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**Reclaiming Language,
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for a Sustainable Society**

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The 8th International Conference on Language and Communication

"Reclaiming Language, Communication and Culture for a Sustainable Society"

Preface

The proceedings of the International Conference on Language and Communication 2017 is an internationally peer-reviewed conference proceedings publication which aims to be the source promoting contributions of a variety of researchers' perspectives in "Reclaiming Language, Communication and Culture for a Sustainable Society".

On behalf of the organizing committee and editorial board, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to all ICLC 2017 participants, paper reviewers and GSLC staff for their hard work and effort in these academically valuable proceedings.

Hiroki Goto

Editor, ICLC 2017 Proceedings

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Perception of College EFL Thai Students on how a proposed Autonomous Learning Model helped them learn English Final Sound Pronunciation

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Abstract

This study examined the perceptions of four Thai EFL college students, regarding a proposed autonomous learning model based on Holec's (1979) principles of autonomous learning. The students voluntarily took part in the study by spending twelve weeks learning problematic English final sounds. Following the model, they set their own learning objectives, selected their own learning materials and strategies, and monitor their own learning progress. Data were collected from their learning records, pronunciation results, and interviews. The analysis revealed the participants' positive perception of the learning process to enhance their pronunciation learning which was consistent with their improved pronunciation scores. The model was perceived to help the participants become aware of their own learning, improve of self-discipline and manage their time despite difficulties in selecting materials and evaluating their learning. The Findings suggest that the practicality of the model and learners' development to be autonomous learners in an EFL context.

Keywords: autonomous learning; independent learning, pronunciation, final sounds

Introduction

The Office of National Education Commission (ONEC) proposes learner-center approach to foster independence in learning (ONEC, 2001) in order to fulfil the government expectation to help learners become autonomous learners as part of the curriculum reform (National Education Act 1999). Learner-center approach underscores the roles of learners as active individuals who shape their learning for self-development and fulfilment (Reinders, 2010). The approach is conceptually related to autonomous learning and self-directed learning. Autonomous learning as defined by Holec (1979) is the ability to take charge of one's own learning, and it has been elaborated to encompass learners' decision making in planning for their own learning based on their needs, interests and aptitudes, and their strengths and weaknesses (Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 1995b, 2000; Dickinson, 1994; Little, 1991; Littlewood, 1999).

Autonomous learning principles are specifically introduced to the field of language learning because previous research suggested that such learning enhances learners' language proficiency and other learning skills including problems-solving, self-assessment, and learning management. Studies also show that autonomous learning leads to learners' positive attitude towards learning, confidence, and high motivation in language learning due to the responsibility learners take for their own learning (Anantasate, 2001; Cotterall, 2000; Khomson, 1997; Sophocleous, 2013; Yarahmadzehi & Bazleh, 2012). The learning process supports individual language learning needs and differences (Cotterall, 2000; Dickinson, 1994). Moreover, autonomous learners tend to be more efficient in language learning compared to those who are not autonomous learners (Benson, 2001).

In the field of English language teaching, the implementation of autonomous learning has been a part of language curricula and learner training, with attention focused on reading, writing, and listening skills. Motivated by this gap, the study was set to explore how autonomous learning principles could be implemented outside classroom with an emphasis on pronunciation of English final sounds as a part of speaking skills (Bygate, 1987) which has been shown to be a challenge for Thai EFL learners (Choong, 2014; Janklai, 2014; Khamkhien, 2010b; Pasaree, 2008; Tanthanis, 2013).

Objective

In order to respond to the national education policy and to implement the concept of autonomous learning in pronunciation, the present study proposed a model based on Holec's (1979) autonomous learning principles. The overall objective of the study was to find out how the

learners perceived the proposed autonomous learning model.

Literature Review

Autonomous Learning and Language Learning

In general, autonomous learning allows learners to be in charge of their own learning (Holec, 1979). According to Holec (1979) autonomous learners do the following by themselves:

1. establish their own learning objectives after finding out about their problematic final sounds from pretest results;
2. determine learning content by choosing learning materials suitably for their proficiency level;
3. choose learning methods and techniques based on their previous learning experience, and their own preferred learning styles;
4. monitor their own learning process concerning time, place, and pace of learning; and
5. determine ways to track their own learning progress, evaluate the learning outcomes, and adjust their learning process to be more effective and suitable for their own learning situations.

Autonomous learning is introduced into language classrooms in order to enhance learning and to address individual differences among students (Aleglado, Bradley & Lane 1996; Anantasate, 2001; Cotterall, 2000; Dickinson 1994; Nunan, 1996; Wenden, 1991). Autonomous learning skills provide those with limited time and conditions to access formal language instruction as alternative plans for their learning (Dickinsin, 1994) while also helping learners seek exposure to language outside classroom which is necessary for language learning especially when the school cannot provide learners with a sufficient learning environment (Cotterall, 2000).

Autonomous learning helps address individual differences among language learners. Autonomous learning provides learners with chances to learn independently; different learners can work together to complete the same task employing different approaches according to their learning aptitudes and learning styles (Areglado et. al, 1996; Cotterall, 2000; Dickinson, 1994). This way, learners are likely to have a chance to investigate types of cognitive styles and learning strategies which they prefer or deem fit in their learning. Autonomous learning can also enhance motivation (Areglado et. al, 1996; Cotterall, 2000; Dickinson, 1994; Nunan, 1996; Wenden, 1991) because autonomous learners can determine and control their own learning process, choose

materials they want to learn, and ways in which they can learn by themselves (Wenden, 1991). When learners take charge of their own learning, they can gain confidence and become more motivated in learning (Areglado et al, 1996; Cotterall, 2000; Dickinson, 1994).

Although there are some slight variations in the definitions and principles of autonomous learning, the present study employed Holec's (1979) principles because the other frameworks or definitions were developed or modified to accommodate classroom curricular which may have different contextual factors. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, Holec's principles of autonomous learning have not been previously implemented; therefore, it would be interesting to see how these principles could be used in an EFL context.

English Final Sound Pronunciation

Unclear pronunciation can lead to communication problems such as misunderstanding, stress, and anxiety which are common among Thai EFL learners (Khamkhien, 2010a; Prommak; 2012).Pronunciation problems and learning of the target language pronunciation have been shown to be affected by individual learners' personal factors. These factors include influences of native language or L1 (Avery and Ehrlich, 1998; Brown, 1994; Janklai, 2014; Prommak, 2012; Pasaree, 2008; Tanthanis, 2013), attitude and motivation (Khamkhien, 2010a; Prommak, 2012), and exposure to target language (Brown, 1994; Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1995). A native language can cause difficulties for EFL learners to mispronounce English words when they use their L1 pronouncing rules to pronounce L2 despite the differences in the two sound systems (Avery & Ehrlich, 1998; Brown, 1994; Janklai, 2014; Prommak, 2012; Pasaree, 2008; Tanthanis, 2013). Attitude and motivation of learners toward the target language they are learning affect their pronunciation when the learners are opened to learn something challenging or are willing to take risk at learning (Prommak, 2012). As maintained by Brown (1994), the quality and intensity of exploring and practicing language used in authentic environment is crucial for successful learning of L2 pronunciation which in real life, EFL learners lack such an opportunity.

