologetic about being "queer", Lorraine reacts with unusual force:

"I have accepted it!" Lorraine shouted. "I've accepted it all my life, and it's nothing I'm ashamed of. I lost a father because I refused to be ashamed of it—but it doesn't make any *different* from anyone else in the world." [*Women of Brewster Place*, 165]

Theresa demolishes Lorraine's argument that her sexual preference was no one's business and her efforts towards integration with the larger community was justified with ruthless honesty:

"There go your precious 'theys' again. They wouldn't understand...And as long as they own the whole damn world, it's them and us Sister—them and us. And that spells different!" [*Women of Brewster Place*, 166]

Lorraine's inability to mingle with the bitter "gay" crowd indicates her distinct perspective but on that fateful evening after their last fight she is propelled out of the safety of her home to prove her worth to herself and find her "self" and identity if she has to continue to love. While returning from the party, she is accosted and gang raped by Baker and his friends. In the aftermath of that rape, in a state of psychological shock, Lorraine murders Ben, the father-substitute and only person who "understood" her, severing her final link with and expectation of human empathy. The horror of Lorraine's violent gang rape by C.C.Baker and gang is narrated by Naylor with chilling realism. She is accosted as she returned alone from a "butch" party where she had gone to prove to herself her own worth. As she is literally ripped apart and left half-conscious on the dead-end street of Brewster, Lorraine has symbolically been driven to a wall, cornered and hunted down. In a soulshaking parody of a plea to the world to understand she was no different than them, the only word she whispers till she diesis "please". Earlier in the day, during Baker's confrontation with Kiswana Browne, she had been called insulting names ("butch", "dyke" and "lesbo") and threatened with dire consequences. The entrenched prejudice, intolerance of "difference" and at a deeper level, powerlessness of the phallus as a tool of patriarchal subjugation is encapsulated in the language and act of vicious name-calling, a branding and stereotyping as a part of rejecting difference and domination of majority. The banked violence simmering beneath the apparent normalcy was ready to erupt and culminates in the elimination of "difference" as Lorraine dies of the abuse her body has undergone and the desecration of her faith in humanity.

The guilt of Lorraine's rape and subsequent death lie heavily on the collective conscience of the women of Brewster Place. They had separated and alienated her from themselves, thereby leaving her open to the ultimate form of male violence and domination upon a woman — the desecration/violation of her body against her will. Frustrated and misguided young black men like C.C.Baker and his gang of cronies haveonly one way of proving their strength to themselves in a racist society—by asserting the superior virtue of the phallic power in their "six-feet wide" (*Women of Brewster Place*, 170) world—the narrow alleys and streets of black ghettoes like Brewster. Confronted by a woman who is beyond the reach of their physical subjugation, they tear into her with a ferocity born of insecurity. After Lorraine's death, the women of Brewster Place demolish the wall stained with her blood in an act reinforcing the solidarity of black sisterhood and symbolic of rebellion against the social forces that had hemmed in and isolated these women, marginalizing them for so long. In joining forces with them, Theresa acknowledged Lorraine's conviction of racial and gender solidarity as the only way towards improving their lot—affirmingthat her efforts had not been in vain.

Although Morrison's Sula and Walker's The Color Purple are set in eras much earlier than that of Naylor's The Women of Brewster Place, the social ostracization and stigmatization of women's sexual love for each other is open and violent in the latter novel. While Sula and Nel's psychic bonding remains in the realm of an unspoken communication, intangible in terms of a physical manifestation, Celie and Shug live as lovers and celebrate their sexual bonding. It is interesting to note that Shug's gender fluidity is emphasized often in the text ("I notice how Shug talk and act...like a man" [The Color Purple, p.82] and yet Celie insists that she is "womanly" in her uprightness just as Sula is outraged if she has to lie in a position of surrender as she feels her own "abiding strength and limitless power." Theresa and Lorraine's lesbian relationship may, apparently simulate the paradigm of heterosexual positioning and power play, but it is largely their debilitating circumstances and Lorraine's response to alienation that leads to the tragedy of Lorraine's death. Mattie and Etta, two of the most staunch figures of black women's sisterhood question each other and themselves if their love for other women, which had often been much deeper than that of their love for men, could be "unnatural"? As Lorde said: "...the true feminist deals out of a lesbian consciousness whether or not she ever sleeps with women."African-American women writers have been able to respond to issues of lesbian love and homosexuality with a deeper perception and understanding than most in their writings due to a shared history of marginalization and positioning at the periphery. They have, as Audre Lord insists we must, been able to define themselves for themselves and have spoken the unspeakable at the risk of being misunderstood and bruised.

"I have come to believe over and over again that what is most important to me must be spoken, made verbal and shared, even at the risk of having it bruised or misunderstood."

— AudreLorde

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CULTURAL STUDIES

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Abstract

Gate and door guardians, or gods as they are sometimes called, seem to proliferate throughout the religious temples of Asian cultures. The various cultures, however, often demonstrate differences in the artistic rendition or presentation of these sentinels. Thailand has gate guards that stand in front of many of the Buddhist temples and these iconic figures display unique features with varied symbolic significance. The temple or wat, plays a vital role in every community and for many people, Thailand's temples are the country's most enduring sights. In a recent qualitative research effort, the researcher engaged *folknography* as a method to discover that the Thai people hold five major perceptions of the guardians at the gates. These icons hold mythical, religious, artistic, cultural and militaristic value for the people of Thailand. Through the use of data collection techniques such as interviews, focus groups and cultural observations, this paper unveils and summarizes the perceptions of the Thai people concerning these gate sentries along with the relationship, communication, connection and respect that the Thai people have for the guardians at the gates.

Introduction

The uninformed or unsuspecting first time visitor arriving at the departure hall of Suvarnabhumi International Airport in Bangkok, Thailand cannot help but notice the sixteen foot, massive statues, known as Yak, standing as "decorative visual elements in the passenger terminal." (Koompong, 2013, p. 298) These Dvarapala (Sanskrit) serve as a door or gate guardian statue, either human or demonic, in Hinduism and Buddhism. Traditionally placed outside the religious temples, the images serve to protect the holy places inside the building complex. The Dvarapala, generally called Yak in Thailand, stand as fierce-looking creatures providing a strong defense against all spiritual enemies. Depending on the size and wealth of the temple, the guardians often appear in sets of two and loom over the visitors and religious faithful as they enter and exit the temple area. In the airport, twelve of these Yak vigilantly stand guard to protect Thailand from all evil and also bless all those who venture out from the country (Buddha Tooth Relic Temple And Museum (BTRTAM), 2011).

The origin of the Yak, however, cannot be necessarily ascribed to any particular group in Thailand (Yeh, 2010). In Buddhism the imagery of waging war or serving as a warrior provides a powerful, spiritual metaphor representing the battle one must engage in order to destroy the *kleshas* (delusions), thought to create negative karma, such as anger, attachment, ignorance, other non-virtuous attitudes (Elick & Merchant, 2000). Door guardians, found in many and various forms in Asia, provide figurative reminders of the constant vigilance practitioners should have on their minds, constantly watching and preventing negative attitudes from winning over positive (BTRTAM, 2011).

Method

In a folknographic research project, researchers have, at least, five options for collecting qualitative data. Since folknography operates as a variation of the qualitative research approach, folknographers seek the perceptions, attitudes, opinions and feelings of the people targeted for study. Note that the folknographer seeks the *voice* of the folk. This method serves the grassroots rather than those previously empowered. The five folknographic research data collection techniques include:

- *Astute Observation*: The folknographer must sit quietly in people places to mark established trends, traditions, behaviors, communication practices or cultural patterns.
- *Interview*: Narrative theory suggests that people (folk) relate, frame and understand their world through the use of recounting stories. Humans tend to relate life and culture through the story (Herman, Phelan, Rabinowitz, Richardson & Warhol, 2012). In this respect, folknographers seek the story or voice of the respondent through an interview. Though the interview can take many forms (casual, semi-structured, structured, or formal), the candid discussion of the topic with a respondent remains the pillar of folknography.
- *Focus group*: In this effort, several respondent gather in a location to discuss the ramifications of the Grand Tour Question and other probes previously planned by the folknographers involved. Certain rules of communication should be followed, but the focus group provides a quick means to gather much data in a shorter amount of time.
- *Plenary session*: Larger gatherings, such as town meetings, civic meetings and community events often provide a platform for folknogaphers to take to the stage and microphone to seek insights, perceptions and stories from those in attendance. Many respondents have the chance to speak and tag off of a story someone else in the audience has recounted.
- *Content analysis*: In most efforts, folknographers should not ignore the opportunity to read, decipher, translate and study documents, materials and writings from the targeted population (the folk you study). This allows the folknographer to get an inside perspective on what the folk state about themselves. Content analysis gives the project a self-described view of the culture studied (Lucas, 2006).

Folknography provides flexibility so that researchers have a myriad of opportunities and options to perform a viable research project. To make the results vigorously reliable, folknographers should use at least three of the data collection techniques. This allows for triangulation of the data. In this study in Thailand, the researcher used the interview (67), the focus group (4), content analysis (12) and astute observations (5) in the data collection process. The research efforts engaged some translators, but for the most parts respondents answered in English in varying capabilities. The results of this study are based on the *voice* of folk from Thailand.

Results

Mythical Message

The Yak emerged into prominence of the Thai culture from a deep, mythical back ground. Originally these giants guarded the deep, mystical forests of Southern Asia (Yeh, 2010). Their original intimate relationship to large tress may explain their immense stature. They may also be so tall because such images convey a sense of power and importance. The Yak's origin can be traced to the forests of China. "In the early history of the Thai (Siam) peoples, the Chinese had impact on language, culture, traditions, myths and religion." (Wyatt, 2003, p. 6). In the book A History of Thailand, Baker and Phongpaichit (2013) reveal "how a world of mandarin nobles and unfree labour evolved into a rural society of smallholder peasants and an urban society populated mainly by migrants from southern China." (p. 4). The Yak entered the Thai consciousness through stories about guardians of the forests in China. The Yak, also known as Yaksha (masculine) or Yakshini (female), originally served as the caretakers of the natural resources and treasures of the earth (Leong, 2011). Ancient Asian people associated these giant creatures with forests, trees, tree roots and caves. They appear not only in the traditions of Buddhism, but also Hindu, Jain and other forms of Asian belief systems. Early stories emanating from mountain villages recount the tales of warrior-like giants that fly from mountain tops to trees, guarding the natural world against evil ghosts, predators and demonic influences (Kaowai & Robinson, 2011).

A yak with fangs guards the Temple of the Emerald Buddha (Wat Phra Kaew) within the grounds of the Grand Palace in Bangkok, Thailand. In Thailand, a yak is a giant demon (ogre, colossus, monster, or titan) from the Ramakian (the Thai version of the Hindu Ramayana epic mythology). The Grand Palace (or Phra Borom Maha Ratcha Wang, in Thai) was built on the east bank of the Chao Phraya River starting in 1782, during the reign of Rama I. It served as the official residence of the king of Thailand from the 1700s to mid 1900s. (Dempsey, 2013)

In the Chinese traditions, the giants guarded the forests and fought evil. Sometimes the Yak slid to the other side and caused mischief. The giants also made alliances with clan leaders to fight common enemies. The roots of the Thai Yak originate in Asian folklore (Anderson, 1989). Many stories remain in the common conversations and children's stories today. One respondent recounted:

The Yak once guarded the forests of the King when it was on the other side of the river. A great wizard lived nearby. The Yak enjoyed teasing the wizard with difficult questions and riddles. The wizard often needed to cross the river and asked the Yak to carry him. He did so but caused the wizard much grief each time he carried him. The Yak would ask him about the King, his family, the news of the kingdom and even about other kingdoms. One day, while transporting the wizard across the river, the Yak asked the wizard if he liked water. The wizard said "No! We do not like water!" With one shrug, the Yak dumped the wizard into the river while uttering loud, booming laughter. The wizard emerged from the river angry and unsettled. "You must pay for this disrespect!" cried the wizard. "Because of your impotence, you must stand still at the gate of the King's Palace forever. You may not move unless there is trouble. Go now! Stand like a stone and never leave your post!" To this day, the Yak stands at the gates of the Palace in payment for his disobedient acts." (Respondent 62)

Originating from the deep forest of China, the Yak traveled from mystical realms to doors and gates throughout Southern Asia, finally taking up residence in Thailand as guardians for the gates of kings, priests and the Buddha.

Religious Message

For centuries, Buddhism and versions of it have been essential to foundation of Thai culture (Frédéric, 1995). Wyatt writes that "Buddhism played a critically important role in assimilating indigenous groups into the Thai population." (1994, p. 29) The Yak plays a definite role in the religion of Thailand (Smith, 1978). While making astute observations in the Grand Palace, the writer logged this journal entry:

She approaches the Yak with head bowed, eyes to the ground. She carries a set of worship beads along with a small chain of flowers. About five feet from the base of the huge, imposing image of the Yak, she kneels. She speaks quietly toward the image but never raises her eyes or head to view the face or embodiment of the giant. For over five minutes she speaks. After this time of speaking (praying?) she puts the ring of flowers on the base of the Yak along with the beads. She backs away, never turning her back to the image before her. After she moves over 20 feet beyond the Yak, she turns and disappears into the throng. I watch the breeze gently move the flower pedals on the thong holding them. Some Thai believe that the Yak offer protection, not only to the temples or Grand Palace, but also to the humble Buddhist who seeks the assistance of the giant guardian. The Yak may be convinced to help in simple requests such as guarding a sum of money or providing safety in a family journey to more difficult tasks such as saving a dying loved one or keeping the King safe. (Observation 4)

One respondent remarked, "The Yak offers protection. It matters not from what or for what...you can seek the protection of the Yak and you will have it!" (Respondent 17). To the faithful believer, the Yak offers religious safety and protection for the supplicant.

Peter Berger, a well-known sociologist, had much to say about religious symbols and their impact on culture. According to Berger (1990), these symbols seem so powerful because they express the most important value in life: the feeling that reality is a meaningful order, not a random chaos. So religion hopes to persuade its followers that the universe, and the individual's as well as the group's life in the universe, are all based on the same unified and orderly pattern. The Yak, in this case, gives stability, protection and power to the worshiper and Buddhism provides the ordered universe the worshiper seeks.

Berger (1990) proposes that culture consists of the totality of a human group's products, images and symbols (such as the Yak). Some of these are material, others are not. Humans produce tools and symbols of every conceivable kind, by means of which modifies the physical environment and bends nature to fit human will. Humans also produces language and, on its foundation and by means of it, a towering edifice of symbols that permeate every aspect of life. There is good reason for thinking that the production of non-material culture has always gone hand in hand with human activity of physically modifying the environment.

"Bound with the concept of Triphum, or the tree realms of existence (heaven, earth and the underworld), the architecture of Siam is infused with cosmological symbolism." (Koompong, 2013, p. 1) The Yak also offers symbolic spiritual protection at the temples along with protection for the temple itself. In this symbolic, spiritual world, good battles evil in every corner

of the cosmos. The Yak, therefore, serves as the guardian at the gates of the temple to keep evil out while permitting the good to enter. Especially important is the Yak's incredible ability of discernment of peoples' intentions.

The Yak can read a person's heart. The Yak knows if you mean to desecrate the temple or cause harm to the priests or worshippers. Although the Yak may stand like a statue, he can come alive if necessary. Or he may come upon you later as you walk in another place or as you sleep in your bed at night. If the Yak wants to find you he will find you. He prevents evil from coming into the sacred place or heart. (Respondent 47)

The Yak represents one of many images used by those who embrace Buddhism to demonstrate that the belief system operates throughout the culture. "Taken together, the spatial configuration and formal composition of the Grand Palace demonstrate that Siamese architecture operates as representation: a system of signs, a culturally constructed artifact, instead of an object existing in its given nature." (Koompong, 2013, p. 6)

In light of this, therefore we discover that the Yak completes the need that Thai people share. They seek a sense of security or protection.

Everything in the Grand Palace, therefore, exists for a reason. The Yak stand guard to keep evil out and ensure that goodness prevails. The Yaks tower over the walkways and cast long shadows in the afternoon Thailand sunshine. No visitor can pass into the Grand Palace without confronting a Yak and they most certainly will confront you. The same stands true for any person visiting a temple where the Yaks stand guard. Their presence provides a stunning image as you prepare to enter the gates. Sometimes in front the *Bot* entrance there is a couple of *Yak* (ini); huge statues representing giants with big teeth. Those *Yak* are supposed to frighten the spirits or demons who would like to enter the *Bot*. (ThaiWorldView.com, n.d.)

The most famous Yak in Thailand are located in the Royal temple, Wat Phra Kaew, in Bangkok. This temple contains the famous Emerald Buddha cut from a single block of jade. It is said that the jade originated from a mountain where Yak stood guard and gave protection to the jade deposit for centuries. They followed the jade block from the originating mountain, stood guard as the Buddha was cut from the stone, protected the Emerald Buddha on his journey and now stand outside Wat Phra Kaew guarding him to this day. (ThaiWorldView.com, n.d.)

One interesting observation provided by a respondent recounts the fact that, just like the faithful Buddhist believer, the Yak also must make the journey to enlightenment. "The Yaks walk just like me. We must all make the journey. They seek the light just like I do. They want to make sure I make the journey because that will help them make the journey. We all do this together you see?" (Respondent 26).

The religious followers of Buddha in Thailand make a journey, seeking enlightenment and personal connection to a world beyond the physical. The Yak serves as a guardian of the gates,

allowing access to this spiritual realm. The Yak makes the same journey. The Thai people and the Yak walk in lock-step in the quest for religious empowerment.

Artistic Message

The images depicted in art work, sculpture and icons throughout Asia represent expressions of culture, living, thinking and attitudes of the people that create them (McArthur, 2002). The image of the Yak represents cultural artistic and intellectual expressions of the Thai culture. The figures appear in various forms in murals, the Suvarnabhumi International Airport in Bangkok, temples and the Grand Palace (Wyatt, 2002). The images in the murals of the Grand Palace, for example, depict the Yak's ability to fly, fight, uproot and throw trees, slay enemies and serve as guardians in various aspects. Most importantly, the Thai people perceive the Yak as magnificent artistic expressions in their culture.

Their color is important. The green represents the male. He stands as the warrior and protector of the temple gate. The female is red. She works alongside the male to make sure no evil enters the temple. They both stand as strong warrior images. They stand as good against evil. (Respondent 22)

I see the Yak as a statue. They stand as statues that make the Thai people think about our religion, our nation and our King. We love the King and we must protect the nation from evil and wrongdoing. The statues remind us of that obligation. The Yak represents all of that for us. (Respondent 26)

In the Airport, however, the female respondent's comments about gender do not necessarily hold true. The numerous large statues tower over the travelers and workers at an impressive 16 feet high. These Yak vary in color and appear in blue, green, red and even pink. The artistic work appears detailed, dramatic, certain and complete. The feet, hands, military amour, weapons, facial features, tusks, eyes and helmet all display tremendous attention to detail. (Observation 5)

The Yak shape and dimensions provide an artistic expression in greatness. The size of the Yak is always impressive, even in the mural depictions. Being so gigantic in presence allows the Yak an advantage among mere mortals. Their depicted stature, strength, menacing tusks, large weapons and square shouldered demeanor present them as able opponents and effective guards. The Yak represent power, authority, ability and great strength. "They represent Thai greatness and pride." (Respondent 41).

Cultures throughout the world seek to portray their collective greatness, pride and power through various icons (Beguin, 2009). The Thai embrace the Yak in order to portray cultural strength, historical presence, artistic beauty and national identity.

Cultural Message

The Yak serve as a teaching tool for many Thai people. The mural depictions of the Yak in the Grand Palace and other places allow teachers, religious leaders, priests, parents and other adults to educate the youth or the novice concerning the importance of vigilance, avoiding evil and guarding the truth (Nathaland, 2000). Wyatt observes, "Sometimes, public spaces illustrated stories and lessons known to everyone, in which case they serve as public lessons." (1993, p. 1).

The Yak in the Airport at Bangkok, for instance, tower over all other images to provide an immediate cultural symbol for all to notice. Kenneth Burke's theory on identification adds additional insight into the importance of the Yak and the role they play in Thailand culture. Identification of the symbols move us to see religious and cultural persuasion more in relation to identification through symbolism. Burke wrote that people naturally respond to symbolism in their quest for this identification; it is, according to Burke, "a symbolic means of inducing cooperation in beings that by nature respond to symbols." (1969, p. 43). A symbol is simply a monument, a statue (like the Yak), a building or a document that represents or stands for something else by way of association, resemblance, or convention. Examples of symbols are the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, the Parliament buildings in Westminster, a statue to the Unknown Soldier, the Constitution of the United States, and the Declaration of Independence, and of course, the Yak in Thailand. It is interesting to watch and listen to the people of Thailand as they respond with recognizable enthusiasm as to the Yak's presence in the Airport. (Burke, 1969)

Koompong (2013) maintains that "the passenger terminal at the Suvarnabhumi encompasses a modern way of expressing Thai identity as much as a Thai way of engaging global culture and modernity." (p. 298). He refers to the Yak in the terminal as aesthetic visual effects. (Koompong, 2013). These giant statues called Yak stand in front of the revered temples of Thailand providing artistic expression for the visitors, worshipers, and the curious as well those just passing by. They intend to frighten the evil spirits and protect the Buddha statues from all enemies.

The statues are huge. I heard about them but this is the first time I have been here at the airport and these statues are so big. Who made them? I wonder how they got them here. My mother told me about the Yak when I was a boy. They are bigger than I thought! (Respondent 48)

The Yak also appear in popular Thai culture. Based on a traditional Buddhist story The Ramayana, Thai movie makers released an animated film entitled *Yak: The Giant King* which turns out to be the modern day version of the story of Tosakan and Hanuman the Monkey King who, in their one millionth and one reincarnation, set out on a quest for liberation. The story is known by every youth in Thailand (James, 2012).

I have known the Yak since I was a child. (Laughing) My parents taught me that if I did not obey the Yak would come and eat me up. I believed them. I was afraid. In fact, (laughing) I am still afraid. I rush past the Yak in case it comes to life when I am walking by! (Respondent 22) I know the Yak. I respect the Yak. They can fly. The can disappear and then reappear. I believe they are real. From my childhood, I have known about the Yak. (Respondent 19)

The Yak even shows up in the Thai alphabet. The word Yak (giant) is used for the letter equivalent to the English letter Y (My Languages, 2011). To illustrate the 34th consonant of the Thai alphabet, the Thai children use "u tinti" (yo yak) as the traditional method for learning. (Thailandbuddy.com, 2011). This cultural, educational, grammatical axiom ensures the identity of the Yak with all Thai speakers. Just as in English teaching A is for apple and D is for dog, so it is that for the Thai, Y is for Yak (the giant cultural icon).

I learned the story of the Yak as a young girl in school. Learning the letters in school told me about the Yak. The giants roam the forests and appear when evil threatens. If I act evil, the Yak may appear to punish me. I have known about the Yak since being a baby. (Respondent 38)

If you've ever travelled via Bangkok's Suvarnabhumi airport, you've probably seen at least one of these imposing figures with their fangs, painted faces and bulging eyes. Known in Buddhist mythology as yaksha, they are guardian warriors who keep away evil spirits and can be seen at a number of temples in Thailand. The figures on display at Bangkok airport are replicas of the famous yaksha at the Temple of the Emerald Buddha (Wat Phra Kaeo). In Thai, the figures are often simply referred to as yak (giant) and Thai children become familiar with these male and female giants from an early age. In the same way that children from English speaking countries may learn from picture cards that 'a is for apple' or'd is for dog', Thai youngsters are taught that the consonant 'yau' is for yak. (Cavanagh, 2013)

The respondents in the interviews perceive the Yak as working in harmonic pairs. Many of the respondents maintained that one of the guardians was male while the other was female. The stories that accompany the Yaks in the airport do not describe dual action or paired cooperation. The folk interviewed, however, tended to agree that the Yaks guarding the temples and Grand Palace operated as pairs (male and female). This may be more of a reflection of Thai cultural relationships rather than traditional or historical teaching (Anderson, 1989). In any case, one respondent maintained,

They are pairs. Two warriors. One female and one male. They guard the temple. They guard me. They are not married. At least I don't remember that they are married. They are equal but one is a woman and one is a man. They just work together if any evil comes to try to enter or defeat the temple. They guard the priest. They guard the people. (Respondent 39)

Whether appearing in the Thai school system as a letter reference, a comic character in a popular movie, or as an advertisement in a children's book, the Yak has succeeded in ascending to icon status in the culture of Thailand. From the obscurity of the dark forests of China moving to the

main streets of Bangkok, the Yak serves, not only as a guardian of the temples, but also as the guardians of Thai culture.

Militaristic Message

The visual appearance of the Yak give even the most casual observer the impression that the giants stand as guards or warriors. The facial features, the at-the-ready stance and the weapon held up front seem to ensure the observer knows that this is a militant expression of Thai culture. A well-spoken, older Thai gave this account:

The Yak is a character in the Ramayana, a key influence for Thai art and people. A green ogre-like race, Yak is a great army under the demon king Ravana who is in the fight against the Sri Rama. Being an opponent of Sri Rama whose ape-like troop is led by Hanuman, Yak symbolizes ferocity and endurance and this can be seen as they stand like statues or stones at the gate of Thai temples and other key places in Thailand. The Yak has become a Thai character familiar to even to foreign people.

Hanuman, a central character in the Ramayana, is substantially influential to Thai people and in Thai art. A white ape-like race of forest-dwellers, Hanuman is an incarnation of the divine and a disciple of Lord Sri Rama in the struggle against the demon King Ravana. Hanuman is a key player in the virtuous army against the Yak (the Demon Guardian) troop. He is known for his incomparable versatility, agility and might. His great talent is reflected in his ability to impersonate and magically become invisible.

The Yak as warrior appears most certainly to even the most casual observer. He holds a mighty sword encased in a jewel encrusted sheath and is clothed with an Asian array of armour that ta his shoulders in powerful fashion. He has unique boots, a helmet, thick belt and padded breastplate. In all of his appearance, the Yak stands at the ready. He seems more than capable to wage war, defend his charge or scare away evil doers. His military fitness is evident to any observer. (Respondent 12)

The images like the Yak have served the Thai people in various ways for centuries (Senawong, 2006). They have guarded the earth and the earth's treasures, the various leaders and kings, and they have warred against evil and Thai enemies throughout the ages (Senawong, 2006). Whether on temple wall murals or at the gates, the Yaks' war-ready countenance remain unmistakable; the weapons and armor are displayed impressively and their power evident in every aspect. The Yak willingly serve as the army for good purpose, but also sometimes resort to less than righteous activity. In other words, sometimes the Thai perceive the Yak as demons.

The Yak will fight but they sometimes fight each other. The have politics just like humans. They must fight the bad and protect the good. They stand ready to fight the ones who would hurt the Buddha. They keep away the ones who would steal the Buddha. Sometimes they put fear in people. They are big, strong and powerful. They are Buddha's army. They can also be mischievous, angry or even mean. (Respondent 17).

Thai people possess the capacity to protest and defend themselves if needed. History demonstrates that they stand ready to come to the defense of their homeland (Ivanoff, 2010). The Yak provides the Thai people a military image that they can honor and embrace. The giant warrior gives them an icon for the confidence, strength and power that they might not envision.

Conclusion

The Thai people, young and old, know the Yak. Although Thai people smile most all of the time for about any reason, the mention of the Yak during the implementation of this research project brought a warm, nostalgic smile to the faces of those interviewed. The respondents nodded consent, smiling broadly as they readily opened up about their memories, impressions and perceptions of the Yak in Thailand. Most mentioned the Yak at the Grand Palace in Bangkok while others merely recounted their experiences and childhood memories of them. Some knew of their religious significance and the stories from Buddhist literature. Others knew folk stories or legends that had been told to them by family or neighbors (Kaowai & Robinson, 2011). Each person confronted with a photograph of the Yak seemed to recognize the image immediately, readily agreed to speak about their perceptions of the Yak and attempted to recount all they knew about the mighty guardians that stand stoically at the gates of temples. palaces and other buildings. For the Thai people, the Yak serve as mythical, cultural, religious, artistic, cultural and militaristic icons. The Yak's significant journey can be traced from the mystical mountains and foresets of Southeast Asia through the temples and Palaces of Siam into the very heart of present day Thailand's national identity. The Yak continue their journey through Thai culture.



Two ornate Yak guard the gates at a remote temple in Khao Kalok, Thailand.



Ancient mystical Yak stands guard in the Suvarnabhumi International Airport.

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CRITICAL STUDIES AND GENDER STUDIES

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Abstract

Feminisms of classical lineage have affected changes of profound global impact, influencing on laws and social norms around the world to the extent that what was once inconceivable is now embraced within mainstream society. Despite their historical successes, these feminisms have been taken to task by postmodern feminist critiques for their inattention to the diverse realities of women around the world. Likewise, postmodern feminist theory has been criticized for failing to offer courses of action applicable to the greater feminist movement. Such criticisms on both sides of the divide are valid and contribute to the further development of feminist theory. They do not, however, provide possibilities for incorporating elements of action into postmodern feminist discourse. This article argues that techniques in critical pedagogy offer one such possibility and proposes three tools for implementation: guided critical reflection, re-envisioning education as conscientization, and dialogic learning.

Keywords: Critical pedagogy; Didactics; Feminist education; Postmodern feminism; Transformative action

Introduction

Different varieties of feminism have long been both a source of theory critical of the inequities of patriarchal systems as well as a source of action to confront them. Feminisms diverse in origin and perspective, including – among many others – liberal, Marxist, socialist, and radical feminism, have affected changes of profound global impact. Many of these changes have had such a pervasive influence on laws and social norms around the world that what was once perceived as out-of-the-question is now accepted and even embraced within mainstream social paradigms (Bryson, 1999, p. 43).

Yet the rise of a postmodern interpretation of feminism calls into question much of what feminism has come to represent. The postmodern lens, applied retrospectively to feminist theory and action of the past, raises valid questions about the equitability and common applicability of many of feminism's basic tenets. Postmodern feminism implies a broadening of feminist theory that encourages greater inclusivity and simultaneously calls into question the feasibility of inclusivity given feminism's origins as a movement by and for the elite. Indeed, postmodern perspectives, given their mantras that nothing is definable and everything is a social construct, have even gone so far as to dismiss the feminist project in its entirety (Gireaux, 2008, p. 206).

Perhaps unsurprisingly, a backlash against postmodern feminism has been the inevitable result of this. With well over a century of concrete achievements¹ in addressing gender inequality, proponents of feminisms diverse in nature have denounced postmodern feminism for its inability to offer solutions applicable to the lives of women in the real world. Theory-driven as it is,

¹ These achievements have been legal (e.g., women's property rights, suffrage, maternity leave), statistical (e.g., decreased wage inequality, increased number of women in leadership positions), normative (e.g., mainstreaming condemnation of violence against women, moving girls' education from non-priority to priority), and otherwise.

postmodern feminism indeed lacks the element of action required by any social movement in affecting change.

Despite the apparent incongruity between postmodern feminism and concrete action, there is an answer to the riddle. This answer lies not in the realm of feminist theory but in the practice of education. Critical pedagogy offers both theoretical alignment with the various feminisms and, more significantly, a course of action that fills the 'action void' in postmodern feminism. Simply put, critical pedagogy is an educational practice that seeks to equip students and teachers with the knowledge and skills to critically address issues of power and inequality as they exist in reality. The didactics of critical pedagogues enable students to take control of their own educations and futures with the intention of 'achieving a qualitatively better life for students and teachers [by attempting] to alleviate forms of oppression, alienation, and subordination' (Kanpol, 1999, p. 137). For decades, critical pedagogy has been explored theoretically as well as put into practice in actual learning environments, making it into a relatively well developed educational approach. Given its relevance in confronting systems of power, feminist theory has a natural place in critical pedagogy and has long been incorporated into related didactics. However, the converse of this has not been the case, as both practitioners and theorists have neglected to incorporate critical pedagogy into feminist courses of action and, in particular, that of postmodern feminism. This article intends to do that.²

In advancing critical pedagogy as the missing element of action in postmodern feminism, this article will (1) review two major debates between action-advocating feminisms and postmodern feminism, (2) argue that education, as proposed by critical pedagogy, offers possibilities for filling the action void in postmodern feminism, and (3) propose a postmodern feminist course of action by discussing three practical tools for incorporating it into educational settings.

Action and Inaction in Feminist Discourse

While both congruity and incongruity abound amongst the various feminisms, there are two key debates that form the backdrop for this study. In brief, those considered are (1) postmodern feminism's accusation that other feminisms are elitist and ignorant of oppression not rooted in gender relations and (2) action-advocating feminisms'³ assessment that postmodern feminism lacks sufficient strategies for action. This articles assumes the perspective that, in a field where critical thinking is a central tenet, each of these arguments is not only valid but also valuable to the further development of feminist theory and the advancement of women in society. Moving further down the path to realizing the shared goals of the different feminisms depends on an appreciation of theoretical difference. In the final paragraph of her book, Zalewski concludes that 'one crucial way to "recover" feminisms is to be found in recovering feminisms from the

 $^{^{2}}$ For readers of this attempt at advancing critical pedagogy as one potential element of postmodern feminist action, there are several major implications of this study. For advocates of feminist action, the pained disregard for the postmodern emphasis on theory over practice may be alleviated. For those of the postmodern camp, they can be equipped with one tool in a toolkit for postmodern feminist action. For educators who so intimately experience in their daily interactions with students the reality that the praxis is what is most meaningful in the lives of individuals, they can see a few ideas for classroom engagement. Finally, for those that fall into none of these categories, they can perhaps be given an opportunity to see one place where the three fields of education, feminism, and postmodernism intersect.

³ Gireaux refers to these as 'totalizing feminisms' (2008, p. 205). They have also been referred to as 'modern', 'traditional', 'humanist', 'universalist', 'essentialist', 'liberatory', and so forth in the literature.

intolerances of other feminisms' (2004, p. 142). However, given the long-standing trend of crossparadigmatic criticism and its continued impact on feminist theoretical output, discussing ongoing debates in feminist discourse is a worthwhile endeavor.

Critiques of Action-Advocating Feminisms

As noted earlier, feminisms of various forms have made major contributions to the betterment of women's lives over the past century and a half. (Bryson, 1999, p. 43) Yet women's liberatory efforts have arisen not from the most oppressed or marginalized corners of society but, for the most part, from its upper tiers. (Harding, Ford, & Fotaki, 2012, p. 52) Educated women and men from higher economic strata have dedicated themselves to the struggle for a more gender equitable world, leading to social changes unprecedented in the course of human history. Well-intentioned as they are, the inclusiveness of these efforts has come into question. The espoused universalism of feminist values has come to be confronted by paradigms more culturally relativistic in nature (Fraser and Nicholson, 1990).

The discourse of postmodern feminism has been at the forefront of this debate. The tendency of feminisms historically, whose ethical foundations are universalist and humanist in nature (Fahy, 1997, p. 27), has been to group women of all origins and types into a singular mass. Zalewski asserts that 'the modernist feminist attempt to reify the category of woman into an artificial unity is more an authoritarian act than a politically emancipatory one' (2004, p. 131). Because of the modern, universalist paradigm invoked by humanism (and thus humanist feminisms), the diversity of women's experiences is lost, consumed by an elite interpretation of what is needed for the advancement of all women throughout the globe. As Kathleen Fahy further explains, 'many of the ways in which women "know" have been invalidated. The resulting humanist subject turns out not to be a universal "human"; rather the image is of one particular culturally constituted form of human subjectivity: the young, strong, white, elite male' (1997, p. 28).

Thus, through the postmodern feminist lens, the universalist feminisms that have been catalysts for political and social change since the 1800s have simultaneously functioned as a source of oppression. Despite liberatory intentions, these feminisms have, in effect, imposed a culturally specific value system on women beyond the confines of the elite, Western world. Liberal, Marxist, socialist, and radical feminisms' focus on legal equality, economic oppression, public–private sphere relations, and patriarchy, respectively, while having been successful in improving the standing of many women throughout the world, their lack of cultural inclusivity has led to a neglect of others. Postmodern feminism's engagement with the culturally imperialistic nature of universalist feminisms presents important theoretical and ethical considerations for feminist theory and action as a whole.

Critiques of Postmodern Feminism

While postmodern feminist discourse offers a number of important challenges to earlier feminisms, the converse, however, is also true. The most significant of these criticisms is that postmodern feminism⁴ lacks the element of action that is necessary to affect positive change in the lives of women and men. (Newton, 1996, p. 7) Postmodernism, as a theoretical framework for viewing the world, offers important insights into the social construction – and deconstruction – of reality.

⁴ Similar criticisms of postmodernism as a whole, as opposed to postmodern feminism in particular, have also been raised.

Postmodern feminism adopts this approach, using it to enrich feminist discourse. Yet its lack of a 'transformative agenda' and 'strategies for resistance' (Parpart, 1993, p. 442) is a significant threat to the emancipatory aspirations of the greater feminist project. The lack of action has even been considered by some authors as a liability for feminism as a whole. As Jane Parpart notes, 'postmodernism threatens feminism's transformative agenda: "Postmodernism has not theorized agency; it has no strategies of resistance that would correspond to the feminist ones" ' (1993, p. 442, quoting Hutcheon, 1989, p. 168).

The coalescence of theory with action is fundamental to providing any theory with practical meaning in the lives of individuals. Practitioners of both feminism and critical pedagogy⁵ are cognizant of this. Though never perfectly inclusive of the diverse experiences of women, liberatory feminists' engagement with politics and society has been the foundation for positive changes along the difficult path towards gender equity. It is in this regard that many authors and feminists working for change see postmodern feminism as having failed in the sense that it has not adequately proposed courses of action for advancing the broader aims of feminism. Valid as this argument may be, this article argues that the integration of critical pedagogy into postmodern feminism is one means of supplying it with an element of action that has practical significance to the lives of women and men.

Critical Pedagogy as Postmodern Feminist Action

For how long educators have been subverting mainstream curricula to improve the lives of students is unclear. By no means are critical approaches to teaching and learning confined to the past century. The earliest origins of critical pedagogy lie within those educators who, throughout history, have engaged critically in their work. It was not, however, until the latter half of the twentieth century that approaches for critical pedagogy began to be formalized.

Inspired by liberatory theories and strategies for action while working as an educator in impoverished regions of Brazil, (Kincheloe, n.d.) Paulo Freire's 1968 text *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* sparked a new era in the theory and practice of critical pedagogy. Freire's work marked the beginning of a project to create a new language for 'critically understand[ing] the tensions, contradictions, fears, doubts, hopes and "deferred" dreams that are part and parcel of living a borrowed and colonized cultural existence.' (Macedo, n.d., p. 11) This existence is one shared by all burdened by systems of oppression, be they political, economic, social, or otherwise.

Women, while subject to distinct forms of oppression due to their status, are not alone in their subjugation. While liberatory feminisms, depending on their particular theoretical underpinnings, had the tendency to distill women's situation down to legal inequalities, class struggle, public–private sphere relations, or patriarchal influence, postmodern feminism questioned the simplicity of such charges. With its emphasis of the diversity of women's experiences as well as the diversity of forms of oppression, postmodern feminism has provided a solid theoretical foundation for understanding the multiplicity of voices in search of liberation. In this sense, critical pedagogy is in theoretical alignment with an amalgamation of the feminisms discussed: liberal, Marxist, socialist, radical, and postmodern. Donaldo Macedo, discussing the Freirean approach to education, explains, 'what is important is to approach the analysis of oppression through a convergent

 $^{^{5}}$ Freire, for example, notes that 'the objective of any true revolution ... requires that the people act, as well as reflect, upon the reality to be transformed' (1970, p. 130).

theoretical framework where the object of oppression is cut across by such factors as race, class, gender, culture, language, and ethnicity [and] reject any theoretical analysis that would collapse the multiplicity of factors into a monolithic entity, including class.' (n.d., p. 15) Yet as actionadvocating feminisms all demonstrate, theoretical understanding of oppression is only the first step towards liberation. Such an awareness, while lacking in much postmodern feminist discourse, is a central aspect of critical pedagogy.