As one of the benefits of autonomous learning is to address individual learners' differences, and a factor that affects foreign language pronunciation is relating to individual needs, the researcher conducted this study to enhance the participants' autonomous learning in order to improve their pronunciation of some final English sounds.

Methodology

Context of the Study

The study was conducted as a single project outside classroom, where the participants studied independently by themselves during a semester of 2017 academic year. The study was not part of any formal instruction. The project lasted a semester (15 weeks).

Participants and Recruitment Criteria

The study was conducted in a public university in Thailand, where the participants were recruited based on their: 1) level of study; 2) willingness and commitment to participate throughout the study; and 3) willingness to improve their English pronunciation.

Four Thai undergraduate students volunteered to participate in the study. Three of them were studying at the Faculty of Liberal Arts (two were second year students majoring in Thai language; and the other was fourth year student majoring in English language). The other was a fourth year student from the Faculty of Management. All the participants had studied English for 12-16 years. Pseudonyms were assigned to each of the participants.

Table 1: The participants' academic information

Name	Age	Program and year of study	Years of studying English
Jennie	20	2nd year Liberal Arts, Thai major	13
Jesoo	20	2nd year Liberal Arts, Thai major	13
Rose	22	4th year Faculty of Management	13
Liza	22	4th year Liberal Arts, English major	16

Research Tools

A Proposed Autonomous Learning Model

Figure 1 shows an autonomous learning model proposed based on Holec's (1979) autonomous learning principles.

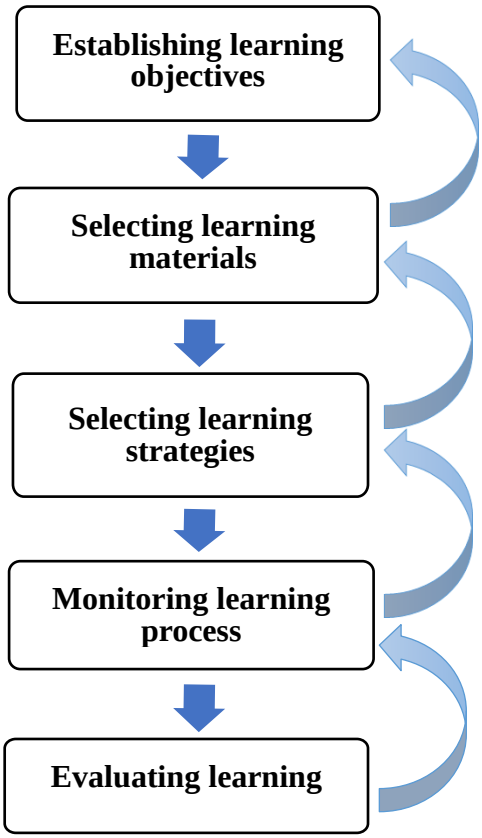

Figure 1: A proposed autonomous learning model

The arrows show the continual process of reorganizing and changing the learning process as a cycle. Before carrying out the learning process, the participants initially established their learning objectives, and then moved along the learning process. After the completion of evaluation process, they could establish new objectives, change and adjust their learning process to fit the new learning objectives. Once they have achieved the established learning goals, they could set new objectives and repeat the same learning process.

A Pronunciation Test

In order to find out about pronunciation problems and to establish their own learning objectives, the participants took a pronunciation test developed by the researcher derived from studies by Janklai's (2014) and Pasaree's (2008). The test contains 49 words and 10 sentences, included 18 final sounds identified by Janklai's (2014) and Pasaree's (2008) as problematic for Thai learners based on their previous research studies (see Appendix A). To complete the test, the participants read aloud all the items, and had their voice recorded by the researcher. Three native English-speaker teachers scored the voice recorded in order to give the participants feedback on the

sounds that they pronounced right or wrong. The researcher revealed the test result to each individual participant in order for them to establish learning objectives that cover the learning of each individual's problematic sounds.

Records of the Participants' Learning

Each of the participants was given a copy of an autonomous learning guide book which is based on Holec's (1979) autonomous learning principles. The learning guide required the participants to keep records of their autonomous learning including weekly learning plan, anticipated time to be spent on learning, materials used, learning notes, and reflective journals.

Semi-structured Interview Guideline

A semi-structured interview guideline was developed to gather data on the participants' perception of the proposed autonomous learning model. The interview questions aimed to encourage the participants to reflect on their learning, autonomy, processes involved in the learning, satisfaction, and dissatisfaction. The researcher piloted the guideline, and revised it prior to the final interview (see Appendix B)

Data Collection

Data were collected throughout the semester following the proposed model. In the first week, the participants took a pronunciation test, met with researcher to get the test result, and received an orientation on the concept of autonomous learning process. The participants then established their learning objectives based on the test results. Then they started planning their first autonomous learning together with one of the researchers. From weeks two to thirteen, the participants learned their pronunciation as they had planned. They followed the learning steps as described in the proposed model (Figure 1) for 12 weeks. The following is the autonomous learning process which the participants had to make decisions about their own learning.

Determining Learning Objectives

After the participants received their test results, they chose when they would learn specific final sound(s) for each week. For instance, if they had problem with /m/, /n/, /t/, /d/ final sounds, they could plan to learn only two sounds in the first week. Later, when they found that they had improved the two sounds, they could move on to work for other sounds. If they did not improve the specified sounds, they could spend more time learning the same sounds.

Determining Learning Materials

After setting their learning objectives, the participants determined learning contents. While they were searching for learning materials, they had to analyze the materials to ensure that the materials covered the target final sounds in accordance with the established study plan. For example, if they choose to learn from a song, they would analyze whether that song contained their target final sounds. The participants could search for their learning materials from the Internet resources, libraries or any resources of their own choice.

Learning Strategies and Techniques

All of the participants were responsible for finding strategies they found appropriate for their learning. They applied techniques of listening and repeating what they had heard word by word, reading aloud a text, and learning pronunciation techniques or theories from textbooks. For example, the participants could learn by noting down words or sentences that they found containing their target final sounds from the movie. Then, they repeated those words after the characters, and recorded their voice for evaluation.

Time, Pace, and Space of Study

The participants could be flexible in scheduling time for studying to avoid conflicts of the schedules for their class attendance and their lives in general. They could also set their own study pace and suitable environment.

Learning Monitoring and Evaluation

While the participants monitored their own learning progress, the researcher supported them by cooperating with several English native speakers to listen to the recordings of the participants' voice pronouncing the words, phrases, or sentences containing the target final sounds to give them feedback. With the feedback, the participants decided to continue working on the same sounds or on the new sounds. They also changed learning strategies or kept the same learning strategies based on how they found the strategies usefulness, helpfulness or effectiveness.

During this stage, the participants met the researcher every other week with their records of learning to keep up with their study and their wellness, and to ensure their following of the proposed model. In the last week of data collection, the final interviews were conducted to find out about the participants' perception of the autonomous learning process for the twelve weeks of learning. Each interview took approximately 30-45 minutes.

Data Analysis

The participants' records of learning and the interview data were analyzed using open and axial coding techniques suggested by Corbin and Strauss (1990), and the analyzed data were cross-checked with the participants' final pronunciation test results. The topics of enhancement, improvement, and problems formed three major themes revealing the participants' perceptions on the proposed model.

Results

To improve their final sounds pronunciation, the participants studied by themselves following the model for twelve weeks. The participants learned more about English pronunciation, English language, and about their own learning. They became aware of their own strengths and weaknesses in learning, and the importance of self-disciplines, and time management. However, they perceived they needed some assistance from teachers and experts on their autonomous learning.