Though Marxist in origin and inspiration, critical pedagogy as it is practiced today has at least as much to do with postmodernism as it does the teachings of Karl Marx. Through its deconstruction of power systems and of education itself, it embodies the postmodern paradigm's interpretation of reality as socially constructed. Yet critical pedagogy goes beyond embracing postmodernism as a theoretical standpoint; it activates it. Breathing life into what often fails to transcend theory, critical pedagogy offers a toolkit for transformative action.

Since the early 1970s, the scholarship and practice of critical pedagogy has become a powerful force in education and struggles for liberation throughout the globe. Educators have taken to incorporating key elements of critical pedagogy into their curricula, thus affecting change in the lives of learners. Implementation of aspects of critical education, both in and outside of the classroom, contributes to an active deconstruction of systems of oppression. Among these systems are patriarchy and the gender binary metanarrative that feminisms, postmodern feminism inclusive, all seek to dismantle.

One of postmodern feminism's greatest weaknesses, in the eyes of feminist scholars, is its overemphasis on opaque theoretical notions and lack of practical courses of action. This article goes further than previous scholarship – which has time and time again revealed the shortcomings of postmodern discourse – by showing that critical pedagogy not only reaffirms the theoretical aspects of the many feminisms, but also provides postmodern feminism with a course of action. This section addresses several of the ways in which critical pedagogy offers tools for change that correspond with the postmodern feminist paradigm. The three tools discussed are (1) the guided critical reflection on one's own place in a system of oppression, (2) the re-envisioning of education as conscientization, and (3) the use of dialogic learning for empowerment and liberation.

Guided Critical Reflection

Liberation begins with an understanding of one's own place in a system of power relations. Critical reflection is a first step towards confronting the inequities that impact people's lives. Critical pedagogue and professor John Smyth puts it succinctly: 'in order to get people to consider changing something, you have to get them to think about it. In order to get them to think about it, you have to make it visible to them' (Smyth, 2011, p. 56). Without this fundamental acknowledgement, the process of liberation has no soil from which to sprout, no platform from which to spring forth. In his foundational work, Freire notes, '[i]t is only when the oppressed find the oppressor out and become involved in the organized struggle for their liberation that they begin to believe in themselves. This discovery cannot be purely intellectual but must involve action; nor can it be limited to mere activism, but must include serious reflection: only then will it be a praxis' (Freire, 1970, p. 65).

The process given here is a generalized one, employing an oppressor–oppressed dichotomy that could be applied in a multitude of different power relationships. For the purposes herein, each of

these can be substituted with a gender arrangement (i.e., 'women and girls' or 'men and boys') or, indeed, any other existing structure of power relations, such as ethnicity, sexual orientation, age, economic class, or otherwise.

Gender-based conditioning,⁶ in its many incarnations, is often so deeply ingrained into the (sub)consciousnesses of women and men that it is not even recognized as such. From standards of physical appearance to assumptions about emotional behaviour to expectations in the home and workplace, the tacit guidelines followed by those of both genders define much of what we do and who we are. The fundamental basis of critical pedagogy is recognizing how one fits into this system, and this is a process equally applicable to both females and males. Students and teachers, in collaboration, can engage in classroom activities that promote the unfolding of gender relations, giving all involved a greater understanding of the systemic power imbalances attendant to gender interactions.

Thus, through a guided critical reflection on one's own place in a system of power relations, postmodern feminist theory can be converted into action. Educators have an important role to play in this. Their role, however, is not as one who imparts knowledge unto students but as one who guides them through a process of discovery. Within this process, reflection, unlearning, and relearning are essential phases. Transformative action, that element sorely lacking in postmodern feminism, here takes shape within an educational setting. Lesson plans and activities are tailored to curricula while enabling students to embark on a process of deconstruction and reconstruction of subject-specific texts, media, and knowledge. Baber and Murray, in their approach to teaching human sexuality, suggest activities involving discourse analysis, role-play, and anonymous writing-sharing of personal experiences in adding a postmodern feminist element to critical learning (Baber and Murray, 2001, p. 32). Yet such reflective pedagogical activities are not limited to any specific subject. Indeed, they can be applied to a diversity of preexisting materials and adapted to suit the needs of students and the goals of gender equality. An undergraduate-level business management class, for example, could have students reflect on the challenges faced by employees or employers of different gender, age, or ethnicity. They could then attempt to redesign business strategies based on new corporate prerogatives that transcend the profit motive (e.g., 50% women in management) or imagined laws (e.g., equal pay for equal work). Following this, they could reflect upon how such changes would affect them or their family members given different positions within the business. In a foreign language class, students could be encouraged to look into the differences in linguistic usage by women and men, both in their native language and the foreign language. They could then reflect on the impacts this has on people of each gender as well as themselves personally.

Particularly significant about this process involving reflection, unlearning, and relearning is its applicability not only to the pedagogy of the oppressed but also to the pedagogy of the oppressor. Students need not be the subjects of a specific form oppression to engage in an exploration of its significance. In Freire's words, '[t]he oppressor is solidary with the oppressed only when he stops regarding the oppressed as an abstract category and sees them as persons who have been unjustly dealt with, deprived of their voice, cheated in the sale of their labor—when he stops making pious, sentimental, and individualistic gestures and risks an act of love' (1970, p. 49–50). Responding to

⁶ While the term 'oppression' is commonplace within both the literature and daily vernacular, the terms 'conditioning' and 'control' seem to more accurately describe the reality of gendered social interaction.

the abstraction and categorization of women and oppressed groups in general is a central theme in postmodern feminism. Critical pedagogy and, in particular, guided critical reflection attempt to achieve this. Teachers can create an environment that encourages students to critically explore their own place within different socially constructed categories and confront their own abstraction. From there, students can examine the relationships between such constructed and imposed categories and begin to encounter the influence of power and difference within these relationships. In doing so, teachers necessarily gain a greater awareness of their own role in systems of power. This includes not only the teacher-student dynamic, but also other relations of power, such as gender, race, age, and class. Thus, techniques in critical pedagogy are of utility to both oppressed and oppressor in the advancement of the feminist project. Indeed, women and men, underprivileged and elite, are all constituent parts of the systems that create gender inequalities and divisions in society. Guided critical reflection is but one tool in addressing gender inequalities and incorporating action into postmodern feminism.

Education as Conscientization

A second strategy for adding action to postmodern feminist theory via critical pedagogy involves a re-envisioning of the essence of education. As it stands in today's society, dedicated as it is to the tenets of modernity and rationality, education is seen as a process of teachers filling students with knowledge they lack in order to function effectively in the context of the dominant culture. Freire refers to this authoritarian understanding of education as 'banking' (1970, ch. 2). He continues, '[i]n the banking concept of education, knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing. Projecting an absolute ignorance onto others, a characteristic of the ideology of oppression, negates education and knowledge as processes of inquiry' (1970, p. 72).

Interpreting education as a 'process of inquiry' embodies all that postmodern feminism represents. Postmodern feminism, with its maxims that everything is a social construct and nothing can be clearly defined, poses important challenges to the modern concept that knowledge is a given not subject to interpretation. However, it stops short of action for realizing the aspirations set forth by feminist movements. 'Conscientization'⁷ (also termed critical consciousness), as opposed to the banking concept of education, offers a strategy for the incorporation of postmodern feminism into the transformative agenda of feminism. Critical pedagogy argues that this is achievable through problem-posing education. Students, instead of merely internalizing information given by educators, become involved in the process of creating knowledge. This problem-posing education has the opposite effect of banking, bestowing upon them the role not of components in a system of conditioning but of active promoters in their own processes of liberation. In these roles, teachers and students alike thus breathe life into postmodern feminism, imbuing it with that element of transformative action that it has heretofore been devoid of.

Redefining education as conscientization can be achieved in a classroom setting. Through the didactics of problem-posing education, students themselves (as well as teachers) become facilitators of transformative action. Lesson plans can be designed or adapted with this in mind. The required curriculum of an antebellum United States history lesson, for example, may include

⁷ In Freire's work, conscientization is referred to as *conscientização*, the original Portuguese term. In this paper, the English term has been used in order to improve readability. Any potential loss in nuance does not seem detrimental to the aims or arguments contained herein.

readings, multimedia, discussion, writing, and testing on the challenges and hardships faced by blacks in Southern slave states. The curriculum may also tend to frame the issues as purely white vs. black and North vs. South, with the present day status quo (i.e., no chattel slavery, a 'Northern' military and ideological victory) as uncontested evidence of progress. At this juncture, it becomes the responsibility of the teacher to think critically and creatively about what else could be included and how this could be accomplished. Educators aware of the limitations of required curricula, the necessity of redefining education as conscientization, and the significance of their roles as teachers must then take it upon themselves to venture beyond that which is given, often into uncharted territory. Within this segment of history curriculum, both despite and because of its limitations, opportunities abound. Either integrated with or following the use of required materials, the teacher could begin by posing several problems to students. To begin, they could pose questions of students as to the roles of women, both black and white, in within the confines of the system of chattel slavery. Students' could be challenged to compare these to the roles of women and men today. Further problem-posing could challenge students to come up with the 'solutions' (e.g., coping mechanisms, strategies for resistance, etc.) that black and white women may have devised during that era and how those relate to solutions today. It is worth noting that these 'problems' posed may have no correct answer, and that is perhaps for the better. It makes it apparent that there is no single, clear-cut path to social transformation and liberation; there are many criss-crossing, convoluted paths that may or may not lead to the same destination. Needless to say, the abovementioned problem-posing didactics are but a few examples of the directions an educator could go. Indeed, the possibilities for determining what, when, how, and why to include them are limitless.8

Dialogic Learning

The third strategy in taking advantage of critical pedagogy as postmodern feminist action is the use of dialogic learning. Dialogue is the basis of critical education, and critical education, a catalyst for liberation. '[T]he dialogical character of education as the practice of freedom [begins] when the [teacher] asks herself or himself *what* she or he will dialogue with the [student] *about*' (Friere, 1970, p. 93, emphases in original). That is, the teacher functions as a facilitator of the student's own learning. Friere expands upon this, saying that:

[a]uthentic education is not carried on by "A" *for* "B" or by "A" *about* "B," but rather by "A" *with* "B," mediated by the world – a world which impresses and challenges both parties, giving rise to views or opinions about it. These views, impregnated with anxieties, doubts, hopes, or hopelessness, imply significant themes on the basis of which the program content of education can be built (ibid.).

One hurdle for educators involved in dialogic learning is that they must have the courage to trust in their students' capabilities. (Gallin, 2010, p. 1) Teachers must often step out of their comfort zone and relent in the expectation of themselves that they can offer correct or irrefutable answers to students. Successfully doing so, though, empowers students to take charge of their own educations and clears the way for engaging in an open pursuit of understanding of the subject at hand. The goal of a teacher is, thus, to foster conditions that are conducive to dialogue. This can

⁸ In this article, examples come from several countries whose educational systems the author is personally most familiar with as an educator, research, and student. It goes without saying that the didactics of critical pedagogy can be integrated into curricula in many locations as well as in a diversity of subjects.

be achieved in innumerable ways, and no one can know how better than the teacher and students of a particular classroom setting. While predefining a methodology to be followed by all educators is not possible or desirable,⁹ examples of related didactics may shed light on some of the possibilities available to educators. An art history professor, for instance, could have students furnish examples of historical works depicting the human body and encourage students to dialogue with each other about the ways in which the body is shown and how this differs by gender, age, ethnicity, and era. Students could then envision a shuffling of these attributes and reassess the impact of the artworks in their new metaphorical clothing. In a politics or government class, students could brainstorm about the qualities that are expected of elected politicians and how these may shift based on gender or other factors. This could be followed up by locating in mainstream media sources the adjectives used to describe political officials and then engaging in dialogue as to how these are representative of or work to define gender roles in society. For critical pedagogues, dialogue leads to communication which, in turn, leads to true education. (Freire, 1990, p. 93) The role of dialogic learning in feminism is to strengthen the current of transformative action. Minds equipped and accustomed to engaging in dialogue, instead of regurgitating stored knowledge, are part and parcel of advancing the feminist cause. This is evident in a number of ways.

Like problem-posing education, dialogic learning is in close theoretical alignment with the major views of postmodern feminism. More importantly, however, is that it is, in and of itself, constitutive of action – action that postmodern feminist discourse has thus far failed to provide. In tandem, critical reflection and education as conscientization, as previously discussed, as well as dialogic learning offer solutions for filling the action void in postmodern feminism.

Conclusion

As feminisms of different varieties have produced immeasurable improvements to the lives of both women and men around the world, it is clear that they have done so not purely through the promulgation of theory for women's liberation but by offering concrete courses of action for making progress down the long path towards gender equity. A review of the literature reveals that, despite its important contributions to feminist theory, postmodern feminism has failed to deliver any implementable course of action for liberating women from prevailing forms of oppression.

Functionally, oppression is domesticating. To no longer be prey to its force, one must emerge from it and turn upon it. This can be done only by means of the praxis: reflection and action upon the world in order to transform it. (Freire, 1970, p. 51)

Critical pedagogy offers a set of tools for transformative action. Three of these tools, as discussed, include guided critical reflection encouraging unlearning and relearning, the re-envisioning of education as critical consciousness (i.e., conscientization), and dialogic learning. These tools, as has been argued in this article, are in close theoretical alignment with both postmodern feminist discourse as well as other feminisms, and given their action-oriented nature, offer a solution to the action void that has long plagued postmodern feminism and its relationship with the broader feminist project.

⁹ Such prescriptive curriculum-building could threaten to 'reinforce domination and limit knowledge.' (Reid 2008, 4)

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DISCOURSE STUDIES

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Abstract

Asian female political leaders and politicians are alleged to rise into power mainly because of the patron-client relationships or the dynastic leader's path paved by their male relatives (Ockey, 2005; Branigan, 2011). Considering, so far, that studies on women, politics, and the media have been conducted mainly in the West, and are still an "underdeveloped research focus in the field of political communication" (Everitt, 2005: 388), this study, which is part of a larger project of an analysis of discursive construction of the identities of Thailand's former Prime Minister, Yingluck Shinawatra, in the Thai press, hence, hopes to be 'one of the chains of knowledge' to give a clearer picture of how 'stereotypes associated with female politicians arise, endure and are carried on in worldwide society'. The analytical framework was adapted from van Leeuwen's 'Representation of Social Actor Network framework' (van Leeuwen, 1996, 2008), which offers ways in which identity can be shaped throughout a text. The sample data, comprised of 190 news articles taken from the Bangkok Post during the period of May-August 2011, is divided into three corpora: campaigning, post-election and position-serving. The results revealed that in each phase the PM was mainly represented or referenced through nomination followed by categorization. During the campaigning phase, the media chose to represent her frequently by functionalization (referring to her roles) nearly in the same proportion as *relational identification* (referring to her in personal relationship or kinship terms). The relational identification was less frequent during the post-election phase and least frequent during the position-serving period. Amongst the three phases, the functionalization references occurred most frequently in the last phase.

Introduction

"Journalism is precisely such a powerful genre of communication... Journalism has social effects: through its power to shape issues, agendas and public discourse, it can reinforce beliefs; it can shape people's opinion..., or, if not shape your opinions on a particular matter, it can at the very least influence what you have opinions on; in sum, it can help shape social reality by shaping our views of social reality."

(Richardson, 2007: 13)

Richardson's statement is quoted at length because it can provide a starting point for readers who may first wonder why they need to know how the first female prime minister of Thailand was presented in news reports. It is probably not an overstatement to say that our views of social reality can be shaped by the discourse we encounter daily. This issue has been the concern of critical discourse analysts since the school emerged in the 1980s.

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is "a type of discourse analysis research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in social and political contexts" (van Dijk, 2004: 352). The objective of CDA is to uncover the ideological assumptions that are hidden in the words of our written texts or oral speeches in order to resist and overcome various forms of power or to gain an appreciation of what we are exercising power over, unbeknownst to us (Fairclough, 1992). In sum, CDA is driven by the concern for fairness in society with an aim of criticizing and raising awareness about a particular use of language or discourse.

Taking the CDA as a conceptual framework, this study focuses on the reproduction of the stereotype of female politician in media texts in understanding how such ideology is perpetuated through the reproduction (van Dijk, 1993). Studies on gender in Asia and particularly in Thailand are scarce; it may be said that the issue of stereotypes in political communication is a field that needs to be developed. This study, therefore, hopes to raise this awareness in the analysis of discursive construction of identities of female leaders.

Objective and Research Question

"Representation" in this study refers to how an individual is identified, called, or named. It is considered important in society, especially in political discourse as Wodak (2001: 47) maintains, "choosing to describe an individual (or a group) as one thing or as another 'can serve many different psychological, social or political purposes...and thus project meaning and social values onto the referent". Taking PM Yingluck Shinawatra as the case study, the research question was set to identify the referential choices used for her in news reports.

News as a Form of Discourse

News is simply defined as "information about recent events that are of interest to a sufficiently large group, or that may affect the lives of a sufficiently large group" (Reah 2003: 4). Generally, when reading news articles, stories are taken as reality and not as the product of 'choice' of production of words to depict one thing over another choice. Fowler (1991: 222) states that "news is not a natural phenomenon emerging straight from 'reality', but *a product*" of news production. This is related to what Hall et al. (1978) propose, which is that text production takes a complex process involving a systematic sorting and selecting that is affected by internal factors such as editorial policies, news values or other external factors before an event and topic turns into the end-product which is a piece of news. Simply put, whatever ends up in the newspaper as 'news' has gone through many processes such as gathering raw material, selecting what is newsworthy, decision-making based on news values, news construction, etc. People nevertheless tend to assume that events are recorded as they happened, and that the real world is somehow being reflected truthfully.

As news texts "are the outcome of specific institutional and professional practices" (Machin: 64) and as the consequence of text production mentioned above, "the media text cannot show the whole event" (Bateman et al, 2001: 66), audiences receive only what the media has deemed newsworthy. The media has its own ideological stance towards a given topic or person, which can be encoded in the particular 'word choice' in the news text being reported. Caldas-Coulthard & Coulthard (1996: 228) point out that "all texts code the ideological position(s) of their producers". This paper is based on the assumption that media messages are specific types of text and talk which communicate a certain system of social ideologies, opinions and attitudes (van Dijk, 1988: 1). In the case of this analysis, it is intended to study the choice of words used to represent one prominent social actor, Ms. Yingluck Shinawatra, who was the first female prime minister of Thailand, to see if and how media reinforcement of female politician stereotypes appears in the news discourse.

Yingluck Shinawatra's Biodata

Ms. Yingluck Shinawatra was born on June 21, 1967, at San Kampaeng, Chiang Mai, Thailand. She is the youngest of nine children and her elder brother is former PM Thaksin Shinawatra. She obtained a bachelor's degree in political science and obtained a master's degree in public

administration from Kentucky State University, USA. She then married a businessman, Anusorn Amornchat, and they have one son. Before entering politics, she served as chairwoman of SC Asset Corporation Public Company Limited, a property development business with a top-ten ranking in Thailand, and classified as "Excellent" amongst listed companies in the property and construction sector. She also held the position of president of Advanced Info Service (AIS), the country's largest mobile phone operator (which her elder brother founded), before it was sold to Singapore's Temasek Holdings.

Representations and Stereotypes of Female Politicians in the News

Research has shown that though the number of women running for political office around the world is increasing, media reinforcements of gender stereotypes or traditional gender roles (that tend to marginalize female politicians) have not changed (Gallagher, 2001; Ross, 2002). Gender and political communication research has examined some of the challenges women face when entering the masculinized world of politics.