The participants' perception of the model is categorized into 3 major themes: 1) enhancement of pronunciation learning; 2) improvement of self-discipline and time management skills; and 3) learning problems.

Enhancement of Pronunciation Learning

The findings indicated the participants' positive perception on the model. This was consistent with their improved pronunciation test. The analysis revealed that all of the participants learned to use different learning techniques and strategies to fulfil their specific learning needs and interests, to expose themselves to authentic language, and to become aware of the effectiveness of the learning process. Following the model, they learned to make appropriate adjustments to achieve their goals and learn more.

The participants positively perceived that the model helped them learn more about English pronunciation

Jesoo's statement reflected her thought that the autonomous learning process helped her learn how to correctly pronounce the target sounds as well as some other final sounds:

> "For many final sounds, I think I have improvement because I have already learned how to pronounce them. Some were not my target sounds but I think I should do it

> better. I might have pronounced them right, but that could be better. The learning process helps me improve some other sounds too."

Similarly, Jennie said the autonomous learning process helped her learn how to pronounce the words she had not known how to pronounce, and became consciously aware of the pronunciation of words. In her words,

> "Once we knew, we practiced and learned how to pronounce this sound, we tended to pay more attention. Because now we know how to pronounce this final sound, we consciously try to pronounce the way it should be. We learn more about final sound pronunciation."

The participants perceived the process of searching for learning materials as a useful process to expand the choices of materials relevant to their needs, and increase the knowledge about English language. Two verbatim below illustrate part of the findings.

Jennie decided to use a textbook on English phonetics to guide her learning once she found the existence of knowledge about phonetics. As a result, she learned how to pronounce English words more correctly and effectively. Jennie noted:

> "I searched for studying materials at the Language Learning Center. I never even paid attention to get to know that there was a kind of book like that. That helped open my perspective. I felt like …'wow…there is a learning material like this'."

Jesoo found she learned well from a website containing lessons purposefully produced for teaching pronunciation, and she combined the lessons with clips from YouTube teaching pronunciation to kids. She also learned pronunciation techniques. Jesoo mentioned:

> "It must be this website that I found. It aims to specifically teach pronunciation. It teaches how to form the mouth to make sounds, but for practicing I use a clip from YouTube. The clip teaches kids how to pronounce words. The person in the clip speaks clearly and slowly, so I could see how sounds are correctly pronounced."

The participants perceived the model to enhance the use of different learning techniques and strategies to fulfil their specific learning needs and interests

The participants found that different types of materials provided different learning techniques and information. Different learning materials also required them to use different learning strategies. Exploring material resources and learning strategies enabled the participants to choose learning materials and strategies effectively in order to fulfil their specific learning needs and interests.

Rose's remark well illustrates that she could choose the type of materials that suit her learning style. She stated:

> "I chose the one that was suitable to me. Each person has different free time available, and different interests. Supposing that a teacher assigned a textbook for me to read, I would not want to take time to read. Now that I prefer to listen, I tend to choose listening materials. I feel like someone is explaining things to me, and I don't have to sit down and read."

The participants perceived that the model offered opportunities for them to expose themselves to authentic language in use

With the choices of movies and video clips, the participants learned how native speakers used specific expressions in real contexts, and how they interacted in the specific situations in real life.

Jesoo's comments on what she learned from a movie when she repeatedly watched it could reflect part of this finding.

> "Because the movie is long, I watched it for two days and bit by bit I learned more from it. When I watched it again, I focused on how the characters pronounced some words, how they said the whole sentences, in which scene the words or sentences were used, and I learned the meaning of them."

The participants perceived the process of evaluation of their learning outcomes as opportunities for them to reflect on what and how well they had learnt

Being aware of their weaknesses and strengths, the participants had ideas on when and how to change and adjust their learning process suitable for their learning situations.

A statement from Liza reflects the needs of adjustment of learning method to make her learning more effective. She remarked:

> "In the beginning, I read and recorded my voice, but I think it was not effective enough to practice pronouncing a single word. Later, I changed to use an online dictionary. I found it was very useful because I could practice pronouncing a word at a time. But, later, I found that such practice did not cover the pronunciation of complicated sounds. I rethought and found that that was not what I wanted yet. Even though when I changed from reading to practice with the online dictionary, I thought it worked. But after a while, I thought I need to change again. I think that I should not keep on practicing with that same method. Learning method should be adjusted according to the ability that has been improved."

This section has described how the participants positively perceived the model to enhance their learning of English pronunciation. The model was also perceived to help the participants improve their self-discipline in learning and time management.

Improvement of Self-discipline and Time Management in Learning

The participants perceived themselves to be more responsible and disciplined for their learning

With freedom to adjust and sequence their learning according to daily life situations, the participants consciously committed themselves to learn and resulting discipline for their own learning in order to push themselves forwards to learn.

Liza's statement shows the effects of autonomous learning on her learning behavior, responsibility, and time management. Liza stated:

> "It taught us to be a responsible person and to manage time. In the past, I never thought that I would have time to do something like this. But now, I could see that only 30 minutes a week, or 30 minutes in three days was really helpful. It was just that if I could just save time for it, I could surprisingly improve myself. This leads to responsibility to attain the established goals within that specified 30 minutes."

Problems in Learning Autonomously

Despite their positive perception of the model to enhance their learning of pronunciation, and

self-discipline in learning, the participants reported that they had difficulties on the issues of time allocation to achieve learning goals, to make judgment on selected materials, to choose appropriate learning strategies, and to evaluate their own learning.

The participants perceived to have problems with time allocation to achieve learning goals

Although they strictly followed their study plan, the participants came across situations that affected the time allocation in the plan. They either spent shorter or longer time than planned due to the difficulty of the sounds they were studying.

Liza's remark reflects this problem. She said:

> "I could not do it because I did not know when I would be able to do it. Supposing that I plan to be able to pronounce the final sound /ch/ in three weeks, I was unable to know if I would be able to do it before or after that. Some time, I had done it within the first week."

The participants had little confidence on the effectiveness and reliability of learning materials

Due to the availability and variety of types and resources, the participants did not know whether the materials they chose were effective or reliable when considered by experts. They expressed the needs of advice from teachers or experts in choosing learning resources and materials.

Jesoo mentioned this problem:

> "In my opinion, I thought these materials were good. I used them to practice, and they made me improve my pronunciation. However, I don't know how the experts think about these materials. Are they appropriate for my practice?"

The participants had difficulty in choosing appropriate learning strategies

All participants employed similar learning strategies such as listening and repeating what they had heard, reading aloud, and learning pronunciation techniques or theories from textbooks. Even though they perceived techniques to adequately improve their pronunciation, they were unsure if the techniques were good enough to make them reach their learning goals. Through material searching process, they became aware of the existence of more learning strategies beyond their knowledge. Therefore, they felt the need of advice and instructions from teachers or experts.

Jennie's comment on her learning reflects problems of her use of learning strategies:

> "I only practiced by pronouncing, which I didn't know whether that was effective. I had no idea what I should do, so I just noted down vocabulary and practiced pronouncing. I think that there may be other ways to do it, but I just don't know what to do."