In their study of the discursive construction of female politicians in the European press, Garcia-Blanco & Wahl-Jorgensen (2012) find that "while certain discourses celebrate women ministers for their (symbolic) emancipator value, others judge them by their physical appearance or their performance as wives, mothers, and mothers-to-be". Dunnaway et al (2013) investigated nearly 10,000 newspaper articles on the Senate and gubernatorial races across America and points out that media focus more on the personality traits and characteristics of female politicians than of male counterparts. These studies correlate with those of Sapiro (1993) and Freedman (1997, cited in Anderson et al., 2011), which argue that female politicians around the world are still portrayed in media based on classic stereotypes of femininity as mothers, housewives, sex objects or as "trespassers…venturing into the traditionally masculine world of politics" (Anderson et al, 2011: 2516). As shown in the given examples, studies focusing on this issue are mainly conducted in the West, and to date, there are not many studies theoretically and empirically investigating the representation of Asian female politicians in the press.

Moreover, regarding the scarcity of research, there is one general assumption that Asian female politicians and heads of state typically manage to hold their offices mainly because of the patronclient relationships or dynastic leadership path paved by their male relatives (Ockey, 2005; Branigan, 2011). The phenomenon of woman leaders with family ties is more pronounced in South Asia, Southeast Asia and Latin America than in other parts of the world (Branigan, 2011). One example is *Sirimavo Bandaranaike* of Sri Lanka, the world's first female prime minister, who took power following her husband's assassination. Another example is *Wan Azizah Wan Ismail* who led Malaysia's opposition when her husband Anwar Ibrahim was ousted and jailed (she later resigned her parliament seat on his return, but is still president of the People's Justice Party). Or *Benazir Bhutto* of Pakistan, *Indira Gandhi* of India, *Megawati Sukarnoputri* of Indonesia, *Corazon Aquino* of the Philippines, and *Park Geun-hye*, South Korea's first female president, are all said to be in power due to the dynastic links of their fathers (Vishakh, 2012). They may be marginalized by being labeled as 'benchwarmers' – holding places for the husbands or male relatives (Jalalzai & Hankinson, 2008).

Representations of Social Actors: A Matter of Referential Choices

In news discourse, how an individual, especially a politician, is identified, called, or named during the election campaign is crucial for voters, as Richardson (2007: 49) points out, "The way that people are named in news discourse can have significant impact on the way in which they are viewed." Within the social norm of a specific social context or discourse, some identities might be foregrounded or backgrounded to reinforce, for example, gender stereotypes. The studies

mentioned above have shown that mainstream media representations of female politicians have tremendous social implications. They highlight the possibility that females' roles are rarely compatible with political leadership and that "politics remains a man's world" (Hunt, 2007: 1). Guided by the theory from Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), this study aims to investigate whether such a universal stereotype associated with female politicians and its allegations are embedded in and spread across the global society through the press. To do so, this study collected news reports about Thailand's former Prime Minister Yingluck Shinawatra as a case study, and examined them through the analytical framework from van Leeuwen (1996, 2008).

van Leeuwen (1996: 33) formulated the 'Representation of Social Actor Network framework' to answer the questions, "What are the ways in which social actors can be represented in English discourse? Which choices does the English language give us for referring to people?". He proposes that there are two ways in which a social actor can be represented in a discourse: *exclusion* and *inclusion*. The excluded social actors are those assumed to be already known by the readers, thus it is unnecessary to identify them in the texts. The included social actors, which the study focuses on, are those who appear in a discourse. The possible representational choices the English language offers for referring to people in a textual discourse can be categorized and subcategorized as follows.

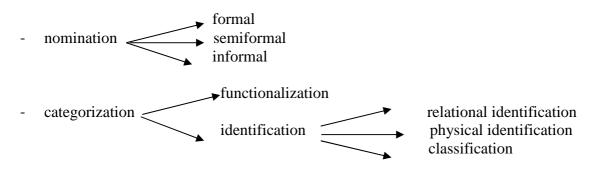


Figure 1: The summary of included social actors from van Leeuwen's Representation of Social Actor framework (1996, 2008)

Social actors can be represented in discourse either in terms of their unique identity, by being *nominated*, or in term of identities and functions they share with others (*categorization*). Nomination is typically realized by proper nouns in three possible ways: *formal* (surname only with or without honorific titles), *semiformal* (given name and surname) and *informal* (given name only). Categorization in which social actors are represented in terms of identities and functions they share with others is divided into *functionalization* and *identification*.

Functionalization references social actors by an activity they do or by what they are, for example, their occupations or roles. These can be constructed by a noun formed from a verb, through suffixes such as -er, -ant, -ian, -ee, e.g. interviewer, politician, or by a noun formed from another noun which denotes a place or tool closely associated with an activity through suffixes such as -ist, -eer, e.g. pianist, mountaineer. Another way is by the compounding of nouns denoting places or tools closely associated with an activity and highly generalized categorizations, such as man, woman, person, or people, as in cameraman and chairperson.

Identification occurs when social actors are defined in terms of what they are permanently, or unavoidably. Social actors can be identified by *relational identification* (personal relationships, kinship or work relations), *physical identification* (physical characteristics or physical appearance

realised by nouns, adjectives, prepositional phrases, etc.), and *classification* (age, gender, class, wealth, ethnicity, religion, etc.).

The representational effects of choices used to refer to a social actor are crucial; it can either foreground or background the identity, characteristics, and or roles of the social actor. Especially in actual discursive presentation of media practices, readers' or listeners' evaluations of the social actor are activated and primed by the representational choices in the text they consume.

The data

The data source of the study was in the form of online news. In recent years, news consumers' habits have changed dramatically: People tend to get their news from online news sources rather than newspapers. According to a Globescan survey (2006) and Pew Research Center survey (2009), online news appears to reach a wider audience, and evidently readers are keener online than in any other medium. *Secondly*, since this study requires a corpus of news data, it is vital that the data is available in a downloadable and electronically storable form. News websites are used as the data source because they provide downloadable archives of news articles. Therefore, using data from online news sources proved methodologically appropriate for the study and was considered more suitable for a computer-assisted analysis than the printed sources.

In addition, since this study aimed to examine whether the stereotypes associated with women and politics arise, are reflected and spread in 'worldwide society' through media texts, the data needed to be from those media sources that can reach both local and international (or worldwide) audiences. Hence, only English-language texts were used as the data. Following these criteria, instead of looking for news articles reported in the news websites elsewhere, this study focuses on the English online news websites available in Thailand. The website of the Bangkok Post was thus selected because it is considered the most popular English-language daily newspaper in Thailand, with the highest circulation and readership (<u>http://www.bangkokpost.com</u>).

The sample data consisted of 190 news articles published during May-August 2011, and was divided into three phases, or three different corpora, based on the main events: the *campaigning*, *post-election* and *position-serving* period corpora. Phase 1, the campaigning phase, began when Yingluck started to be a newsworthy character as the apparent choice for the no. 1 party list candidate for Pheu Thai, and was officially nominated as a party list candidate for Pheu Thai. Phase 2, the post-election phase, began on the general election day when the Pheu Thai Party had won an overwhelming victory and continued during the period when Yingluck was poised to become Thailand's first female prime minister. The last phase, the position-serving phase, was during the time when she was officially endorsed by the Election Commission to be the PM and was later endorsed by the King as PM. The number of news items in each corpus is shown in the table below.

Phases	No. of news items
Campaigning	87
Post-election	34
Position-serving	69
Total	190

Table 1: Number of news items in each phase

Data Analysis

As mentioned earlier, this research is part of a larger project of an analysis of the discursive construction of the identities of Thailand's former Prime Minister Yingluck Shinawatra in the Thai press, for which the main analytical framework is Transitivity Analysis from Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), followed by the second analytical framework, Representation of Social Actor, which is presented in this paper.

The data analysis began with sentence extraction, in which the articles of each phase were carefully read through in order to extract each sentence (which in SFL is referred to as a "clause complex") in which Yingluck and her references appeared as a participant. Note that at this stage, 'sentence' is used to refer to stretches of written texts that begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop (Butt et al., 2000; Thompson, 2004). However, the unit of analysis in SFL is concerned with *clauses* rather than *sentences*. Thus, the sentences in this stage are called *clause complexes*. From the full data set, 1,501 clause complexes were found in this stage. The clause complexes were then broken up into clause simplexes in the later step. Clause simplexes are "single clause units or sentences of only one clause" (Eggins, 2004: 256). Numbers of clause complexes and clause simplexes in each phase are shown in the table below.

Phases	No. of Clause Complexes	No. of Clause
		Simplexes
Campaigning	734	1,245
Post-election	290	489
Position-serving	477	823
Total	1,501	2,557

Table 2: Numbers of clause complexes and clause simplexes in each phase

Then the 2,557 clause simplexes were carefully re-examined in order to extract the referential choices used to refer to Yingluck in the text in each phase. At the same time, van Leeuwen's Representation Social Actor framework was utilized to code and categorize the references. It is worthy of note that in van Leeuwen's model, nomination is typically realized by proper nouns in three possible ways: *formal* (surname only with or without honorific titles), *semiformal* (given name and surname) and *informal* (given name only); however, in this analysis, the model was adapted slightly to suit the nature of the data. Thai names follow the Western European pattern in which the surname follows a first or given name. However, differently from Western culture, Thais refer to or address each other by a given name with the title 'Khun', not a surname. Thus, 'Khun Yingluck', 'Ms. Yingluck', and 'Ms. Yingluck Shinawatra' would be coded as 'formal'. While only her name and surname without title, as in 'Yingluck Shinawatra', was coded as 'semiformal', and only her first name, as in 'Yingluck', was coded as 'informal'. Examples of the coding of both nomination and categorization are listed below. The findings of the coding and the discussion of the findings are in the next sections.

Table 3: Examples of the coding of both nomination and categorization

Prime Minister Abhisit Vejjajiva has outperformed Yingluck Shinawatra in 17 of 18 criteria in an opinion poll
(Nomination/Semiformal)
Mr. Abhisit was beaten by Ms. Vingluck one of Pheu Thai Party's would be candidates for the premiership and

the younger sister of ousted prime minister Thaksin Shinawatra
(Categorization/Functional), (Categorization/Relational Identification)
The Democrat leader outperformed Ms. Yingluck in temper control (53.7%-9.7%),
(Nomination/Formal)
Ms. Yingluck, former prime minister Thaksin's youngest sister, went to the Pheu Thai head office this morning
(Categorization/Relational Identification)
The in-waiting prime minister was confident
(Categorization/Functional),
Thaksin's youngest sister said
(Categorization/Relational Identification)

Findings

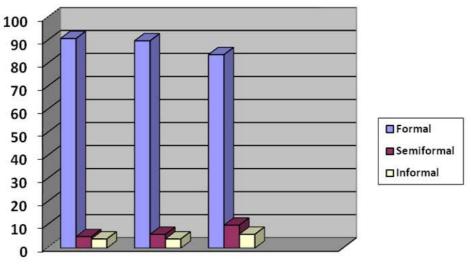
Within the 190 news items, representation choices occurred 1,023 times. Table 4 suggests that Ms Yingluck was constantly and mainly represented in the news by her unique identity, being nominated by her proper nouns. As seen from table 4 and figure 1 below, Ms. Yingluck was introduced in the texts throughout the three phases by nomination followed by categorization. In terms of nomination, as illustrated in figure 3, she was consistently referred to by formal nomination as 'Ms. Yingluck Shinawatra', or 'Ms. Yingluck' (more than 80% in every phase). In each phase, there were only small numbers of extracts in which she was semi-formally and informally referred to without the honorific title as 'Yingluck Shinawatra', and 'Yingluck'.

Table 4: The distribution of Yingluck's representation choices in each phase

	Campaigning	Post-election	Position-serving
Nomination	380	142	229
Categorization	114	54	104
Total	494	196	333

Nomination

Figure 1: Distribution of Nomination in three phases



Campaigning Post-election Position-serving

Regarding categorization, in which Ms. Yingluck was represented with the identities and functions she shared with others, as illustrated in figure 2 below, overall in each phase Ms. Yingluck was represented mainly by referring to the activities or her role in the political contexts. However, in the campaigning phase, the figure is quite different from the other phases, as functionalization (48%) and relational identification (45%) appear in similar numbers. During this phase she was represented as, for example, 'one of Pheu Thai Party's would-be candidates for the premiership', 'No.1 party list candidate of the Pheu Thai Party', 'candidate Yingluck', 'prime ministerial candidate'. She was also represented with relational identification as, for instance, 'former prime minister Thaksin's youngest sister'. Interestingly, physical identification (3%), and classification (4%) were rarely found from the data. There were a few times that she was physically identified as 'young and attractive', 'photogenic', and 'a female politician', or her age was mentioned.

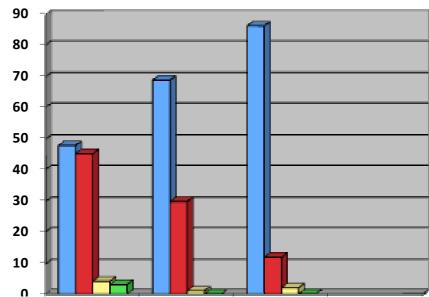


Figure 2: Percentage of distribution of Categorization in each phase

However, the pattern of representation shifted during the post-election phase when she was mainly referred to by her "functions' or roles as 'the top list candidate', 'the prime ministerial hopeful', 'a novice politician', or 'the presumptive prime minister' (69%), whereas the number of relationship and kinship references dropped to 30%. In this phase, no physical identification was found, and mention of age amounted to only 1% of all representations.

In the position-serving phase, she was mainly represented by her roles as 'the in-waiting prime minister', 'the prime minister-designate', 'Prime Minister', 'the premier', or 'PM' (86%). She was represented with the relational identification as 'the sister of the former prime minister' or 'the sister of former prime minister Thaksin Shinawatra' less, as the number dropped to 12%. From the findings, her representations as a social actor in the political discourse were dynamically constructed and shifted through time.

Discussion and Concluding Remarks

The overall pattern emerging from the analysis of her representation is that PM Yingluck was dynamically represented across texts as a major political candidate, the presumptive prime minister, the prime minister, and the sister of the ousted former prime minister. In the first phase, when Ms. Yingluck started to be a newsworthy character as the no. 1 party list candidate for Pheu Thai, she was represented as a political actor as 'the No. 1 Pheu Thai party list candidate' who was campaigning and running for the premiership, but at the same time the press highlighted her relationship with the ousted former prime minister, and frequently represented and named her as 'Thaksin's younger sister', or 'the younger sister of fugitive former prime minister Thaksin' and so on. van Leeuwen (2008: 43) points out that "the English language allows us to make a choice between functionalization and identification and that the use of this choice in discourse is of critical importance for discourse analysis". Regarding the implementation of functionalization and relational identification, he continues his argument, saying, "The use of relational identification has gradually become less important than that of classification and functionalization, especially where personal and kinship relations are concerned. The intrusion of such relations into the sphere of public activities may be branded as 'nepotism' or 'corruption' (unless you are a monarch)". Considering the points he has made, we may assume that, in the campaigning phase, when the press was still uncertain whether she was going to win the election or not, the press chose to represent her role as a politician, yet also heavily emphasized the kinship relation. The focus by the press on such a relationship might have had an impact on news readers' views towards Ms. Yingluck, as they were primed to think that Ms. Yingluck got into the political arena through the path paved by her brother and his support. One might argue that a possible reason why the press emphasized her relational identification as a sister of the former prime minister is because during the campaign Yingluck herself kept identifying herself as Thaksin's younger sister.

The pattern of representation shifted slightly during the post-election phase. This phase started after the general election day, in which the Pheu Thai Party had won an overwhelming victory, and she was likely to become the first female prime minister as she simply had to wait for the official endorsement by the Election Commission. The press then chose to refer to her by highlighting her role as, for example, 'prime minister-to-be', 'the soon-to-be prime minister Yingluck', 'prime minister-in-waiting', or 'the likely next prime minister'. Regarding being nominated by her proper name, her kinship relation was noted less when compared to the first phase. Still, her relational identification as 'Thaksin's youngest sister' appears to be ranked second. Moreover, the press did not choose to represent her via her physical characteristics or appearance at all.

In the last phase, when Ms. Yingluck was officially endorsed by the EC and the King to be the prime minister, it appears that her fixed identity as the sister of the former prime minister seemed to fade away, as she was chiefly represented in terms of her role as the PM. From the first phase to the last phase, it appeared that as time went on, her fixed identity diminished. In other words, her identification as the sister of the former prime minister was less emphasized.

One major conclusion can be drawn from this analysis. It is surprisingly contradictory to results of those previous studies in the West which found that female politicians across the world were still portrayed based on classic stereotypes of femininity as mothers, housewives or sex objects, or that more attention was paid to their physical appearance. This study has found that the press in fact paid less attention to representing Ms. Yingluck by her marital status, personal or physical characteristics or her sexual attributes as a woman. Though the previous studies argued that media reinforcement of gender stereotypes or traditional gender roles (that tend to marginalize

women politicians) had not changed, this study has found that such gender stereotypes or classic stereotypes of femininity were not as apparent as 'the stereotype of the dynastic leaders of Asian female politicians', where the representation of Yingluck in the press has just helped to echo, reinforce and reify the fact.

This reflects positively on the society as a whole. One must admit that Thailand, similar to other Asian nations, is a male-domineered society, and it appears that the society was skeptical about having a woman running for such important position in Thai politics. However, once she was in power through legitimate elections, there was growing acceptance of her as a leader in the position. However, the data was collected only up until she started to serve in office. We would recommend any interested academics to investigate much broader data to conclude how any stereotypes play out over a wider time span.

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LITERARY/LITERATURE STUDIES

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PRAGMATICS

Iclc2013-426

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Abstract

This study aims at demonstrating how a linguistic theory can be used to enhance the understanding of literary work. In interpreting literary works, scholars often face the criticism of not having a standard criterion of interpretation. This research employs speech act theory to analyze characters' utterances in a known Thai classical play called Inao. This play is known for its dramatic interactions. Dialogs are found throughout the story, while narrative plays a less significant role in moving the story. As such the story lends itself for the interpretation using speech act theory. The interpretations focused on illocutionary force of the characters are based on Searle's and Wierzbicka's frameworks, Speech Act Classification and Speech Act Verbs respectively. The elicited data, then, are analyzed. The findings of this study suggest that Wierzbicka's categorization is more semantically precise, facilitating the interpretation of characters' intentions.

Keywords: Inao, Literary Work, Speech Act Theory, Illocutionary Act, Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Literature, Pragmatics

Introduction

Students of literature often find it difficult to interpret literary works as there is no solid principle which allows them to draw certain conclusions. This study is conducted in an attempt to demonstrate how linguistic theory can enhance the understanding in literary studies. In so doing, Inao, a Thai classical play by Phra Bat Somdet Phra Poramenthramaha Isarasundhorn Phra Buddha Loetla Nabhalai or King Rama II, is to be analyzed by speech act theory.

In order for the researcher to analyze the selected play, it is crucial that conceptual frameworks be discussed. In addition to the conceptual frameworks which are Searle's speech classification (Yule, 1996) and Wierzbicka's speech act verbs (Wierzbicka, p. 174), the nature of speech act, direct and indirect speech act, and related previous research are also discussed in review of literature.

Literature Review

Speech Act

Viewing language as a means of communication which is essential to humans' social life, Austin (2000) considers spoken language as consisting of utterances. According to him, there are two kinds of utterances: constatives which are the statement of fact and are either true or false, and performatives which make something happen or not happen. The latter, which has effects on human's daily basis, is Austin's primary focus.

Performatives are given attention. Yule (1996) states that many things are achieved by utterances, and, slightly different from Austin, categorizes utterances into three types: locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. According to Yule (1996), when individuals produce understandable and meaningful utterances, they are said to perform the first act, locutionary act. It is involved in the construction of speech that uses particular words and in conformity with the grammatical rules of a particular language and with certain senses and certain references (Sadock, 2008).

Goal of the speaker is achieved through the illocutionary act (Sadock, 2008). Illocutionary act refers to act done in speaking and includes act whose purpose is made apparent by certain verbs. The verbs such as declare, pronounce, etc. can perform an act on their own. However, other verbs can be said to perform different act as well. Lastly, the effect or achievement comes in the form known as perlocutionary act (Yule, 1996).

Among the three acts, attention has been paid most to illocutionary act, for a speaker may wish to make a request, but the utterance might be capable of carrying several possible communicative purposes (Yule, 1996). As a result, the hearer may misinterpret the intended illocutionary act. It is this point that provokes interest. The question often asked is how people communicate successfully most of the time. The underlying premise is that they share some kind of a knowledge or fall back on the same principles. Cases of unsuccessful communication can be seen in our normal interaction.

Similar to Yule, Levinson (1997) stated that the illocutionary act is the focus of Speech Act Theory, particularly "the focus of Austin's interest". Not surprisingly, illocutionary force (communicative purpose) and illocutionary act, which is the most widely discussed, is generally referred to speech act (Levinson, 1997; Yule, 1996).

Levinson (1997), moreover, asserts that Austin sees the study of locutionary act and illocutionary act as "detachable" (they can be studied independently, but supplemented by illocutionary acts), thus not quite troublesome; the study of illocutionary act and perlocutionary act, on the contrary, is not as simple. That is, an utterance may have an intended communicative purpose such as a request but may be interpreted by the hearer differently, and similarly the utterance may potentially carry more than one illocutionary force (Levinson, 1997; Yule, 1996). Consider, for example, the following utterance:

(1) You can't do that.

According to Levinson (1997), (1) may convey the illocutionary force of protesting, but may have several perlocutionary effects such as checking the addressee's action, bringing the hearer to his or her sense, or annoying the hearer.

In order to apply Speech Act Theory to any study or literary works, the distinction between illocutionary act and perlocutionary act should be defined. In his conclusion, Levinson (1997) maintains that the illocutionary act is "what is directly achieved by the conventional force associated with the issuance of a certain kind of utterance in accord with a conventional procedure, and in consequently determinate.", whereas the perlocutionary act is "specific to the circumstances of issuance, and is therefore not conventionally achieved just by uttering that particular utterance, and includes all those effects, intended or unintended, often indeterminate."

Searle's Speech Act Classification

According to Yule (1996), Cutting (2002), and Schiffrin (1994), Searle proposes speech act classification which divides speech acts into five categories: declarations, representatives, expressives, directives, and commissives. Declarations are speech acts whose speakers have a special institutional role in order that they can change the reality in accord with the proposition of the declaration. Pronouncing someone man and wife, pronouncing someone guilty, appointing, betting, declaring, resigning are examples of declarations. Representatives refer to utterances that state what speakers believe to be the case; that is, they commit speakers to the truth of the expressed proposition. Some examples of representatives are asserting, concluding, describing, claiming, hypothesizing, insisting, predicting, stating fact, boasting. Expressives refer to speech acts through which speakers express their feelings, including speakers' attitude and emotions. Expressives encompass thanking, apologizing, praising, congratulating, deploring, regretting, excusing, stating pleasure or pain, expressing likes or dislikes, expressing joy or sorrow, etc. Directives are speech acts in which utterances is aimed at making the hearer do or not do something, e.g. commanding, suggesting, inviting, forbidding, challenging, ordering, requesting, daring. Commissives refer to speech acts whose speakers use the utterance to commit themselves for some future action, and speech acts whose speakers use words to express what they intend. Commissives cover the following acts: promising, threatening, refusing, pledging, offering, vowing, volunteering, making oaths.

Wierzbicka's Speech Act Verbs

Wierzbicka (1996) asserts that there are hundreds of English verbs that can perform actions. The author has investigated those verbs and discovered a very high degree of patterning. In addition, Wierzbicka maintains that well-defined semantic components, which give coherence to the field of speech act verbs, underlie illocutionary force which carries the speaker's intentions, assumptions, or emotions, expressed in utterances.

Direct and Indirect Speech Act

Searle (as cited in Brown & Yule, 1988), by studying the intended perlocutionary effect of utterance on a specific occasion, introduces an insightful distinction between direct speech act and indirect speech act. Direct speech act refers to a case in which the speaker produces utterance and means exactly and literally what he or she says (Searle, 2000).

Different from direct speech act, indirect speech act occurs when an interlocutor employs one illocutionary act to achieve another (Brown & Yule, 1988). In other words, interlocutor's utterance meaning and sentence or literal meaning are not the same.

According to Yule (2006), a number of interrogative structures may be used to produce indirect speech acts. Structurally, an interrogative structure is used with the function of a question; in other words, one might ask other "Are you Mr. Kim?" because one wants to know who the person is. On the contrary, there are other utterances whose structure is interrogative, but their function is not questioning. "Could you turn off the light?" is hardly uttered as a way to ask about the hearer's ability. People normally produce the utterance as a request to turn off the light.

Searle (2000) poses a problem concerning indirect speech act: how is it possible for the hearer to understand the indirect speech act when the utterance, which he or she hears and understands, means something else? Focusing on speech act of request, Searle states that some sentences are conventionally used as indirect request. The author makes a list of sentences conventionally used in the performance of indirect directives, which include ordering, commanding, requesting, pleading, begging, praying, entreating, instructing, forbidding, and so forth (Searle, 2000).

Apart from works proposed by major philosophers, many studies with regard to indirect speech act have also been widely conducted for decades. Evidently, indirect speech acts have gained much attention from many fields of study, and they have been researched in various aspects.

Clark (1979) attempts to outline a model of how listeners understand speech acts via 950 telephone calls. The conducted experiments supports his proposal which states that literal meaning of indirect speech acts, such as "Do you know the time?", can be intended to be taken along with indirect meaning, which is "I request you to tell me the time.", or merely pro forma, which is "I ask you whether you know the time."

Holtgraves (1986) studies interactants as a factor that affects the types of speech acts used: direct or indirect. The results show that indirect speech acts are more likely to be preferred and accepted.

In 1993, Shapiro & Murphy conducted experiments aiming at understanding how people process and interpret direct and indirect speech acts. Findings of this study are (1) a plausible indirect meaning of the question slows decision time to judge whether it is direct or indirect, showing that indirect meaning is important, and (2) subjects spend time to reply questions that have one plausible meaning as much as those that have both direct and indirect meanings.

Like some other studies, the article by Boxer (1993) discusses speech act research with regard to Wolfson's Bulge theory of social distance which maintains that statusequal friends and acquaintances are responsible for most solidarity-establishing speech behavior. While Wolfson's theory is grounded on speech acts of compliments and invitations, Boxer's statement is derived from indirect speech acts of complaints and commiseration. Boxer's conclusion, which counters Woldson's theory, is that some rapport-inspiring such as the two indirect speech acts are produced almost as frequently among interlocutors of extreme social distance (strangers and intimates) as among friends and acquaintances.

Methodology

Types of Data

Linguistic data can be categorized into three groups: introspection, elicitation, and observation (Widdowson, 1998). The source of the first type of data, introspection, is from human's intuitive competence. Widdowson (1998) maintains that it is through introspection that linguistic description, which is essential and useful for grammars and dictionaries, is drawn and gathered. The second way of getting data is called elicitation. Widdowson (1998) argues that this source of data is useful when the first

source data may not be reliable. Unlike introspection, elicitation allows linguists to draw other or informants' intuition. For instance, linguists may give informants a particular social context and ask them what expression they think most appropriate. The two sources of linguistic data may be used to establish both the formal properties of a language and how they function in use; however, it should be noted that these types of data are abstract and not actual behavior (Widdowson, 1998). In other words, introspection and elicitation reveal what people know about what they do (competence), but not what they actually do (performance). Thus, if linguists want data of performance, they seek for the third type of linguistic data, observation. Clearly, this source of data would provide linguists with real language.

In this study, the researcher elicits the data from the Thai classical play Inao by King Rama II (Buddha Loetla Nabhalai). The data are mainly from the chapter on Kamangkuning's Battle, the great war in this play. Following is the summary of the selected part.

The Story

Inao calls off his wedding which his father, Kurepan, and his uncle, Daha, have arranged with Busaba. Daha, father of Busaba, is greatly upset and later announces that he would give away Busaba, his daughter, to anyone who wishes to marry her.

Having been told that Busaba is the most beautiful lady, Joraka, who is well known for his ugliness, asks a painter to draw Busaba's portrait. The painter draws two portraits, one of which is stolen by Patarakala. When Joraka sees the portrait, he humbly asks Daha to let him marry Busaba. Daha agrees.

Patarakala intentionally drops the portrait where Wiyasakum can see it. The young man is so stunned by Busaba's beauty that he faints. As Kamangkuning, Wiyasakum's father, knows of his son's desire, he asks Daha for the marriage, but Daha declines the proposal since he has granted Joraka's proposal. Unable to see his son suffer from the disappointment, Kamangkuning decides to declare war on Daha.

Later, Inao receives a message from Kurepan stating that Inao is to join the battle. Sangkhamarata, Inao's sworn brother, kills Wiyasakam, while Inoa kills Kamangkuning. The war ends.

Framework of Analysis

After statements are elicited from the play, the researcher uses speech act theory proposed by Searle (as cited in Yule, 1996) and Wierzbicka (1996). While both propose similar types of act, they differ. The researcher then interprets the utterances based on both proposals. A comparison of both interpretations is given. It has to be kept in mind, however, that the interpretation is not done by Searle or Wierzbicka. Rather, it is the researcher's interpretation based on both proposals. Given that the author is a speaker of the Thai language and possesses both the grammatical and sociolinguistic competence, the interpretation is taken as valid. To ascertain this, however, an integrator is brought into use. When there are disagreements, outsiders are consulted to validate the accuracy of the interpretation.

Data Analysis and Presentation

The elicited data will be first categorized using Searle's speech act classification, which divides all speech acts into five groups, namely declaratives, representatives, expressives, directives, and commissives. After having been grouped, each group of data will be presented in table; that is, there will be five tables altogether. Then, each utterance will be analyzed by Wierzbicka's categorization. After that, the explanation or the translation of each utterance will be provided since the original data is in Thai.

In short, there will be four columns in each table. The first column indicates the speech act in accord with Searle's speech act classification. The second column indicates speech act verb according to Wierzbicka's categorization. The third column presents the actual words or the data that were analyzed. The forth column provides explanation and translation of the elicited data.

Data Analysis and Findings

It was found that Wierzbicka's categorization is finer than that of Searle and, thus, would outnumber Searle's categorization which classifies speech acts into five categories. Following Searle's and Wierzbicka's frameworks, the researcher classified the utterances based on the characters' illocutionary force.

Searles'	Wierzbicka's	Actual Words	Explanation
Act	Speech Act Verb		
Declarative	Declare	 1 อันการที่จัดแจงไว้ อย่ามีอาลัยเลยกับข้า แม้นใครมาขอบุษบา จงให้ตามปรารถนาเขานั้น (Inao, 178) 	Inao tells Kurepan that he does not want to marry Busaba as Kurepan and Daha, his uncle, have planned. As a member of the greatest ruling class, Inao holds the right to refuse to attend the wedding and announce that the wedding will not be held. Furthermore, he asserts that Busaba is free to marry any man who desires her.
Declarative	Declare	2 แม้นใกรมาขอก็จะให้ ไม่อาลัยระกนปนศักดิ์ ถึงไพร่ประคาษชาติทรลักษณ์ จะแต่งให้งามพักตร์พงศ์พันธุ์ (Daha, 180)	Knowing that his daughter is not wanted, Daha declares that he will welcome anyone who wishes to marry Busaba, regardless of title or physical appearance. In addition, the wedding is to be held royally.
Declarative	Declare	3 ด้วยระตูถ่าสำบุรี มาขอบุตรีให้อนุชา ไม่ควรเคียงศักดิ์ก็เข้าใจ แต่ได้ให้เขาตามวาสนา (Daha, 202)	Daha tells his brothers that Lasam has come and asked for Busaba for his brother, Joraka, who has heard of Daha's announcement with regard to Busaba. Although Joraka is not

Table 1: Searle's Declaratives and Wierzbicka's Classification of Speech Act Verbs

Searles' Act	Wierzbicka's Speech Act	Actual Words	Explanation
	Verb		
			of the greatest ruling class like
			Daha and his brothers, Daha is willing to marry them.

Table 1 shows that the examples whose speech acts are declaratives, as defined from Searle's classification, may be all viewed as 'declare' according to Wierzbicka's framework. Consider the first example where Inao declares the wedding void, therefore changing Busaba's status from engaged to single. Based on Searle's categorization, Inao's declaration, evidently, indicates the type of speech act of his utterance – declarative. Similar to Searle's categorization, Wierzbicka's categorization would indicate the speech act verb of this utterance as 'declare'.

This is also true in the second and third examples. In the second example, Daha's statement affects Busaba's possible candidate, letting anyone marry his daughter (จะแต่งให้ งามพักคร์พงศ์พันธุ์). In the third example, after Daha announces the utterance, Busaba is now engaged to Joraka. The utterance changes the status of Busaba (แต่ได้ให้เขาตามวาสนา); in other words, Daha's speech changes the world with his words.

In both cases, not only do the examples fit Searle's definition of declaratives, their speech act verbs are 'declare'. As such, it can be said that Searle's declaratives and Wierzbicka's declare in Inao are alike.

Searles' Act	Wierzbicka's	Actual Words	Explanation
Seuries met	Speech Act	rictual words	Explanation
	Verb		
Representatives	Tell (narrate)	 ข้างอิเหนากุเรบ็นตัดรอน ท้าวดาหาเกืองขัดอัชฌาสัย ว่าใกรขอก็จะให้ดวงสมร อันกวามนี้เถื่องถือทุกนกร แม้นใกรมาว่าก่อนจะเสียที (Joraka, 196-7) 	Joraka informs his brother, Lasam, that Inao calls off the wedding, thus causing Busaba's father, Daha, to be so upset that he would let any man marry his daughter.
Representatives	Tell (report)	2 อันพระบุศรีเมืองดาหา งามล้ำธิดาทุกเขตขัณฑ์ (Pate of Kamangkuning, 218)	Pate asserts that Busaba, Daha's daughter, is the most beautiful lady. Pate speaks this statement as Busaba is well-known for her beauty and most people [in this play] are aware of this fact.
Representatives	Blame	3 มาตรแม้นเสียเมืองคาหา จะพลอยอายงายหน้าหรือหาไม่ ซึ่งเกิดศึกสาเหตุเภทภัย ก็เพราะใครทำความไง้งามพักตร์	In this stanza, Kurepan states, though not explicitly, that Inao is the cause of the war, and if Inao does not help fight

Table 2: Searle's Representatives and Wierzbicka's Classification

 of Speech Act Verbs

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Searles' Act	Wierzbicka's Speech Act Verb	Actual Words	Explanation
		(Kurepan, 251)	the enemy, Kamangkuning and his son will defeat Daha. Moreover, as relatives, this will bring great shame to Kurepan, Inao, and all the greatest ruling class. It is true that being defeated by a city ruler will cost them pride, for they have divine blood. For this reason, the utterance is representative.
Representatives	Guess (predict)	4 จึงทูลว่าถ้ายกวันพรุ่งนี้ จะเสียชัยไฟรีเป็นแม่นมั่น งคอยู่อย่าเสค็จสักเจ็ควัน ถ้าพ้นนั้นก็เห็นไม่เป็นไร (Kamangkuning's royal astrologers, 234-5)	Kamangkuning's royal astrologers predict that Kamangkuning and Wiyasakam will have ill-luck and assert that they had better wait for seven days.

Notably, categories of Searle are fewer in number. As such it has narrower application. In the examples above, Searle interprets utterances in Table 2 as representatives, while Wierzbicka interprets them as narrate, report, predict, etc.

For instance, the speech act in the first example is representative since Joraka states what he believes to be the case and true. Whilst Searle would interpret this utterance as representative, Wierzbicka would interpret it as 'narrate', which is finer, more precise, and more semantically exact.

Like the first example, the rest of the examples in Table 2, whose speech acts are representatives according to Searle's classification, are varied if Wierzbicka's categorization is used as a framework. For example, in order to produce the utterance in the second example, Pate of Kamangkuning is required to commit himself to the truth of the fact; apparently, his speech is representative. Nevertheless, from Wierzbicka's perspective, it is more likely to be interpreted as 'report', which is more semantically precise.

Searles' Act	Wierzbicka's	Actual Words	Explanation
	Speech Act		
	Verb		
Expressives	Blame	1 ไม่เจ็บช้ำน้ำใจได้เป็นน้อย	Mayarasami and Sakarawati
	(deplore),	ที่นี้คนจะพลอยเย้ยหยัน	are to pay respect to Jintara
	Complain	อัปยศอคสูแก่พงศ์พันธุ์	who is not of the greatest
	(bemoan)	•	ruling class. They are
		จะดูหน้านางนั้นฉันใด	daughters of city rulers and,

 Table 3: Searle's Expressives and Wierzbicka's Classification of Speech Act Verbs

Searles' Act	Wierzbicka's Speech Act Verb	Actual Words	Explanation
		จะเด็กกว่าหรือกระไรก็ไม่แจ้ง จนอยู่ไม่รู้แห่งที่จะไหว้ (Mayarasami and Sakarawati, 172)	therefore, do not wish to pay respect to anyone, except those of divine blood. Furthermore, they have no idea whether or not Jintara is younger than them. For these reasons, it is painful and humiliating for them to lose their dignity.
Expressives	Praise (credit)	2 ซึ่งตรัสโปรดเมตตาข้านี้ พระกุณพ้นที่จะเปรียบไป (Mayarasami and Sakarawati, 174)	Mayarasami and Sakarawati praise Jintara's mercy and generosity, saying that her good heart is incomparable to anything.
Expressives	Reprimand (reproach)	3 จะรีรอง้อไปไขเล่า อันลูกเราเขาไม่มีประสงค์ พระเชษฐารักศักดิ์สุริย์วงศ์ จึงทรงอาลัยไกล่เกลี่ขมา ซึ่งจะคอยท่าหลานตามสารศรี อีกร้อยปีก็ไม่จากเมืองหมันหยา แต่จะเวียนงดงานการวิวาห์ จะซ้ำร้ายอายหน้ายิ่งนัก (Daha, 179)	Having learned that Inao does not wish to marry Busaba, Daha is filled with embarrassment and anger. Greatly upset, Daha utters, in a resentful manner, that it will be even more humiliating if the wedding is cancelled. In this stanza, Daha expresses his feelings to his wives; therefore, his utterance is expressive.
Expressives	Reprimand (reprove)	4 พระน้องไม่ยั้งกิดนี้ผิดนัก ให้เสียศักดิ์สุริย์วงศ์อสัญหยา เมื่อเห็นดีให้ปันลั่นวางา จะรื้อมาบอกเล่าเราใย (Kurepan, 203)	Kurepan is greatly upset by Daha's decision. Kurepan views Jorka who is merely an ordinary city ruler as disgrace to the greatest ruling class if he is to marry Busaba. Kurepan is so dissatisfied that he asks Daha back that why Daha bothers to tell him if he has already decided to arrange the marriage.

As can be seen, Searle's way of classifying might be too broad in scope. This category encompasses any utterances in which interlocutor's emotion is conveyed. Rather different from Searle's category, Wierzbicka's proposition would interpret the speech act verb in the examples in Table 3 fairly less broad.

For instance, while Searle may interpret the utterance in the second example as expressive, which is quite broad, Wierzbicka would interpret it as 'praise'. In the example, the two wives of Inao, Mayarasami and Sakarawati, praise Jintara for her

generosity (พระกุณพันที่จะเปรียบไป). The utterance evidently conveys their gratefulness; hence, Wierzbicka's 'praise' would seemingly best fit the illocutionary force of the characters.

Likewise, the interpretation of each scholar is different in the fourth example. Kurepan strongly disapproves his brother's decision (ไม่ยั้งกิดนี้ผิดนัก) and, thus, is very upset. Kurepan's dissatisfaction is conveyed via his utterance. The speech act of his utterance is expressive, yet Wierzbicka would indicate the speech act verb as 'reprove'.

In short, when employing Searle's speech act classification to interpret utterances in this Thai classical play, the examples in Table 3 are all categorized as expressives. However, Wierzbicka's categorization allows linguists to indicate speech act verbs in the examples more semantically exact.