The participants had difficulty with the evaluation of their own learning

The participants were reluctant to assess their learning outcomes and progress because they considered their current level of English language proficiency inadequate to detect some serious mistakes. These made them lack confidence to self-evaluate for fear that the results of the evaluation could reflect neither their real proficiency nor their learning development. They needed teachers to confirm their accomplishment of the learning.

Liza's statement reflects her ability to detect mistakes in her pronunciation. Liza noted:

> "To pronounce accurately, we need to listen well. If we don't, we won't be able to do it. There were little sounds at the end of the syllable, which my ears could not catch. That made me pronounced only what I heard. For those sounds, I had always been wrong. I was able to realize that I had always pronounced those sounds wrong only after someone pointed out the mistakes for me."

Discussion and Implications

The findings of this study correspond to those of previous studies indicating that autonomous learning model could enhance the learners' language skills, and other aspects in learning. The participants perceived that they could improve their final sounds pronunciation, and had positive attitudes toward the success of their learning by themselves. In addition, they gained awareness of their learning process, had higher motivation, and became more self-disciplined in learning. (Anantasate, 2001; Areglado et. al, 1996; Cotterall, 2000; Dickinson, 1994; Khomson, 1997; Nunan, 1996; Sophocleous, 2013; Wenden, 1991; Yarahmadzehi & Bazleh, 2012).

In general, the findings from previous and current studies demonstrate the effectiveness of autonomous learning to improve language learning, and other skills. Moreover, the findings of the study also indicated the participants' change of learning role and attitudes, the practicality

of the autonomous learning model to be used by students in real-life setting, and the possibility to promote autonomous learning to Thai learners.

Freedom in Learning

Generally, Thai learners do not have freedom to make decisions on their own learning in formal language classroom because teacher usually takes those responsibilities (Noomura, 2013). However, in autonomous learning, the participants had freedom to control their learning by themselves. This freedom entails changes of the participants' role in learning, and their attitudes toward learning.

In the study, the participants took responsibility to control their learning process. Therefore, they took a more active role in learning than in a formal classroom. During the autonomous learning process, the participants came to realize that it was their duty to take responsibility for their learning because no one pushes them to learn nor provide knowledge for them. They perceived that to gain knowledge, they had to control their learning by themselves. The findings corresponded to what Benson (2001), Dickinson (1994) and Holec (1979) suggested that autonomous learners would be aware of their change of role in learning, and tried to come to term with this changing.

Moreover, by having freedom to decide what to do with their learning, the participants perceived the learning to address their personal learning needs and interests. This increased their learning motivation. This finding is related to Cotterall's (1995a, 2000) and Dickinson's (1994) suggestions that learners were aware of their own learning needs, preferences and interests, and each individual had their own learning styles. Therefore, to effectively learn something, the learners should have freedom to choose their preferred ways to learn, and they would have more motivation in learning (Benson, 2001; Wenden, 1991).

When the participants had freedom to take an active role and manipulate their learning, they had sense of ownership for their learning (Dickinson, 1994). According to Benson (2001), when learners own their learning, they would pay more attention, put more efforts, and take more responsibility to their learning. More importantly, the participants also learned that to gain knowledge there are many things to explore and learning is not limited to classrooms where they are dependent on their teachers. These realizations are good qualities for autonomous learners (Benson, 2001; Dickinson, 1994; Holec, 1979). The findings indicated the participants' willingness, motivation and positive perceptions towards autonomous learning and indicate the

possibility to promote autonomous learning to Thai learners especially in English language learning (Areglado et. al, 1996; Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 2000; Dickinson, 1994; Holec, 1979).

Learner's Confidence to Learn Autonomously

In previous studies (ex. Anantasate, 2001; Chaythong, 2009; Yarahmadzehi & Bazleh, 2012), autonomous learning model was implemented only in formal language courses where learners did not have to control every steps of learning process by themselves. However, the participants in the study independently employed autonomous learning model to improve their pronunciation in real life context. Even though they perceived they could control their own autonomous learning to some extent, they also perceived the learning was challenging for them, and expressed the needs of assistance from teachers.

The explanation must be that prior to the participation in this study, the participants rarely had chance to make decisions on their learning. Therefore, when they had to control their learning by themselves outside classroom, they had not much confidence. Benson (2001) and Dickinson (1994) explained that the learners might perceive themselves to learn autonomously; however, they still needed assistance from their teachers because they were neither familiar with the learning nor were confidence in their own ability. Therefore, to effectively promote Thai learners' ability to learn autonomously, as part of classroom instruction, learners should be equipped with skills and knowledge of how to control their own learning independently (Benson, 2001).

The findings indicated that the participants had little confidence to fully learn autonomously. However, at the end, the participants could successfully independently control their own learning to improve English final sound pronunciation. The findings suggest that Thai EFL learners are able to learn autonomously with some guidelines or basic understanding of the principles coupled with teachers' occasional feedback.

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APPENDIX A

FINAL SOUNDS PRONUNCIATION TESTS

(SINGLE WORD)

acquire	figure	program
appreciate	first	provide
architect	flight	representative
arrive	foreign	retire
bored	fourth	rich
campaign	helpdesk	schedule
chance	interrupt	small
children	introduce	smooth
commercial	journalist	suggest
consultant	language	swim
design	large	then
discuss	laugh	trial
English	lecturer	twice
enough	married	watch
entire	milk	with
envelope	produce	young
exchange		

FINAL SOUNDS PRONUNCIATION TESTS

(WORDS IN SENTENCES)

1. Bob is on top of the shark tank.
2. They picked a big pig on top of a mountain.
3. She is telling her Mom to change ships.
4. Zue is fighting for a fair exchange.
5. Christ has revealed the truth that he is in love with our senior.
6. Eight girls thought that they were really cool.
7. I dreamed that I had sung a song saying that I wanted you to be mine.
8. They claim that we can take back time.
9. I dare to say that this movie is really ridiculous.
10. She will fill out the form for me.

APPENDIX B

FINAL SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDELINE

Final Semi-Structured Interview Guideline

1. From the first to the week 15th, do you think that joining the project helps you to develop your English pronunciation? Why?
2. Are you satisfied with your pre-test and post-test results? Why?
3. What are your opinions toward these following process?
    a. To determining your own learning objectives by yourself
    b. To determine your own learning materials by yourself
    c. To monitor your learning process accordingly to your learning plan
    d. To determine your learning progress by yourself
    e. To evaluate your learning process and outcomes by yourself
    f. To collect the various types of learning materials
    g. To write the reflective journals of your own learning in each week
    h. To attend bi-weekly meeting with the researcher
4. During the project, do you think that the researcher give you the adequate amount of advice or barely give any at all? Why? Should the researcher play more role or reduce her role? Why?
5. Besides the development of pronunciation, do you think autonomous learning have any benefits in other aspects?
6. After the project, will you still employ autonomous learning process for your study in the future? How? Why?

Additional questions

1. What are main advantages or disadvantages of being an autonomous learner?
2. What could be practical implications of being an autonomous learner?
3. What could be suggested as possible solutions to those problems?