Searles'	Wierzbicka's	Actual Words	Explanation
Act	Speech Act		_
	Verb		
Directives	Ask (request)	 พี่ตั้งจิตกิดไว้แต่ได้มา หวังว่าจะให้เป็นน้อยน้อง ยังมิได้ถูกต้องสองนาง เกรงเจ้าจะระกางหมางหมอง เพราะมิได้สมสู่เป็นกู่กรอง จึ่งให้สองนางอยู่นอกบุรี (Inao, 160) 	After winning Jintara's heart, Inao asks her for approval, though not straightforwardly, to take the two ladies, Mayarasami and Sakarawati, into the city (Manya). Also, Inao would like Jintara to embrace them as her sisters. The utterance is an indirect request, aiming to cause Jintara to do something; thus, it is directive.
Directives	Ask (urge)	2 พระอย่ากินแหนงแคลงใจ น้องมิได้เขียดขึ้งหึงสา สงสารสาวสววรค์กัลยา เร่งให้ไปรับมายังธานี นางไกลบิตุเรศมารคร พลัดพรากจากนครกรุงศรี เห็นแต่พระผ่านเกล้าเท่านี้ ควรหรือภูมีมาทิ้งไว้ (Jintara, 160)	Understanding how Mayarasami and Sakarawati feel, Jintara urges Inao to take the two ladies to the city immediately.
Directives	Ask (plead)	3 แต่พระน้องได้ครองเวียงชัย ยังไม่มีประไหมสุหรี จะขอพระธิดานารี ไปเป็นศรีนครจรกา (Lasam, 201)	Lasam humbly asks Daha for his daughter, stating that his brother, Joraka, has not had Pramaisuri (the great wife) yet, and it would be their honor if Busaba would be Joraka's wife.
Directives	Order	4 ในลักษณ์นั้นว่าปัจจามิตร	Kurepan commands Inao to join
	(command)	มาตั้งติดดาหากรุงใหญ่	the battle at Daha immediately.

Table 4: Searle's Directives and Wierzbicka's Classification of Speech Act Verbs

Searles'	Wierzbicka's	Actual Words	Explanation
Act	Speech Act		
	Verb		
		จงเร่งรีบรี้พลสกลไกร	
		ไปช่วยชิงชัยให้ทันที	
		(Kurepan, 250)	

Like the examples in Table 2 and Table 3, Wierzbicka's categorization when used to analyze the speech acts of examples in Table 4 is finer than that of Searle. Consider the second example where Jintara asks Inao to bring his two wives to the city (1531)#111 5ับมาชังธานี); Searle would simply interpret this as directive since the utterance aims at causing someone to do something. Wierzbicka somehow would consider it as 'urge'. Fairly similar to this example, the third example where Lasam, Joraka's brother, humbly asks Daha for his daughter. His request aims at forcing Daha to marry Busaba to Joraka (จะบอพระธิดานารี ไปเป็นศรีนกระกาา); thus, it is directive. Wierzbicka, however, would interpret this as 'plead', which is more precise and exact.

The analysis of Table 4 suggests that Wierzbicka's categorization is finer. In other words, the evidence also points out that her way of interpreting speech act verbs can describe illocutionary in a semantically subtle way, rather than merely directives.

Searles' Act	Wierzbicka's	Actual Words	Explanation
	Speech Act		
Commissives	Verb Confirm	1 ส่องม อ่ อ่ ม	In these lines, Incompany
Commissives	(assure)	 พี่มิให้ดูหมิ่นถิ่นแคลนเจ้า โฉมเฉลาจงเชื่อคำพี่ จะเลี้ยงน้องครองรักร่วมชีวี ให้ประนีประนอมพร้อมใจ (Inao, 165) 	In these lines, Inao promises Mayarasami that Jintara will not look down upon her and will treat Mayarasami well. Inao commits himself to the future action in a sense that he assures Mayarasami that Jintara will not mistreat her. For this reason, this speech act is
			commissive.
Commissives	Confirm (assure)	2 จะแต่งการเท่าวงศ์เทวา พอแก้หน้าที่ได้ความอัประมาณ (Daha, 202)	Daha tells his brothers that he intends to hold the wedding as grand as any of other greatest ruling class's marriage so that he and his family would not be humiliated by Inao's refusal to marry Busaba. His intention indicates that this is commissive.
Commissives	Offer (volunteer)	 3 อันการสงครามนี้ จะขอเอาเมืองขึ้นบรรดามา กับโยธาสิงหัดส่าหรี 	Suranakong, Daha's nephew, promises Daha that he will fight for Daha and will do his best. This utterance is commisive for

Table 5: Searle's Commissives and Wierzbicka's Classification of Speech Act Verbs

Searles' Act	Wierzbicka's Speech Act Verb	Actual Words	Explanation
		ยกออกโรมรันประจัญตี ดูที่ฝีมือปัจจามิตร ถ้าเห็นศึกย่นย่อท้อกำลัง จะโหมหักมิให้ตั้งต่อติด จะอาสากว่าจะสิ้นสุดฤทธิ์ ชีวิตอยู่ใต้บาทบงสุ์ (Suranakong, 249)	the fact that Suranakong volunteers.
Commissives	Warn (threaten)	4 แม้นมิยกพลไกรไปช่วย ถึงเราม้วยก็อย่ามาดูผี อย่าดูทั้งเปลวอักคี แต่วันนี้ขาดกันจนบรรลัย (Kurepan, 251)	Kurepan threatens Inao that if Inao does not join the battle, he will not be allowed to attend his (Kurepan's) funeral and cremation, and shall no longer be father and son.

Similar to the findings from Table 2, Table 3, and Table 4, which discuss Searle's representatives, expressives, and directives respectively, the findings drawn from Table 5 suggests that Wierzbicka's categorization is finer than that of Searle.

Consider the fourth example which would be identified by Searle's as commissive. Kurepan's utterance, from Wierzbicka's perspective, is 'threaten', for the fact that Kurepan commits himself not to let Inao attend his funeral if Inao does not comply to do as he said (ถึงเราม้วยก็อย่ามาลูฟี). Apparently, Kurepan's action will be effective if in the future Inao does not help Daha protect the city.

As can be seen in Table 5, Wiezbicka's categorization is finer that Searle's speech act classification. In other words, while Searle interprets all excerpts in Table 5 as commissives, Wierzbicka interprets them, for example, as volunteer, threaten.

Notably, from the excerpts in Table 1, all Searle's declaratives can be interpreted as 'declare'. As a result, it can be concluded that Searle's definition of declaratives and Wierzbicka's definition of 'declare' are similar.

Different from Searle's declaratives and Wierzbicka's declare, which are alike, the findings of examples from the other four tables suggest that Searle's categorization and that of Wierzbicka are not exactly alike. The examples are classified as representatives, expressives, directives, and commissives according to Searle's. Wierzbicka, however, identifies the examples in many types. More importantly, the speech act verb that fits each example is more semantically exact. For this reason, it could be inferred that Wierzbicka's category could better facilitate the interpretation of characters' intentions or illocutionary force.

Conclusion

In this study, Inao, a Thai classical play, is analyzed with Searle's and Wierbicka's frameworks. Although Searle's definition of declaratives and Wierzbicka's definition

of 'declare' are similar, the findings indicate that Wierbicka's categorization is more semantically precise compared with Searle's.

Recommendation for Further Research

Speech act theory can be useful in the field of literature. Further research can be conducted to ascertain the illocutionary force as well as perlocutionary act of characters in other Thai plays, novels, short stories, or any kinds of pieces of writing. In so doing, researchers may use any theorists' framework or paradigm they think fit to their study. That is, the framework of analysis is not restricted to Searle's speech act classification or Wierzbicka's speech act verbs.

In studying literature, students may find themselves puzzled, incapable of interpreting the pieces of writing. It might be due to lacks of solid framework of study or grounded principle. Interpretations drawn from either instructors or students could be made less confusing if speech act theory is employed so as to help shape how they interpret the writing. This study then has a great pedagogical implication. If employing this theory in interpretation of the literary work, teachers of literature will have a somewhat more standard way of interpretation. When questioned by students as why a statement is interpreted in such way, the teacher, equipped with knowledge on speech acts, can readily provide the rationale behind their interpretation to students.

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TRANSLATION STUDIES

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A Comparison of English-Thai Translation Products of a Professional Translator and Novice Translators

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Abstract

Translation has played a crucial role for the exchange of information for readers in all languages including for Thai readers. This research aims to examine the similarities and differences between the translation products of a Thai professional translator and Thai novice translators and to find out the causes of translation deviations of the novice translators' translation work. The data was collected from one professional translator's translation work and eighteen novice translators' translation work. In analyzing the data, the cause of deviation was employed. The results revealed that misunderstanding of the meaning of words or idioms, misunderstanding of the grammatical structures used in the source language text, misunderstanding of the use of references, and lack of knowledge about the culture of the source language (English) and the target language (Thai) are the major deviations faced by novice translators. In addition, the findings provide suggestions for teachers and other parties concerned in translation education to deal effectively with the causes of translation deviations.

Keywords: translation / translation problems / translation deviation / professional translator / novice translator

Introduction

In the globalization era, most books and literal media are published in the English language. In other words, 60% of the entire world's technical documentation is prevalently in English (Al-Salman, 2007). However, not all readers are proficient English users. They still need books and literal media in their mother tongue. Each year a large number of books, fiction and nonfiction alike, are translated from one language to another, particularly to and from English. As a result of this, translation plays a crucial role for the exchange of information and ideas for readers in any language including for Thai readers.

In Thailand, translation is needed in a number of ways, particularly for technology transfer, as Thailand is still dependent on overseas technical knowhow. Many more skillful translators are needed to translate various kinds of literal media such as books, manuals, movies as well as other private and government documents. Nowadays, a number of universities in Thailand offer translation courses in their curriculum to produce Thai translators to serve the global community and to bring them to the level of proficient translators.

It is considered that the quality of a product could be identified as the ability to fulfill the translator's expectations. However, there were not many research studies concerning a comparison of translation products. Most translation research studies are mostly about translation strategies (Mungchomklang, 2009). Seeing the gap in translation research, this study is an endeavour to compare and contrast the translation products between a professional translator and novice translators to ascertain the causes of the translation deviations of the novice translators' translation work. Therefore, the results of this study can be used as a guideline to raise awareness of the teachers and learners and assist them in dealing with

translation and translation education to realize the present translation problems and pave the way for an effective approach of translation teaching and learning.

Literature Review

Definition of Translation

There are some formal definitions of translation proposed by many linguists and translation experts such as Nida and Taber (1982), Newmark (1988), Bell (1991), Hatim and Munday (2004), Munday (2012) and Bielsa and Bassnett (2009) as follows:

Nida and Taber (1982) stated that translating comprises a process in reproducing the receptor language in the closest natural equivalent to the message of the source language, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style. The translator selects the closest word between the source language and the target language; thus, the target reader will absolutely understand the same objective of the original language. Similarly, Newmark (1988) pointed out that translation is an endeavor to render the meaning of the source language into the target language in the way that the translator conceives the text and helps the readers in the target language to get the closest meaning of the source language. In other words, translation is the way to convey the same message in another language. Other scholars defined that translation is an activity that involves a translator taking a text, either written or oral, and changing it into another language (Bielsa and Bassnett, 2009). Translation can be seen as the method of changing messages from a source language to a target language in either written or oral forms. Hatim and Munday (2004) gave the definition of translation as an incredibly broad conception which can be seen in many different ways. One may point to translation as a process or a product, and identify such sub-types as literary translation, technical translation, and subtitling and machine translation, while more usually it just refers to the conveyance of written text with the term sometimes including interpreting. Translation is the processes to explain the message in different ways by using the technique of interpretation or analysis of translators. Likewise, the term translation itself has several meanings, depending on whether the product or the process of translation is emphasized. The process of translation between two different written languages engages the translator to transfer the original text into the target text (Munday, 2012). Bell (1991, p.4) pointed out that translation is "an 'art' or a 'craft' and therefore not amenable to objective, 'scientific' description and explanation and so, a fortiori, the search for a theory of translation is doomed from the start". He also stated that translation is the replacement of a representation of a text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in a second language.

In sum, translation has commonly been viewed as the transfer of meaning from one language to another. Especially, the translator has to preserve the meaning of a source text and produce the target text in the closest meaning as possible in order to translate the message clearly and accurately.

Translation Methods

Newmark (1988) proposed that there are two main emphases to translation which consists of the source language (SL) and the target language (TL). SL emphasis is to translate by keeping the original forms whereas TL emphasis is to translate by emphasizing the readers' understanding. He indicated translation methods in the form of a V diagram as below:

SL emphasis	TL emphasis
Word-for-word translation	Adaptation translation
Literal translation	Free translation
Faithful translation	Idiomatic translation
Semantic translation	Communicative translation

Figure 1: Newmark's Translation Methods (Newmark, 1988)

According to Newmark (1988, p. 45), each main emphasis is divided into groups of translation methods as follows:

1. Word-for-word translation: The word-order of the SL is preserved and the words are translated singly by their common meanings.

2. Literal translation: The grammatical constructions of the SL are converted to their closest TL equivalents. The lexical words are translated singly by their common meaning.

3. Faithful translation: It attempts to reproduce the exact contextual meaning of the original text within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures.

4. Semantic translation: It differs from 'faithful translation' only because it must take more account of the aesthetic value of the original text (that is, the beautiful and natural sound).

5. Adaptation translation: It is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, character, and plot are commonly preserved. The source language culture is transferred to the target language culture and the text is rewritten. Adaptation is the freest form of translation.

6. Free translation: It produces the target language text without the style, form, or content of the source text.

7. Idiomatic translation: It reproduces the 'message' of the original text but tends to distort nuances of meaning by using colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original text.

8. Communicative translation: It attempts to render the precise contextual meaning of the original text in a way that content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the target readers.

Based on the Newmark's Translation Method (ibid), it is significant that all eight translation methods are differently functional to the translational activities. In addition, in the column of SL emphasis, it emphasizes the preservation of source language text. The highest level of preservative method is word-for-word translation, whereas the lowest level of preservative method is semantic translation which is close to communicative translation. On the other hand, in the column of TL emphasis, it emphasizes the target readers' understanding of the translated text. Furthermore, it is influential that the appropriate translation method is used for translation work for various purposes. Although all eight translation methods are not applied simultaneously for the function, it is expected to be applied for different occasions, according to the major emphasis of the translation.

Translation Strategies

The disparities among languages are the major difficulty for translators to transfer messages from one language to another. Thus, educators have developed translation strategies to cope with problems occurring in translation processing. Baker (2011) justified translation strategies for non-equivalence at word level as follows:

1. Translation by a more general word (superordinate): This strategy is used to cope with a lack of specificity in the target language compared with the source language.

Example: Source language: กล้วยกวน

Back translation: Stir banana Target language: Sugar-boiled banana puree

From the above example, the source Thai word กล้วยกวน (Back Translation: Stir banana) is replaced by the target English words "Sugar-boiled banana puree" by using more general words to convey the meaning of this type of banana preservation. In this case, it is better to use more general words to make the translated text clearer.

2. Translation by a more neutral/less expressive word: This strategy is applied when there is no equivalent word in the target language. The translator may use a near equivalent or may turn to estimating a word that is more neutral or less expressive than the source word.

Example: Source language: เบื่อหน่าย

Back translation: Feeling unpleasant and weary because something is uninteresting.

Target language: Get bored

From the example, there is no word in the target language that can express the exact meaning of the source language. In this case, a near equivalent but less expressive words are used.

3. Translation by cultural substitution: This strategy is used when the source culture's concepts are unfamiliar to the target language. The culture-specific source may obstruct readers' understanding. To help the readers understand the text, the translator may choose target cultural words that the target readers are familiar with.

Example: Source language: พ.ศ. 2556 Back translation: B.E. 2556 Target language: A.D. 2013

The above example provides information of a year in different forms which are the Thai calendar and the Christian calendar. In terms of time, B.E. stands for "Buddhist Era" and A.D refers to "Anno Domini" or "in the year of our Lord". In the translation of Thai into English, B.E. 2556 is then changed into A.D. 2013. Thus, if the term of year is familiar to the target readers then it will be better understood what the author is presenting.

4. Translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation: This strategy is used to cope with a culture-related text in which the translator selects a loan word and gives more explanation to help the readers easily understand the meaning.

Example: Source language: cheque Back translation: เช็ค Target language: เช็ค, หนังสือตราสารที่ต้องกรอกข้อมูลและจำนวนเงินจากผู้สั่งจ่ายและผู้รับ เงินสามารถนำเช็คไปขึ้นเงินกับทางธนาคาร

From the above example, the source language *cheque* is translated into the target language by using a loan word plus an explanation; $i\bar{n}n$ (Back Translation: cheque), a type of bill that

contains a written order and directs a bank to pay money on demand. The English loan word with the explanation helps the target language readers to understand the meaning clearly.

5. Translation by paraphrase using a related word: This strategy is used when there are different forms of words or structures. The translator uses paraphrase or related words in transmitting the original meaning of the source text into the target text.

Example: Source language: กฤหาสน์หลังนี้ใหญ่โตมโหฬาร

Back translation: This mansion is very big.

Target language: The tremendous mansion has a spacious atmosphere.

6. Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words: This strategy can be used when the source text cannot be lexicalized at all in the target language. The following case is semantically complicated.

Example: Source language: มีสุขภาพที่ดีมาก

Back translation: Be very healthy Target language: In the pink

According to the example, the notion of \vec{u}_{quarwh} (Back Translation: be very healthy) is expressed by paraphrase using unrelated words "in the pink". It is plausible to provide a more significant explanation to help readers understand the concept and its meaning.

7. Translation by omission: This strategy is applied to omit translating word(s) when the meaning transmitted by a particular word or expression is not important to the development of the text because the wordy explanation may be confusing to the readers.

Example: Source language: ฉันต้องการซื้อนกแก้วมาคอร์สายพันธ์สการ์เล็ต

Back translation: I would like to buy a parrot species of Scarlet macaw.

Target language: I would like to buy a Scarlet macaw.

In the above example, the translator omits the words *parrot species* in the translated text. The readers can understand the text without these words because the meaning of the text is still maintained.

8. Translation by illustration: This strategy is used when there are restrictions in translation or there is a lack of an equivalent word in the target language.

Example: Source language: ประชาคมเศรษฐกิจอาเซียน

Back translation: ASEAN Economic Community

Target language: ASEAN Economic Community is the uniting of 10 ASEAN countries such as Thailand, Myanmar, Laos, Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, Cambodia, and Brunei.

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From the above example, the translator mentions the names of the countries of the ASEAN Economic Community to help readers have a better understanding in the translated text.

It is obvious that the application of the eight translation strategies is significant for the replacement of the non-equivalence at word level in the translation process. In my perspective, Baker's translation strategies can be considered an effective theoretical framework that is useful for the translators to apply in the translation of different source documents. These strategies are applied for the use of words that are related to the accurate meaning for the target language text. In other words, the strategies are effectively and efficiently used for assisting the translators to translate the message to the target language more precisely for its meaning.

Translation Problems

The problems of translation have usually occurred because a unique language has its own essential concepts. Wimolchalao (1992) classified the translation problems in terms of the following causes:

1. Failure to understand the source language text: This factor happens when the translator cannot understand the source language text. Siddiek (2010) addressed the misunderstanding of the context in the source language as the unintentional factor that may cause the translator to fail. An insufficient ability to understand the original written text can be divided into four subgroups as follows:

1.1 Failure to understand the meaning of words or idioms: One of the obstacles that challenge the translator is cultural untranslatability, i.e. idioms, proverbs, jokes, metaphors, or slang (Gerding-Salas, 2000).

1.2 Failure to understand the grammatical structures used in the source language text: The translator lacks good comprehension of the source text by failing to parse text in terms of grammar (Hatim and Mason, 1992, cited in Pinmanee, 2011).

1.3 Failure to understand the connection of each sentence: It may be caused by insufficient knowledge of cohesive devices. The translator may encounter this kind of factor when translating a particular text. Cohesive devices are words or phrases that show relationships between or within sentences (Darwish, 2003). The translated text may be awkward to read if the translator misunderstands these devices.

1.4 Failure to know about the story background or culture: Cultural specific concepts from the source language are sometimes rarely understood in the target language. These concepts include religious beliefs, social customs, and particular types of food (Baker, 2011).

In the following section, linguistic deviation which usually causes a big problem for novice translators will be elaborated on.