Documentary Research on Authentic Video Materials in English Language Listening Classrooms

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Abstract

This documentary research examined the available scholarly-referred experimental research studies on authentic video materials to explore the use of these materials in the formal listening classrooms. In this research, 29 published articles were utilized, in the higher education contexts, with the aim to employ the authentic video materials to develop foreign language listening skills. The content analysis, suggested by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007), was employed to analyze the sampled documents. Findings revealed how authentic video materials were used. The display of subtitles was found to have significant effects on students' learning. The display of subtitles was also found to be monitored and controlled either by the teachers or the students to address their individual learning needs. Furthermore, the instruction of authentic video materials was found to follow the common three steps involving pre-viewing, while-viewing, and post-viewing of the materials. The analysis yielded rich data on strategies and techniques on authentic video-based instruction. Findings also suggested pedagogical implications in listening instruction.

***Keywords*:** authentic video materials, listening, listening skills

Introduction

The issue concerning authentic video materials has been one of the topics in the spotlight in the area of language teaching for over three decades (Garza, 1991; Guillory, 1997; Martinez, 2010; Park, 2004; Vanderplank, 1988; Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010). A large number of research on authentic materials have been conducted in the field of second and foreign language teaching. Based on a primary survey of the research involving the use of authentic video materials, the current researcher found that plenty of empirical evidence from the actual classroom to indicate the practical use and profits of authentic video materials in listening skills and other English language skills improvement. Due to such an initial finding, the present researcher decided to conduct an extensive and systematic review of the previous research on authentic video materials with a specific focus on listening skills development for a better understanding of contributions of such materials.

Listening skills were the focused in the study based on the fact that listening is very hard and challenging to learn and master (Richards, 1985; Ur, 1984). In Thailand, where English is used as a foreign language in particular, students only study listening from commercially available audio materials adhered with textbooks. As a result, Thai students lack opportunities to listen to authentic speeches and expressions in the real world. In addition, the significance of listening skills development is one of the central pedagogical concerns in a second language acquisition where the authentic videos have played a vital role in past three decades (Apitz, 2008 Gruba, 2009; Herron & Seay, 1991). Consequently, this became the rationale underlying this present study to focus specifically on foreign language listening skills.

Objective

This current study aims to review and interpret the available published research studies on authentic video materials to find out about the practical and effective use of these materials in the real listening language classrooms. Insights from the study could inform the practitioners, such as teachers, educators, and researchers, how to make use of the knowledge on practical implementation of authentic video materials as pedagogical tools in teaching listening, training teachers, and conducting further research.

Statement of the Problem

Based upon the researcher's primary survey of a number of available published documents on the use of authentic video materials in ESL/EFL listening classes, authentic video materials were

found to vary in terms of genres (fiction: films, TV series; and non-fiction: TV news, and documentaries), types of task (one-way and two-way communications), language (formal and informal), display of subtitles (L1 and L2), presentations (real human and animations), contents (topics, academic and non-academic, and themes, relating and not relating to real life), length (3 minutes to 3 hours), and producers (native and non-native speakers of the target language or L2: British, American, German, Spanish). With the variety described, the compatibility of the selected studies was questionable. To address this issue and to ascertain that all the selected studies could be analyzed and synthesized together in order to answer the research questions, the researcher employed theoretical notion of the Dual-Coding Theory and the concept of authenticity as bases for categorizing materials selected as data for this study.

Theoretical Framework

Dual-Coding Theory

The first concept used as a theoretical basis to assure the compatibility of authentic video materials in the sampled documents is the Dual Coding Theory or DCT proposed by Paivio (1971). According to DCT, materials which comprise of both verbal and visual elements could activate the human processing system to decode the information more effectively. As a result of the dual channel activation, the information would be processed in a more elaborative way resulting in longer retention and easier recall and retrieval (Paivio, 1971, 1986). The authentic video materials, which include films, TV series, news, and documentaries in the samples studied, all have the audio and visual components as stated in the DCT. Despite different genres and other different features, the auditory and visual attributes in the authentic videos could still be compatible to a certain degree which has the possibility to yield similar and relevant data to address the research questions.

Text Authenticity

The concept of authenticity was also used as a theoretic criterion to assure that the selected documents are comparable for data analysis. According to the principle of text authenticity, the materials that are not specifically produced for language teaching purposes but for real communication purposes would be considered as authentic materials (Breen, 1985; Lee, 1995). In addition, if the texts are created by native speakers and targeted at native audiences, those texts are considered authentic in terms of the source and origin of the materials (Lee, 1995). When referred to the theory, the selected studies that adopted authentic video materials would be

able to be compared and analyzed together through the properties of text authenticity.

Literature Review

Authentic Video Materials

Authentic video material is defined as a multisensory text comprising of contiguous, dynamic, and interwoven sounds and visuals (Meinhof, 1998). Sounds here are referred to any auditory and aural input including the speaker's voices, background music or songs, or even disturbing extraneous noises such as passing cars, footsteps or phone ringing (Meinhof, 1998; Peacock, 1997). Visual messages include still and motion pictures, images, texts (subtitles or captions), graphics, and all non-verbal behaviors and actions of the speakers, such as body language, facial expressions, eye movement, and social settings (Secules, Herron, & Tomasello, 1992). These visual inputs provide paralinguistic cues of the spoken texts whose meanings may vary a great deal according to the individual's interpretations (Secules et al., 1992). Moreover, the existence of the visual components allows viewers to witness the dynamics of interactions and the contexts and social situations. According to Stempleski and Arcario (1992), this is categorized as "authentic video materials" because the audio and visual features of these materials either simulates or reflects the real world in one way or another.

The authentic video materials could be in the forms of different types of multimedia presented on TV or on the Internet, which include movies, commercials, talk shows, TV series, sitcoms, music videos, documentaries, and news. These genres of materials are defined as videos (Katchen, 2002; Massi & Merino, 1996), videotexts (Meinhof, 1998; Secules et al., 1992), audio-visual materials (Fakhr, 2016; Melvin & Stout, 1987), or authentic video materials (Stempleski, 1992). All these terms mean and represent the same thing. Given meaningful audio and visual texts, authentic video materials can be produced as the straight entertaining tools or conveyers of factual information, requiring the viewers to receive or extract the meanings out of what they hear and see.

As the terms applied in this study, authentic video materials include movies, TV dramas, TV news, and documentaries, which the researchers in the selected studies used in listening classrooms.

Previous Documentary Research on Authentic Video Material

From an extensive survey of literature on authentic video materials, only one document-based research has been found. This research was done by Perez, Noortgate and Desmet (2013)

employing meta-analysis approach to investigate the effects of captioned video on L2 listening and vocabulary learning. The study focused exclusively on L2 subtitles and excluded the studies that were purely descriptive and ones that concerned L1 subtitles or reversed subtitles. A total of 18 studies with L2 subtitles both in authentic and non-authentic video materials was selected for a quantitative measure to calculate the effect sizes. Thus, the study only provided a statistical data of the overall effects of L2 subtitles on L2 listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. A statistically significant large effect of L2 captioning on listening and vocabulary learning was found. The findings also empirically supported earlier research findings on the positive effects of captioned video. Captioning of videos was suggested to be considered a powerful tool for promoting students' comprehension of video materials since it could ensure a conscious monitoring of speech stream and support word recognition and retention.

Methodology

A total number of 29 research studies were retained for the preliminary and final analyses. The research was recruited based on the theoretical and established criteria for the document selection.

Criteria for Document Selection

At the preliminary stage, the researcher employed the four criteria of documentary research: 1) authenticity, 2) credibility, 3) representativeness, and 4) meaningfulness as suggested by Scott (1990) to assess the potential data. The criterion of authenticity concerns the authorship and origin of the evidence that must be able to be determined and verified by the researcher. The criterion of credibility involves the accuracy and reliability of a document. The criterion of representativeness deal with the degree to which the findings of research samples could be generalized and representative of all relevant documents. The criterion of meaning is involved with the readability and comprehensibility of the information in a document. As maintained by Scott (1990), these four criteria are interdependent, and the researcher cannot use one criterion to the exclusion of others. In addition to these criteria, the researcher also established another set of criteria to refine only the research relevant to the research question. The specified data were published articles with the following four aspects: being experimental and empirical studies from the scholarly referred or peer-reviewed journals in social science and humanity; being conducted at a tertiary or higher education level; using authentic video materials in the real classrooms to teach L2 listening skills and relevant socio-linguistic competence; being limited only to films, TV dramas, TV news, and documentaries.

Selected based on the criteria abovementioned, 29 studies included as sampled data which are original in terms of, for example, the author, places of publishing; are from reliable database such as Science Direct, Scopus, and Proquest Dissertation and Thesis Global; and are from a variety of well-known journals in the field such as ELT Journal, Foreign Language Annals, System, and TESOL Quarterly. The data that met the criteria are displayed in the following table.

Data Analysis

To carry out a data analysis, the researcher decided to follow the process of content analysis proposed by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) because they offer a systematic approach to analyzing data and could be applied to research articles in this study. The process comprises nine steps as follows: 1) formulate the research questions so that the researcher will know what he desires from the selected documents to be content-analyzed; 2) select the texts for analysis according to the document search criteria previously determined; 3) determine the rules and strategies of texts sampling (e.g., random sampling, purposive sampling, cluster sampling, or domain sampling); 4) define the contexts where the materials were generated (e.g., native or non-native contexts, school, college or university); 5) specify the units of analysis which may be at many levels, for instance, a word, phrase, paragraph, or whole text; 6) read and reread the all the documents at hand and note any unnoticed evidence, inconsistencies and contradictions (e.g., between studies, between what people say and do; 7) construct the categories or groupings of text constructs which could be any concepts or ideas to show links between units of analysis like grouping the chapters in books, or grouping the paragraphs of each chapter into a logical order; 8) conduct the thorough analysis by concentrating mainly on addressing the research question, which concerns the back-and-forth process of observing, analyzing, processing, comparing, developing categories or typologies, ordering, clarifying, or making inferences about relationship, causes and effects.; 9) summarize the overall key issues, concepts, and thoughts derived from content analysis.

Results

Findings suggested three major themes on how authentic video materials were used: (1) coverage of the materials; (2) approaches to present authentic video materials; and (3) activities and tasks designed to authentic video-based lessons.

Coverage of materials

Of all the research examined, authentic video materials were used either as an absolute material or as a supplementary material to main textbooks. The adoption of authentic video materials as absolute or main pedagogical materials was found to train the students to attempt to make a connection between the storylines and plots, and could sufficiently immerse them into the authentic native speech and culture in real contexts (Martinez, 2010; Park, 2004). This was due to the consistent exposure to the full-length authentic video materials such as TV series or films for an extended period of time. As a result of multiple exposure to authentic video throughout the semester, Rodgers (2013) reported that the students got more accustomed to the discourse format and use of language in different real-life contexts, and could handle the fast speech rate and accent variations more competently.

When an authentic video material was set to serve as a supplementary material to the main curricular material or an additional course material, the students exposed to the language appearing in textbooks and curriculum in the real-life contexts including: contents, grammars, and language functions (Davidson, 2009; Seaton, 1994). As a consequence, the students learnt to apply the language or contents covered in the textbooks, such as giving directions or booking a hotel when they had to actually use English to communicate in their daily situations.

Approaches to the presentation of authentic video material

A variety of approaches to present authentic video materials to improve listening skills was found. Some studies used the authentic video with no subtitles; other studies used videos displaying subtitles.

Presentation of the Videos without Displaying Subtitles

Some researchers supported the teachers to implement uncaptioned authentic video materials based on the reason that students would read less and listen more (Bianchi & Ciabattoni, 2008; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Muntane & Faraco, 2016; Tsai, 2010; Yang, 2014). Without subtitles appearing and moving on the screen, students are more likely to listen carefully, and try to give their best shots in grasping the key points in case the teachers assign them to answer the questions during the viewing session. Another reason for not using the captions was to simulate the real-world video watching scenario (Gruba, 1999; Vanderplank, 1988; Wang, 2014). Without the presence of any captions, the students unconsciously learnt to employ and practice learning strategies in making sense of the content with the assistance from contextual clues and

their already mastered lexico-syntactic knowledge. Therefore, listening could be seen as an effective strategic learning exercise.

Presentation of the Videos with the Display of Subtitles

With the display of subtitles, the language choice and sequences of caption displaying were found to be important issues. Regarding language choices, the researchers either used: (1) L1 or L2 subtitles, (2) L2 subtitles (Only the essential key words), and (3) dual subtitles (L1 and L2 subtitles appearing together)**.** The sequences of subtitle display also have effects on teaching and learning.

L1 or L2 subtitles. L1 subtitling mode was always recommended especially for the beginner or lower-intermediate students (Bianchi & Ciabattoni, 2008; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011); and L2 subtitling mode was advocated for use with higher-immediate or advanced students (Frumuselu, 2015; Garza, 1991; Rodgers, 2013). However, L1 and L2 subtitles shared quite the same advantage. Subtitle display allowed students to make use of their developed reading as well as lexico-grammatical knowledge in order to augment their listening comprehension. Another main reason for using subtitles, both L1 and L2, lies in the fact that they enabled the students to effectively handle the delivery speed of the spoken language which was found to be a great hindrance in comprehending the videos (Garza, 1991; Guillory, 1997; Winke et al., 2010).

The display of subtitles also has shortcomings. Many students were found to rely too much on reading the subtitles, which consequently resulted in a weakening in listening skill development (Garza, 1991; Hernandez, 2004; Tsai, 2010). In addition, an overdependence on subtitles caused the students to forget to pay attention to the key messages in the audio and visual information presented in the authentic videos; they may misunderstand the content and would practice and develop readings skills instead of listening (Tsai, 2010). Moreover, many students considered the subtitles as distracting and interfering. The subtitle display was found to hinder and interrupt the students to process the information and appropriately interpret the content (Gruba, 1999; Guillory, 1997; Tsai, 2010; Vanderplank, 1988). The students, especially those with low speed reading skills and insufficient linguistic knowledge, frequently encountered the problem of keeping pace with the subtitles as well as information overload (Guillory, 1997; Vanderplank, 1988).

Keyword subtitles. Some researchers employed authentic videos with the display of keyword captions or subtitles as an optional pedagogical tool (Garza, 1991; Guillory, 1997; Kikuchi, 2003; Park, 2004; Rooney, 2011). The use of partially captioned authentic videos were used to help students avoid the problems of distractions from reading subtitles and cognitive overload of having to simultaneously listen to the fast audios and interpret the visuals (Guillory, 1997; Kikuchi, 2003; Park, 2004).