Linguistic deviation

Leech (1969) identified that the type of language that deviates from the norms of literary convention can also be caused by linguistic deviation, which comprises eight aspects as follows (cited in Pirnajmuddin and Medhat, 2011):

1. Lexical deviation; this type of deviation occurs when newly-invented words which affect the translation work are used.

2. Grammatical deviation; it appears when the rules of the sentence or syntactic feature of the source language is disregarded. Disregarding this aspect can cause a problem because, as Finch (2000) pointed out, the grammar of a language comprises a series of rules which native speakers intuitively follow in the production of well-formed constructions, and thus should not be ignored by the translator.

3. Phonological deviation; it occurs in sound and pronunciation that is done deliberately to conserve the rhyme. The divergence of pronunciation may generate another meaning for a certain word or phrase.

4. Graphological deviation; it occurs when the rules of writing are disregarded. It may be a line-by-line arrangement with atypical margins. A special way of putting words and lines on a page may add a sort of second meaning to the original meaning.

5. Semantic deviation; it occurs when there is an irrational element of meaning in the translational work or when the literal interpretation of a sentence is nonsensical.

6. Dialectal deviation; it occurs when the language user uses social or regional language features in his/her translation which is different from that of standard language. In other words, dialect is a type of language which has currency within a specific community or group of speakers (Baker, 2011).

7. Register deviation; it occurs when the borrowed format of the language in a different register is used. When it happens, the translator has an option to choose the variety of language that is considered appropriate to a specific situation (Baker, 2011).

8. Historical period deviation; it occurs when archaic words or structures which are no longer used in standard language are used to enhance the aesthetic value of the written work.

Methodology

Subjects

The subjects of this study comprised 18 students enrolled in LNG232 Basic Translation course at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi. The course aims to foster the students' ability in understanding the theories and procedures of translation through translation practice, with an overview of the problems of English-Thai translation. (These 18 students were considered to be novice translators because they did not have any experience in formal translation). Besides, the professional translator was an experienced translator from a bi-lingual magazine. In this present study, the researcher used an article translated by the translator which appeared in *Reader's Digest* magazine entitled "*Five foods that could save the world*."

Instruments

Novice translators' translation products and a professional translator's translation product were used as a major instrument. (The professional translator's version of a translation will be used as the benchmark in order to compare how language features of novice translators deviate from the professional translator's work.)

Research questions

1. What are the similarities and differences between the translation products of a Thai professional translator and Thai novice translators?

2. What are the causes of the translation deviations?

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Procedures

Data collection

In the first stage of the procedures, the researcher prepared an article which included English and Thai versions. And then, the article in the English version was distributed to the eighteen subjects to translate it into Thai. After that, the data was collected. The data consisted of eighteen pieces of translation work of novice translators and one article of a professional translator's work found in *Reader's Digest* magazine entitled "*Five foods that could save the world*"

Data analysis

- The researcher compared and contrasted the students' translation products with the professional translator's product to see the deviations from the benchmark. (The expert version of the translation was used as the benchmark.)
- The researcher initially analyzed the data to find out the causes of translation deviations.

Data presentation and interpretation

The similarities and differences of translation work

In terms of translation methods mentioned by Newmark (1988), the professional translator tended to employ the strategy of target emphasis, which focuses on the meaning – the target readers' understanding of the translated text. On the contrary, the novice translators tended to focus on the source emphasis, which focuses on the preservation of source language text. In this case, most of the novice translators in this study relied on the method of word-for-word translation.

In terms of the translation strategies being employed, Baker's (2011) categorization revealed that the professional translator applied more strategies and tended to use translation by a more general word (superordinate), translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, translation by cultural substitution, translation by a loan word or loan word plus explanation, translation by paraphrase using related words, and translation by omission. With regard to the novice translators, they tended to use translation by a more general word (superordinate), translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, translation by a more general word (superordinate), translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, translation by paraphrase using related words, and translation by omission. It can be seen that most of the novice translators did not use translation by cultural substitution and translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation as compared to the professional translator.

The following are the examples of translation strategies used by the professional translator:

1). Translation by cultural substitution: e.g. the source language "*The first scuba rice strain* was released in February 2009". The professional translator translated it as "สถาบันแจกจ่ายข้าว ทนน้ำพันธุ์แรกเมื่อเดือนกุมภาพันธ์ 2552" (Back translation: "*The institution distributed the scuba* rice the first time in February 2009"). The professional translator transferred the form of Christian calendar into Thai calendar as "B.E. 2552". It shows that he/she chose the Thai cultural words that the Thai target readers were familiar with.

2). Translation by a more neutral/less expressive word: e.g. the source language "sourtasting" which can mean a tart acidic taste. The professional translator rendered this word as "savu" (Back translation: "bitter taste"). In this case, a more neutral expression is used. The following are examples of translation strategies used by the novice translators:

1). Translation by paraphrase using related words: e.g. the source language "This, he says, is life-changing. Two extra hectares [of production] in a big jump." The novice translator transferred the text as "เขากล่าวว่านี่คือสิ่งเปลี่ยนแปลงชีวิตของเขา พื้นที่ 2 เฮกเตอร์ (ของการผลิต) นี้เปลี่ยนไป อย่างพลิกผ่ามือจริงๆ" (Back translation: "He says, life is changing. The two hectares of the production has dramatically changed"). It shows that this strategy is being used by the novice translator since he/she used the word "dramatically changed instead of a big jump or a lot" which make the readers visualize how life is changing.

2). Translation by omission: e.g. the source language "*Did you know*?" The novice translator translated the text as " $\frac{3}{2}n\frac{3}{5}\partial^{3}lu$ " (Back translation: "*know or not*"). It can be seen that the novice translator omitted the word "you" in the translated text but the receptor can understand the text without this word since the meaning of the text still remains.

Additionally, the difference of the translation product of the professional translator and the novice translators also could be justified that the translation work of the professional translator is generally close to the original text and its meaning is clearly expressed in the target language. On the contrary, the novice translator's translation work is likely to be relatively less accurate than the original and its meaning is sometimes less understandable due to translation deviations. These translation deviations can be caused by several factors, such as (1) misunderstanding of the meaning of words or idioms, (2) misunderstanding of the use of references, and (4) lack of knowledge about culture of first language (L1) and second language (L2).

In order to give a vivid description on how the novice translators' language features deviated from the professional translator's translation work and thus made their translation work have some sort of linguistics deviations, some examples are provided and their plausible explanations are attempted as follows:

1. Misunderstanding of the meaning of words or idioms

The four examples below are presented to describe how the novice translators failed to understand the meaning of a particular word or idiom.

Example 1

The source language: "The beans are really tasty, too," says Dr. Hughes, who runs cookery workshops in Indian communities to demonstrate the crop's potential.

Thai professional translator: ดร.ฮิวจ์สซึ่งจัดอบรมเชิงปฏิบัติเรื่องทำอาหารตามชุมชน

ชาวอินเดียเพื่อสาธิตศักยภาพของถั่วเขียวพันธุ์นี้ยืนยันว่า ถั่วพันธุ์นี้อร่อยมากด้วย

Thai novice translator: "นอกจากนั้น ถั่วขังมีรสที่อร่อยอีกด้วย" ดร.ฮิวจ์ส ผู้เปิดกิจการ

โรงงานอาหารในชุมชนกนอินเดียเพื่อทดลองศักยภาพผลผลิตทางการเกษตร กล่าว

In this example, the professional translator translated the source text as "Dr. Hughes, who <u>runs workshops</u> about cookery in Indian communities to demonstrate the crop's potential, insists that the beans are really tasty too". Whereas, the novice translator translated the source text as "The beans are really tasty, too," says Dr. Hughes, who <u>opens cooking</u>

<u>factories</u> in Indian communities to demonstrate the crop's potential." It can be seen that the novice translator failed to understand the meaning of the phrase "run cookery workshops". According to the original text, Dr. Hughes runs cookery workshops; she does not open cooking factories. For the definition of the expression "to run", it can refer to "in charge of; manage" whereas "to open" means "start up". In this case, there is a significant difference between the meanings of these words and it can be considered as a lexical deviation. Additionally, it is noticeable that the professional translator renders the word 'crop' into 'mung bean' to make the translated text become more understandable and consistent since the previous sentence and background of this story focus on 'mung bean' whereas the novice translator just translated the word 'crop' directly and did not refer to it as mung bean.

Example 2

The source language: That was Mostafa Karmel's predicament. Thai professional translator: นั่นคือสภาพของมอสตาฟา คามาล Thai novice translator: นั่นเป็นคำพยากรณ์ของ Mostafa Karmel

In the above example, the Thai professional translator translated the source text as "*That is the predicament of Mostafa Karmel*" whereas, the novice translator translated the source text as "*That is the prediction of Mostafa Karmel*". The translation deviation was due to the fact that the novice translator failed to understand the meaning of the word 'predicament' correctly. It is plausible to say that the words 'predicament' and 'prediction' have slightly similar forms, but they have completely different meanings. The cause might come from the root word 'predict', which is presumably considered as a lexical deviation since the novice translator misunderstood the word from the original text, he/she conveyed the message to the target text in a different meaning.

Example 3

The source language: Enter a sour-tasting, warty fruit. Bitter melon, which can be used in stir-fries and curries.

Thai professional translator: กินพืชผักรสขมอย่างมะระซึ่งใช้ผัดและต้มแกงได้

Thai novice translators: ผลไม้ที่มีลักษณะเปรี้ยวและมีผลเป็นปุ่มอย่างมะระ สามารถ

นำมาใช้ในการประกอบอาหารในผัดแกงทอดได้

In the above example, the professional translator translated the source text as "*Eating <u>bitter</u> taste of vegetable such as bitter melon, this can be used in stir-fries and curries*". However, the novice translators translated it as "*Bitter melon has a characteristic of <u>sour taste</u> and warty skin, which can be used for cooking as stir-fries, deep-fried and curries". The professional translator understood the story background and used the words 'bitter taste' to tell readers about the taste of bitter melon whereas the novice translators misunderstood the expression 'a sour-tasting'; this can mean "bad or tart acidic taste, not exactly sour". As a result, a lexical deviation has occurred since the combinations of words combined have a specific meaning that is different from their literal meaning. Thus, the novice translators, to some extent, have indirectly shown their ignorance towards the connection of the word 'bitter melon' and its attribute – 'sour taste.' In fact, a bitter melon has been known to taste 'bitter,' as what the name suggests.*

make sense that a bitter melon tastes bitter, not exactly sour. If they could have understood the connection of the word being described (bitter melon) and its description (sour-tasting), they would have not arrived at the illogical meaning; at least, they should have thought that it has another meaning.

<u>Example 4</u> The source language: Bitter Melon Thai professional translator: มะระ ด้านเบาหวาน Thai novice translator: แดงโมรสขม

In the example above, the professional translator translated the original text as "*Bitter Melon: a cure for diabetes*" while the novice translator translated the original text as "*Watermelon that has bitter taste*". It seems that the novice translator failed to understand the meaning of the word 'melon' correctly. Melon is a warty fruit with green skin; it can be used in cooking and for its medicinal properties. Watermelon is a large, round or oval-shaped fruit with dark green skin, red pulp, and watery juice. It is obvious that melon is different from watermelon. It is plausible to say that watermelon is considered as a type of melon and it is also a member of the large *Cucurbitaceae* plant family. Thus, the novice translator could not interpret the word 'melon' in the sensible meaning. As a result, a semantic deviation has appeared since the novice translator failed to render a precise meaning of the word 'melon'. In addition, it is noticeably seen that the professional translator provided additional information, i.e. "*Bitter Melon: a cure for diabetes*" to make the topic more interesting and more understandable to the readers while the novice translator used just word by word translation method.

2. Misunderstanding of the grammatical structures used in the source language text

In the present study, the failure to understand the grammatical structure used in the source language text can be identified from the novice translators' performance in dealing with the plural form of a particular noun. They normally did not take into consideration the existence of the suffix's' attached to the noun in the source language. This can be observed in the following example.

Example 5

The source language: Imagine <u>working</u> for <u>months,...</u> Thai professional translator: ลองนึกภาพด้วเอง<u>ทำนา</u>เป็น<u>เดือนๆ...</u> Thai novice translator: การคาดการณ์สำหรับการ<u>ทำงาน</u>เป็นเวลา<u>หนึ่งเดือน...</u>

From this example, the professional translator translated the source language text as "*Trying to imagine yourself farming for <u>several months</u>...". On the contrary, the novice translator translated the source language text as "<i>The imagination of working in <u>one month</u>..."*. It is plausible to explain that the professional translator explicitly translated the word "imagine working" into "trying to imagine yourself farm" to render the meaning more explicitly whereas the novice translator translated just word by word. Moreover, the novice translator misunderstood the plural form of 'months'. Actually, the plural form of 'months' should be translated as 'several months' rather than 'one month'. This example shows that ignoring the existence of the suffix's' has made the translation less accurate. In particular, the translated version made by the novice translator provides far different information from the source to the readers. This can also be called 'grammatical deviation' because the novice translators disregarded the syntactic feature of the word. However, it is plausible to explain that the novice translators in this study misunderstood the grammatical structure of both first

language (L1) and second language (L2). Furthermore, the translators are obliged to know the grammatical aspects of the source language which may appear to be slightly or completely different from the target language. For example, in Thai language, in order to form a plural form of a certain noun, it can be simply done by adding a quantifier or a number, or repeating the word to indicate the amount/quantity of the noun. This problem is speculated since some novice translators seem not to take into account the plural form (with suffix's') in the source language.

3. Misunderstanding of the use of references

Being lost in the reference system used in the text has caused an inability to connect ideas among sentences, and it seems to be one of the problems encountered by novice translators. This can be noticed in Example 6 below.

Example 6

The source language: Of course, normal rice plants grow underwater. But they do so extremely quickly — pushing out their shoot as fast as possible to find the sunlight.

Thai professional translator: ต้นข้าวธรรมดาเติบโตใต้น้ำได้ก็จริง แต่มันจะโตเร็วสุดขีด พยายามแทงขอดพ่งขึ้นให้เร็วที่สดเพื่อหาแดด

Thai novice translator: แต่ข้าวสถูบ้าสามารถเติบโตใต้น้ำได้ดี อีกทั้งมันยังมีความพยายามที่ จะผลักลำต้นเพื่อได้รับแสงอาทิตย์ได้เป็นอย่างดี

In the example above, the professional translator translated the source text as "*Normal rice does grow underwater, but they will do it as fast as possible to find the sunlight*". In contrast, the novice translator translated the source text as "*Scuba rice can grow underwater and they also have ability to push their shoot to find the sunlight*". It should be noted that in the previous paragraph, the text is referring to 'scuba rice', but in the paragraph mentioned in Example 6, the reference is addressed to the 'normal rice'. Here, the novice translator was confused about which rice was actually trying to push out their shoot for the sunlight. In this case, the problem can be possibly caused by the failure of the novice translator to identify the reference of the 'subject' being described. In other words, the novice translator could not distinguish which 'pronoun' referred to what type of rice in the paragraph. In this case, the word 'they' refers to the word 'normal rice', not 'scuba rice' (which is mentioned in the previous paragraph).

4. Lack of knowledge about culture of the source language (English) and the target language (Thai)

Apart from linguistic deviation, a non-linguistic deviation was also found in the translation product. There is an aspect being highlighted since novice translators' lack of knowledge about culture of the source language and the target language is also problematic. It is discussed in Example 7 below.

Example 7

The source language: This, he says, is life-changing. Two extra hectares [of production] in a big jump.

Thai professional translator: เขาบอกว่านี่คือสิ่งที่เปลี่ยนชีวิต "(ผลผลิต) ที่เพิ่มมาราว 12

ไร่ถือว่าเยอะมาก"

Thai novice translator: เขากล่าวว่านี่คือสิ่งเปลี่ยนแปลงชีวิตของเขา "พื้นที่ 2 เฮกเตอร์ (ของ

การผลิต) นี้เปลี่ยนไปอย่างพลิกฝ่ามือจริงๆ"

In Example 7, the professional translator translated the original text as "*He says, life is changing; an increase in production of <u>twelve rai</u> is really a lot". On the other hand, the novice translator translated the original text as "<i>He says, life is changing; the <u>two hectares</u> of the production has dramatically changed". It is plausible to explain that the professional translator transferred the word 'hectare' into 'rai', which is understandable by Thai readers as this is how a plot of land is measured in Thai. The novice translator still used the word 'hectares' from the source language to translate into the target language which may not be easily understood by the target readers. In other words, the professional translator understood the cultural substitution which makes the source text more understandable to the target readers, for example, (1 hectare \approx 6 rai) and then (2 hectares \approx 12 rai). The professional translator's decision to substitute the word <i>hectares* into *rai* (the measurement system which is widely known by Thai people), is likely to be of a great assist for Thai target readers. This example shows that the novice translator failed to understand the culture or the context where the translation is used. To some extent, it can be claimed that there is a lack of awareness among the novice translators of the mutually accepted language of the target readers.

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of this study revealed that there are significant similarities and differences between the translation products of a Thai professional translator and Thai novice translators. From the results, it can be seen that there are similarities between the Thai professional translator and Thai novice translators in using the same translation strategies, e.g. translation by a more general word (superordinate), translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, translation by paraphrase using related words, and translation by omission. These similarities can be interpreted as an attempt to render a message that is understandable by Thai readers. On the other hand, the findings reveal immense differences between the Thai professional translator and the Thai novice translators because there are various language features used by novice translators that are deviated from the professional translator's work. In terms of the translation deviation, the data showed that it can be categorized into linguistic deviation and non-linguistic deviation. Linguistic deviation can be found in Leech's work (Leech 1969 cited in Pirnajmuddin and Medhat, 2011) which covers lexical deviation, grammatical deviation, and semantic deviation. However, non-linguistic deviation such as story background or culture is highlighted by Wilmolchalao (1992) in her categorization of translation problems.

According to the empirical outcomes, there are several key issues that can be discussed as follows. Firstly, the mastery of the meaning of vocabulary of the source language still appears to be a major contribution in the success of any translation activity. The more the translators know about the vocabulary used in the source language, the easier the translation work will become. However, knowing the meaning of a single word is not enough in the English language as well as other languages. Each language has phrases or sentences that cannot be understood literally, i.e. phrasal verbs, idioms, figurative expressions, metaphorical phrases, sayings and proverbs (Sadeghpour, 2012). When there is a combination of words, the words take on an entirely new meaning. In fact, some words have multiple meanings, and novice translators might misunderstand those words resulting in misunderstanding the content of the text. Since vocabulary is a significant part of language features in context, if the translator misunderstands the vocabulary, they will convey the information wrongly or partially incorrectly. Minor mistakes in translation can sometimes cause big problems. Besides,

knowing only the vocabulary of the source language is not enough as far as other aspects are concerned. Translation is not only a matter of transposing the meaning, it is necessary to begin working from the core of the language, which corresponds to its 'grammatical level' (Dickins, 2010 cited in Pischedda, 2013). It is because each language has different grammatical categories, therefore, most of the times the source and the target languages might lack 'grammatical equivalence' (Baker, 1992 cited in Pischedda, ibid). It can be seen that the grammatical aspect of each language has its own characteristics, for example, English language gets its plural form usually by adding the suffix 's' or 'es' to the noun, whereas in the Thai language, it is obtained by adding the number, quantifier, or repeating the particular word to indicate the amount of the noun. Furthermore, the cultural background should be considered since a particular translation work can have different cultural values. As pointed out by Nida (1964), "differences between cultures cause many more severe complications for the translator than do differences in language structure" (p.130). Thus, these aspects show that if the translator is not skillful in both the source language text and the target language text, it can have a great impact on the readers. This issue is in accordance with Wimolchalao (1992) who justified that students have two major translation problems. One is that they do not understand the source language. The other is that they are not able to reproduce a good sentence in the target language. Also, Gerding-Salas (2000) claimed that the main problem of translation is associated with reading and comprehension ability in the source language.