The systematic processes of keyword caption design were also well-documented in the research studies. An amount of texts in keyword captions vary containing 70%, 50%, 30%, or even 10% of the words in the full scripts in the authentic videos (Guillory, 1997; Rooney, 2011). In the process of selecting key words to be included in keyword captions, there should be a realization that lexical words selected must help the students to comprehend the essence of an authentic video (Guillory, 1997; Kikuchi, 2003; Park, 2004; Rooney, 2011). Lexical words such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives that carry the key points of an utterance were kept in the keyword captions, whereas such grammatical words that connect content words, yet carry little meanings such as articles, conjunctions, prepositions, determiners, and pronouns were omitted (Kikuchi, 2003; Park, 2004; Rooney, 2011). The students have to be trained to focus on these key words when viewing authentic video materials because main ideas are usually conveyed with lexical words (Mendelsohn, 1994).

Dual subtitles. Another display of subtitling was to make L1 and L2 subtitles appear together on the screen. Dual subtitles were found to have effects on positive attitude on video viewing (Wang, 2014). The students could view the authentic videos with confidence as they were allowed to utilize L1 subtitles to reaffirm what they saw in the L2 subtitles as well as what they heard in the audio channel. In addition, they could make a comparison between two languages in the subtitles to learn and acquire new words and expressions, and selectively chose what subtitle formats could best help them apprehend the authentic video.

Sequences of subtitle presentation. Subtitles were found to be presented in different sequences and different controls –either by teachers or students. In a normal classroom, a piece of authentic video was adopted with a variety of subtitle presentation sequences mainly under a teacher's control (Frumuselu, Maeyer, Donche, & Plana, 2015; Muntane & Faraco, 2016; Rodgers, 2013; Winke et al., 2010). For example, a single movie could be viewed by starting with L1 or L2 subtitles to focus on the overall plot understanding, and then viewed with no

subtitles to focus on the listening comprehension practice (Frumuselu, 2015; Tsai, 2010). Sometimes teachers could also challenge their students by switching off the subtitles, and repeat the uncaptioned scenes for listening practice. The ordering of subtitle formats could be reshuffled according to individual students' language proficiency, memory capacity, ability to concentrate, and the differences between their L1 and target language in the videos (Winke et. al, 2010).

Within a multimedia classroom, the students were allowed to control the sequences of subtitle presentation. In a computer-assisted learning environment where all students watched the authentic video individually in a language laboratory using a desktop computer, the video-based instruction became less teacher-centered and the students were given maximum freedom to control the subtitles and their own viewing (Apitz, 2008; Bianchi & Ciabattoni, 2008; Guillory, 1997; Tsai, 2010; Wang, 2014). Subtitles or captions were used as a self-paced or self-controlled supportive tool in accordance with individual student's needs, task-specific demands, learning styles, interests, and media watching habits. By frequently going through self-directed pace, there was a high possibility, in an autonomous manner, for the students to find out what captions they feel to be most likely suitable and comfortable for them to learn listening skills (Guillory, 1997; Wang, 2014).

Activities and Tasks in Authentic Video-Based Listening Classrooms

The data analysis revealed three main stages of activities and tasks conducted in the authentic video-based classrooms which include pre-viewing, while-viewing, and post-viewing stages.

Pre-viewing stage. The most frequently used teaching strategies to prepare students for the actual viewing was to activate relevant background knowledge or schemata (Apitz, 2008; Davidson, 2009; Rodgers, 2013; Tsai, 2010; Tudor & Tuffs, 1991). The activations of schemata in the study were categorized as formal schemata and content schemata (Based on Tudor & Tuffs, 1991).

The formal schemata, relative to authentic video characteristics and content sequential organizations, were triggered by explicit teaching or direct instruction (Cross, 2009; Davidson, 2009; Tsai, 2010; Tudor & Tuffs, 1991). This helped students to consciously predict and anticipate the discourse pattern and developmental sequences of an authentic videotext. The direct identification and explanation of content presentation sequences aided students to be familiar with the general structures and salient features that characterize the materials to be viewed, thus preparing themselves to treat the materials as a piece of structured discourse (Cross,

2009; Tudor & Tuffs, 1991).

Content schemata, which principally involved topic-related or cultural specific information of authentic video materials, were activated through a variety of introductory materials called "advance organizers" (Ausubel, 1968), which broadly include visual and textual organizers, other group discussion, and brainstorming activities. Advance organizers were in the forms of guiding questions (Davidson, 2009; Han, 1994; Guillory, 1997), sentences summarizing the authentic videos (Hernandez, 2004; Tsai, 2010; Yang, 2014), a list of vocabulary (Provaznikova, 2009), and a combination of pictures with teacher's aural or written descriptions (Apitz, 2008). Presenting advance organizers helped the students perceive links between the information in the authentic video and their relevant prior knowledge, thus mitigating cognitive load and bridging the gap between established information and new information (Apitz, 2008; Davidson, 2009; Provaznikova, 2009; Yang, 2014). Once the student's existing background knowledge was activated, additional information provided by the teacher was used as a conceptual ground to speculate the contents.

While-viewing stage. Interactive activities were used to optimize the student's understanding of the language during authentic video watching, include answering questions, and taking meaningful notes for a summary or discussion in the follow-up activities.

Questions about the materials to be viewed were posed in the target language prior to the viewing stage to make the students view the materials with specific purposes (Han, 1994; Joynt, 2008; Martinez, 2010). Having questions in minds while viewing the videos, the students concentrated more on what they were looking for such as details, main ideas, overall plots, striking language expressions as well as controversial topics in order to test their hypotheses by taking the greatest advantage of personal experience and schemata (Han, 1994; Joynt, 2008; Martinez, 2010; Winke et al., 2010). As a result, the students would have an opportunity to employ and practice their own listening skills and strategies to make sense of the authentic content likely to be encountered in the real-world settings.

Note-taking was another productive activity during viewing the authentic video (Apitz, 2008; Bianchi & Ciabattoni, 2008; Fakhr, 2016; Tsai, 2010; Tudor & Tuffs, 1991; Vanderplank, 1988; Wang, 2014). While watching the authentic video, the students were encouraged to take notes on striking expressions, unfamiliar vocabulary or phrases, idioms, language functions, structures, interesting scenes, and even any problems with the text. These notes would be for later discussions and production activities, for instance summary writing or oral presentation of

the materials they had watched (Han, 1994; Tudor & Tuffs, 1991). By taking notes for subsequent production activities, the students could practice listening skills, as well as raise their language awareness and consciousness during the video viewing (Fakhr, 2016; Wang, 2014). Moreover, the students were given time to note information on prepared worksheets once the video was temporarily paused or stopped in order to reduce the possibility that sentences holding main ideas or key words might go unheard as the students' attention and cognitive resources were drawn to taking notes (Cross, 2009; Grineva, 2011).

Post-viewing stage. Activities in this stage included classroom debates and discussion, role-playing and retelling, and assignments for the students to work independently at home.

Discussion or debates, on the controversial topics or interesting issues stemming from the authentic video clips, were held to encourage the students to activate the use of language items learned from the video, discuss the language use in the videos, clarify the difficult scenes, check comprehension, and share their experiences of watching the video with their peer classmates (Garza, 1991; Grineva, 2011; Joynt, 2008; Tsai, 2010; Tudor & Tuffs, 1991; Vanderplank, 1988). During discussions, the students collaboratively played an active role in asking further related questions in the authentic video and reflecting upon any issues raised (Fakhr, 2016: Grineva, 2011). Through intense and meaningful conversations and talks, the students' content schemata were activated, making them retrieve background knowledge to comment on the plots and express their opinions and ideas (Tudor & Tuffs, 1991).