In conclusion, the results of this study can be used as a guideline to assist teachers and other parties concerned in translation education to realize the existence of translation problems and deal effectively with the causes of translation deviations and find appropriate solutions to overcome those problems for an effective approach to translation teaching and learning. The findings also help raise the learners' awareness of translation deviations since a unique language has its own notion and use. Due to the differences between the source language and the target language, translation requires the translators to have an in-depth knowledge of the particular languages that they are going to translate. As a result, it is essential for the translators to think consciously of the elements of translation, which consist of lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context in the source language text (Larson, 1988).

Furthermore, it is important to mention that translation instructors should find effective translation teaching to help learners overcome translation problems. Hence, it is significant to introduce the concept of idiom or collocation which can enable learners to understand word meaning in different contexts. Knowledge of a particular culture where the source language is being translated should also be introduced. Moreover, techniques or strategies of translation can be of great help for novice translators. When they are equipped with enough strategies, there will be a greater chance for them to produce a translation work of enhanced quality. In addition, novice translators should be aware of the significant aspects of ideal translation from professional translators. They should study the work of professional translators in order to present splendid translation products.

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Abstract

Previous studies on translation of religious texts from Thai into English have focused on translation strategies at different levels: word level (Buranapong, 2001; Seesai, 2004; Siaruneiam, 2011; Suwannatrai, 2006; Thana-olarn, 2002; Wongwairuk, 2012), sentence level (Buranapong, 2001) and discourse level (Buranapong, 2001; Thana-olarn, 2002). However, little attention has been paid to the cultural term categorization. Consequently, my aims are to categorize the cultural words and phrases and to analyse the strategies of translating these cultural words and phrases from Thai into English.

Cultural term categorization (Newmark, 1988) and cultural term translation strategies (Baker, 2005; Newmark, 1988; Larson, 1984) were employed, and two versions of *Anger Management: How to Deal with Your Anger and sleep Soundly* were selected in this study. Thai version was written by W. Vajiramedhi and English version was translated by Nopamat Veohong.

In terms of cultural word and phrase categorizations, the results consisted of (1) ecology, (2) material culture, (3) organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts, and (4) gestures and habits. The results revealed many translation strategies: (1) literal translation found in ecology, and concepts, (2) paraphrase found in material culture, activities, gestures and habits, (3) the use of loan words found in ecology, material culture, and concepts, (4) cultural substitution found in concepts, (5) addition found in material culture and concepts (6) omission found in concepts.

These results have implications for translation teachers, and professional translators in terms of guidance for teaching or translating Thai cultural issues into English. Additionally, this study is essential for foreign readers to have a better understanding of Thai culture.

Introduction

Cultural terms mean words and phrases relates to culture. Previous studies on cultural translation, particularly from Thai into English have focused on translation strategies of cultural words and phrases based on data selected from novels (Manketwit, 2010), historical books (Ratchatha, 2007), and magazine articles (Decha, 2006).

In terms of translation of religious texts from Thai into English, many studies have focused on translation strategies at different levels: word level (Buranapong, 2001; Seesai, 2004; Siaruneiam, 2011; Suwannatrai, 2006; Thana-olarn, 2002; Wongwairuk, 2012), sentence level (Buranapong, 2001) and discourse level (Buranapong, 2001; Thana-olarn, 2002).

However, little attention has been paid to Vajiramedhi's work and the cultural term categorization. As far as the data analysis is concerned, most studies have attempted to identify cultural terms in source texts and discussed translation strategies based on a single model or framework such as using Larson's framework (Seesai, 2004; Suwannatrai, 2006).

Unlike the previous studies, this work aims to categorize cultural words and phrases in Buddhist books and attempts to expand a research scope by using multi-modelled frameworks to analyze the strategies for translating cultural words and phrases from Thai into English. Vajiramedhi's

work was selected in this study. These results have implications for translation teachers, and professional translators in providing guidance for teaching or translating Thai cultural issues into English. Besides, this study is essential for foreign readers to have a better understanding of Thai culture.

The concept of translation strategies

In terms of translation problems, Baker (2005), and Larson (1984) explain that the difference of the connotative or emotive meanings of words between source language and target language can cause the problem such as "Home" and "IJ̃ lu". In general, "home" means the place where you live. In addition, connotative meanings of "home" refer to warmth, and family. However, "IJ̃ lu" means the place where you live. Thus, it is difficult for the translators to find Thai word including the connotative meanings like "home" in English.

According to Baker (2005), and Catford (1965, pp. 95-103), the translators face the problems when they find the overlap in the meanings of the cultural terms between source language and target language such as " \mathfrak{g}_1 " and "grandfather". The meaning of " \mathfrak{g}_1 " in Thai is more specific than "grandfather" in English because " \mathfrak{g}_1 " means the father of your mother but "grandfather" means the father of your mother or father. Therefore, it is difficult to explain its meaning to the audience in other cultures.

In addition, Baker (2005), Catford (1965, pp. 95-103), and Nida (1964, pp. 90-100), cite that the translators encounter the problem when cultural terms in source language do not exist in target language such as plants, animals, technological devices, social values, point of view, etc. It is difficult for not only the audiences in other cultures to understand the meanings of these cultural terms but also the translators to find the appropriate words in target language.

Baker (2005), Newmark (1988), and Larson (1984) explain about six main translation strategies discussed as follows:

1. Translation by a more general word (superordinate)

Baker (2005), explains that "this is the process which translators find the wider meaning of the word in target language. This strategy is used when the translators find the overlap in the meanings of the cultural terms between source language and target language. For example, "q 3" which means the elder brother of your parents was translated as "uncle" which means the younger brother of your parents, or the elder brother of your parents.

2. Translation by a specific word

This strategy is used when cultural terms in source language do not exist in target language. For instance, "nonunauws" was translated as "Chinese silk pajamas".

3. Translation by cultural substitution

According to Baker (2005) and Newmark (1988), "this strategy involves replacing a culturespecific item or expression with a target-language item which does not have the same meaning but is likely to have a similar impact on the target reader. The main advantage of using this strategy is that it gives the reader a concept with which she/he can identify something familiar and appealing." Kachru (1987) and Watkhaolarm (2005, p. 147) call cultural substitution as shift. This strategy is used when cultural terms in source language do not exist in target language. To illustrate, "n" was translated as "yard".

4. Translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation

Baker (2005), Larson (1984), and Newmark (1988) define loan word as "a word which has been borrowed from another language and adopted into the new language." In addition, Baker (2005) explains that this strategy is particularly common in dealing with culture-specific items, and modern concepts. Besides, Decha (2006) cites that this strategy is used when the translators want to maintain the names of the original terms in Thai, and when there are no English terms that have close meanings to the original cultural terms. For example, "đ u ể 1" was translated as "Somtam".

5. Translation by paraphrase

Paraphrase is the strategy which the translators explain the meanings of the words. This strategy is used when Cultural terms in source language do not exist in target language. Example, "บันหมาก" was translated as "bridal gifts".

6. Translation by omission

Decha (2006, p. 160) explains that the translators omit cultural terms from target language because they are too specific. In addition, they may be useless for the readers or may not attract their interest or in some cases they may be untranslatable.

Research Methodology

The purposes of this study are (1) to categorize the cultural words and phrases and (2) to analyse the strategies of translating these cultural words and phrases from Thai into English.

In terms of data collection, both Thai and English versions of *Anger Management: How to Deal with Your Anger and Sleep Soundly* were selected in this study. Thai version, "*Dhammalapsabai*", was written by W. Vajiramedhi in 2004 and "*Anger Management: How to Deal with Your Anger and Sleep Soundly*" in English version was translated by Nopamat Veohong in 2005. Besides, Thai version was got Chamnong Thongpraseart Foundation award for spreading Buddhism.

The concept of cultural word and phrase categorization (Newmark, 1988) was employed to select and categorize cultural terms which include (1) ecology, (2) material culture or artefacts, such as (3) social culture, (4) organizations, customs, activities, procedures and concepts, and (5) gestures and habits.

These selected cultural words and phrases were sub-categorized which include (1) ecology such as city, and country names, and weather, (2) material culture or artefacts including religious artefacts, (3) organizations, customs, activities, procedures, and concepts such as religious activities, religious concepts, religious status, and the use of metaphors, and idioms.

After selecting and sub-categorizing the cultural words and phrases, these words and phrases were analysed translation strategies (Baker, 2005; Newmark, 1988; Larson, 1984) as mentioned in the next section. (See results of the study.)

Results of the Study

The results of this study revealed six main translation strategies as mentioned below.

1. Literal translation

Literal translation was found in many types of cultural terms as discussed below.

1.1 Ecology

Example 1:

Source Language: ตอนนี้เมืองไทยของเราอากาศกำลังอยู่ในช่วง<u>ปลายฝนต้นหนาว</u>พอดี

Target Language: Here in Thailand the weather is both <u>rainy and cool as the end of the rainy</u> <u>season draws near and the cold season is about to begin</u>.

As shown in this example, "ปลายฝนดันหนาว" was Thai season which was translated as "both rainy and cool as the end of the rainy season draws near and the cold season is about to begin". <u>This</u> strategy was used in order to help the foreign readers better understand the meaning of this cultural term.

1.2 Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts

Example 2:

Source Language: <u>หลักกฎแห่งกรรม</u>ที่พระพุทธเจ้าทรงนำมาสอนนั้นไม่ใช่หลักการที่พระพุทธองก์ทรงบัญญัติขึ้นเอง

Target Language: The *law of volitional action*, as taught by the Buddha, is not of His own making.

As illustrated in this example, "หลักกฎแห่งกรรม" was literally translated as "the law of volitional action". This law is Buddhist concept. Thai Buddhists believe that Action breeds reaction. Example 3:

Source Language: <u>โกรธแบบมีดกรีดหิน</u> เป็นโกรธชนิดที่ลืมไม่ลง

Target Language: <u>Anger comparable to a knife carving into a rock</u>, the kind of which never forgives and forgets.

In this example, Thai metaphor "โกรธแบบมีดกรีดทิน" was literally translated as "Anger comparable to a knife carving into a rock". <u>The translator used this strategy in order to retain Thai</u> <u>metaphor in English version. However, the foreign readers can understand the meaning in the target language well</u>.

2. Paraphrase

Paraphrase was found in many types of cultural words and phrases as mentioned below.

2.1 Material culture

Example 4:

Source Language: ใน<u>กัมภีร์พระไตรปิฎก</u> พระพุทธเจ้าทรงแสดงกุศโลบายกลายโกรธเอาไว้มากมายหลายวิธี กรูขอแปลและรวบรัคคัด กวามมาให้เธออ่านเฉพาะที่กรูเห็นว่าน่าจะนำมาประยุกต์ใช้ได้ง่าย ๆ กับกนทั่วไปเท่านั้นนะ

Target Language: In the *Pali scripture*, the Buddha delineates a number of means to quell, anger. I'd like to translate and summarise some parts which I have found practical for laymen.

This example showed that religious material culture "กัมกีร์พระไตรปิฎก" was translated as "Pali scripture". The translator tried to explained the characteristic of this scripture to the foreign readers. This scripture is important in the Buddhists because it contains many Buddha's teachings.

2.2 Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts

Example 5:

Source Language: <u>เดินจงกลม</u> (คือ เดินกลับไปกลับมาตั้งแต่ค่อย ๆ เดิน แล้วก็เพิ่มความเร็วมากขึ้นก็ได้)

Target Language: <u>*Pace meditatively*</u> (Pacing to and fro, starting from a slow pace and increasing the speed.)

In this example, religious activity "Mutanau" was translated as "pace meditatively". The translator tried to explain this activity by adding "meditatively" in the English translated version. Pace meditatively is one of the ways to practice meditation in Buddhist.

2.3 Gestures and habits

Example 6:

Source Language: เธอควรจะ<u>พั่งขัดสมาธิ</u>ในที่ที่สงบพอสมควร แล้วจึงเอาเท้าขวาวางทับเท้าซ้าย มือขวาทับมือซ้าย ตั้งกายให้ตรง คำรงสติ ให้มั่น ต่อจากนั้นเอาจิตมาจคจ่อกับฉมหายใจเข้าและลมหายใจออกของตัวเอง

Target Language: Find a place where you can sit in relative peace. <u>Sit in a lotus position</u>, legs folded on flat ground, with your right foot over your left, your right hand over your left. Sit up straight. Try to stay focused and unwavering. Then, set your mind to the rhythm of your breathing. In and out.

As shown in this example, "นั่งบัดสมาธิ" was translated as "sit in a lotus position". The translator tried to explain the characteristic of this position by comparing this position to the lotus in order that the readers can imagine the characteristic of this position.

3. The use of loan words

Loan words were found in many cultural terms as shown in the following examples.

3.1 Ecology

Example 7:

Source Language: ในการบรรขายแก่คณาจารย์และนิสิตแห่งมหาวิทยาลัยชื่อดังแห่งหนึ่งใน<u>กรุ*งเทพฯ*</u> เมื่อด้นปี พ.ศ.2546 ที่ผ่านมา ผู้เขียนเริ่มด้นบทบรรขายด้วยการถามว่า ''ในห้องประชุมนี้มีใครบ้างไหมที่ไม่เคยด้องทุกข์ใจเพราะกวามโกรธ''

Target Language: In a recent lecture to an audience consisting of faculty members and students at a prominent university in <u>Bangkok</u> in early 2003, I started my lecture by posing the question: "In this learned assembly, is there anyone who has not suffered from anger?"

The city name "Bangkok" was borrowed in English translated version. This term was familiar.

3.2 Material culture

Example 8:

Source Language: ในระหว่างที่กรูกำลังเขียนเรื่องกุศโลบายกลายโกรธอยู่นี้ เผอิญกรูอ่านพบ<u>พระสูตร</u>ถึงสองสูตรในพระไตรปิฎกซึ่งเป็น เรื่องที่ว่าด้วยกุศโลบายกลายโกรธโดยเฉพาะ

Target Language: While researching on my writing about anger management, I came across two *suttas* in the Pali Canon exclusively on the tactic of quelling anger.

This example revealed that "W52g95" was translated as "suttas". This cultural term was borrowed in the target language in order to retain Thai cultural word. Suttas are important scriptures because they contain many Buddha's teachings.

3.3 Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts Example 9:

Example 9. Source Language: เพราะฉะนั้น<u>พระอรทันต์ผู้</u>หมดตัวกูแล้ว ท่านถึงไม่เคยต่อล้อต่อเถียงหรือโกรธกับใครเขาทั้งโลกเลยยังไงล่ะ

Target Language: Hence the <u>arahants</u> who rid themselves of their "I's" find no cause for dispute or conflict with anyone in the world.

The religious status "พระอรทันด์" was translated as "arahants". This cultural term "arahants" which was defined as <u>the last stage to nibbana</u> was borrowed in the target language in order to retain Thai cultural term in the English translated version.

4. Cultural substitution

Cultural substitution was found in Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts. (See the following example.)

Example 10:

Source Language: ครู*ขี่ม้าเลียบค่าย*มาหลายฉบับแล้ว

Target Language: I *have* so far *beaten around the bush* in my previous letters.

5. Addition

Addition was found in many types of cultural terms as discussed below.

5.1 Material culture

Example 11

Source Language: อีกอย่างหนึ่งที่กรูใคร่ขอชี้แจงไว้ตรงนี้ก็คือพระพุทธพจน์ทั้งหมดนั้น กรูไม่ได้แปลมาชนิดกำต่อกำ แต่กรูเก็บความเอามา เรียงร้อยใหม่ต่างหาก ถ้าหากเธอสนใจว่าพระพุทธพจน์แต่ละตอนอยู่ตรงพระสูตรไหน หน้าไหนของพระไตรปิฎกละก็ ขอให้เธอบอกมาได้เลย กรู ยินดีจะบอกที่มาให้เธอไปก้นต่อได้ทันที

Target Language: I'd like to explain here also that I did not translate literally all the teachings of the Buddha. Rather, I paraphrased them. If you are interested in knowing from which suttas (*sections*) and what pages of the Pali canon the excerpts are extracted, just let me know. I'd be glad to oblige and locate them, so that you can look them up further.

This example revealed that "พระสูตร" was translated as "suttas". The word "sections" was added in order to give more information and to explain the meaning of "suttas".

5.2 Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts

Example 12:

Source Language: อย่างไรก็ตาม ในขณะที่พระบรมศาสคาไม่กริ้วตอบเลยนั้น ผู้ที่ติดตามมาเป็นพระปัจฉาสมณะ (โดยเสค็จ) ของพระองก์ ซึ่งยังเป็นพระอริยบุคคลชั้นต้น (<u>โสดาบัน</u>) อย่างพระอานนท์พุทธอนุชากลับรู้สึกขัดเคืองและอับอายขายหน้าอยู่ไม่น้อย

Target Language: However, while the Buddha took no offence, His retinue who were still in the preliminary stage of <u>sotāpanna</u> (the first of <u>the four stages</u> to nibbana), such as the Venerable Ananda, who was the Buddha's half-brother, felt indignant and humiliated.

In this example, "the four stages" was added in order to explain the meaning and to give more information about <u>"sotāpanna". It helps the foreign readers better understand Thai cultural term</u>.

6. Omission

Omission was found in Organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts as shown in the following example.

Example 13:

Source Language: ภิกษุปุถุชนที่อยู่ในสังฆสมาคมได้ยินพระสารีบุตร ซึ่งตามธรรมดาพระบรมศาสดาทรงยกย่องให้ท่านเป็นพระธรรม เสนาบดี เป็น<u>กระ*บี่มือสอง*</u>รองจากพระองค์และทรงแต่งตั้งในฐานะพระอัครสาวกฝ่ายขวาผู้มีปัญญาเป็นเอกเหนือกว่าสาวกทั้งปวง ทั้งยังเป็นดุจ

"เชษฐโอรส" ของพระบรมครู แต่เมื่อผู้ยิ่งใหญ่ถึงเพียงนั้นยังเปรียบดัวเองต่ำด้อยถึงเพียงนี้แล้ว ก็ถึงกับสังเวชสลดใจน้ำตาไหลซึมหน่วยตาไปตาม ๆ กัน

Target Language: Hearing the Venerable Sariputra, regarded by the Buddha as His right-hand minister whose wisdom and insight surpassed all other disciples, as well as His prominent

successor in Dhamma, the yet-to-be-enlightened monks in the assembly felt so sad that they shed tears for him for assessing himself so lowly. Meanwhile, the venerable ones resolved to feel pity for human nature.

In this example, the idiom "กระบี่มือสอง" was omitted in the target language. Although this idiom was not found in the English translated version, the foreign readers can understand the meaning by observing the context in the target language.

Conclusion and Discussion

The purposes of this study are to categorize the cultural words and phrases and to analyse the strategies of translating these cultural words and phrases from Thai into English. Both Thai and English versions of *Anger Management: How to Deal with Your Anger and Sleep Soundly* were selected in this study. Thai version, "*Dhammalapsabai*", was written by W. Vajiramedhi in 2004 and "*Anger Management: How to Deal with Your Anger and Sleep Soundly*" in English version was translated by Nopamat Veohong in 2005. Besides, Thai version was got Chamnong Thongpraseart Foundation award for spreading Buddhism.

In terms of cultural word and phrase categorizations, the results consisted of (1) ecology, (2) material culture, (3) organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts, and (4) gestures and habits. The results revealed many translation strategies: (1) literal translation found in ecology, and concepts, (2) paraphrase found in material culture, activities, gestures and habits, (3) the use of loan words found in ecology, material culture, and concepts, (4) cultural substitution found in concepts, (5) addition found in material culture and concepts (6) omission found in concepts.

Like Baker (2005), the results of this study reveal many translation strategies including translation by paraphrase, using loan words, omission, and cultural substitution.

In some cases, the translator uses different strategies for translating some cultural words. For example, "n5511" in Thai was literally translated as "action". In addition, "kamma" was borrowed in English translated version.

Some cultural term translations are employed more than one strategies. For instance, "กัมภีร์วิสุทธิ มรรค" was translated as "Visuddhimagga scripture". It includes translation by using loan word and literal translation.

This study has some implications for translation teachers, and professional translators in providing guidance for teaching or translating these Thai cultural words or phrases into English. In addition, this study is essential for foreign readers to have a better understanding of Thai culture. Further studies can be conducted to explore similarities and differences of translation strategies between various translators and methodologically could adopt both quantitative and qualitative data analysis.

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