Role-play and story-retelling provided opportunities for the students to work collaboratively in pairs or small group (Frumuselu, 2015; Garza, 1991; Han, 1994; Seaton, 1994; Vanderplank 1988). The characters or dialogues from a film or situation comedy could be used for the students to assume different roles or act out the conversations using the target language (Garza, 1991: Han, 1994). In addition, peers can support each other by correcting or adding their own friends' speeches which is a type of corrective feedback to support language learning. Teachers played roles in giving their students some direct corrective feedbacks in terms of language errors occurred in the conversation, as well as the comments on the naturalness and appropriateness in conducting the activity.

Take-home assignments or homework was another post-viewing stage activity. The assignments encouraged students to use their own words in summarizing the story in essay form, reflect their own opinions or thoughts on the materials, make use of the language learnt from the materials to orally retell the story in a chronological order (Fakhr, 2016; Han, 1994; Tsai, 2010),

and work independently to complete online assignments and search for more information (Fakhr, 2016; Wang, 2014). Submission of assignments was required for teacher evaluation and feedback to students.

Conclusion and Discussion

The empirical evidence from the analysis of previous studies using authentic video materials in the listening classrooms revealed three major themes including: 1) the coverage of materials, 2) the approaches to the presentations of materials, and 3) the activities and tasks designed for the listening classrooms.

Coverage of the Materials

Findings suggest that in listening classes students' exposure to a different amount of coverage of the authentic video materials affected their learning of and familiarity with real-life language use. With more exposure of the materials, students were better prepared and equipped with practical listening skills and strategies for the real-world communication (Massi & Merrino, 1996). However, the decision on the coverage of materials also affects teachers' preparation of the materials. As in the previous studies, to maximize language learning and ensure the relevance of the materials to the curriculum, the teachers and researchers deliberately selected the materials and spent time to prepare the materials prior to teaching. They analyzed the materials for language, difficult issues or concepts, and cultural aspects contained in them (Provaznikova, 2009; Rodgers, 2013). In fact, currently the vast amount of authentic materials is easily accessible and publically available especially online, where students could expose themselves to real language use. To prepare students for their future use of authentic materials in order to learn language, teachers are encouraged to equip the students with techniques or strategies to learn from such materials in their listening classes as well (Chamot, 2005; Goh, 2002).

Presentation of the Materials

The findings suggest that the use of subtitling modes in the authentic video will depend pretty much on the students' language proficiency, their information processing and retention capacity, and the difference between their L1 and the language in the materials (Frumuselu, 2015; Guillory, 1997; Tsai, 2010). Accordingly, Park (2004) and Rooney (2011) recommend language teachers to provide the students with a variety of subtitle formats to flexibly select, or even engage the students in the decision-making or anonymous voting, the choice of language in the subtitles to

be presented in the classrooms. By taking individual students' learning styles and preferences into account, there will be a higher possibility for the students to explore their most appropriate and effective learning methods that best suit their needs and long-term learning goals.

Activities and Tasks in the Classrooms

Activities in the classrooms, regardless the stages of pre-, while-, and post-viewings, were found to be very common teaching methods to train students to be active learners through an interactive environment. Activation of the students' schemata and interaction with the materials influence students to utilize their listening skills, think critically, and collaboratively with others (Tudor & Tuffs, 1991). In addition, the task of note-taking while viewing the authentic video requires the students to pay attention to the conveyed messages in the materials (Fakhr, 2016; Ockey, 2007). Significantly, the post-viewing production activities stimulate the students to actually use their background knowledge and newly gained knowledge to play active roles in the classrooms (Han, 1994; Seaton, 1994).

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Appendix

The Selected Studies Used for Data Analysis in This Study

Researchers	Publica-tion date	*Authentic materials				Study objectives: to study	Methodology	Participants		Data collection procedures	Major findings
		N	D	T	F			ESL	EFL		
Vander-Plank, R.	1988			✓		the role of subtitled TV series in improving comprehension and spoken language	Qualitative	✓		- Observation - Self-report questionnaire	A potential of subtitles beneficial to developing students' listening strategies and techniques as well as vocabulary knowledge.
Garza, T.J.	1991	✓				the effects of the addition of L2 subtitles on listening comprehension improvement	Quantitative	✓		- Listening comprehension test - Oral recall text	A more supportive effect of L2 subtitles than no captions in promoting listening and speaking skills
Tudor, I., Tuff, R.	1991	✓				the effects of pre-viewing formal or content schemata activation activity on understanding the content in documentary	Quantitative	✓		- Pre- and post- listening tests - One experimental group	A facilitative role of pre-viewing formal and content schemata activation A more powerful role of the content schemata activation in facilitating comprehension
Han, H.K.P.	1994			✓		the effects of authentic video-based instruction on listening skill improvement	Qualitative	✓		- A survey questionnaire - Pre- and post- treatment interviews - Observation	The improvement of students' listening comprehension in of TV drama to some degree.
Seaton, K. R.	1994				✓	the effects of learning listening through authentic film and audio tape in textbook	Qualitative and quantitative		✓	- Two experimental groups: film-mediated group and control group with no treatment - Listening comprehension test - Observation	Substantially higher scores on listening comprehension in the film-mediated group than the control group with audio tape A marked decrease in shyness, sleeping, non-participation, and fears of mistakes in oral production in the film group

Guillory, H.E.G.	1997	✓				the effects of keyword captions on listening comprehension	Quantitative	✓		- Three experimental groups: 1) no captions; 2) full-text captions; and 3) keyword captions - Listening comprehension test	Higher scores in full-text caption and keyword caption groups than no-caption group No significant difference in scores between full-text and keyword caption groups
Gruba, P.A.	1999	✓				the effects of visual elements in TV news	Qualitative	✓		- Verbal report - Face-to-face interview	The visual elements thought of as essential and complementary element for overall listening comprehension
Kikuchi, T	2003				✓	the effects of keyword captions on listening comprehension	Quantitative		✓	Three experimental groups: 1) no captions; 2) full-text captions; and 3) keyword captions - Listening comprehension test	The outperformance of keyword captions group than the other two groups in listening tests
Hernandez, S.S.	2004				✓	the effects of authentic video different presentation modes on listening comprehension	Qualitative and quantitative	✓		- Four treatment groups: audio-only, audio + video, audio + caption text, and audio + video + caption text. - Self-report questionnaire	The highest scores in listening test in the group with audio + video and the group with audio + video + text Positive attitude toward the contextual clues in terms of content comprehending and facilitator
Park, M.	2004		✓			the impacts of full-script caption, keyword caption, and no caption modes on comprehension of students	Qualitative and quantitative		✓	- Summary test - Word recognition test Questionnaire	The students of all three proficiency groups scored highest under the full-caption mode, followed by the partial caption mode

Apitz, A.	2008			✓		the effects of advance organizers on comprehending TV series	Qualitative and quantitative	✓		- Four experimental groups with 4 different types of advance organizer: (1) picture + English audio, (2) picture +English text, (3) picture + German audio, and (4) picture + German text. - Comprehen-sion test -Questionnaire	A better performance found in a group of students who were aided with a combination of an audio in English and a text in German.
Bianchi, F., Ciabatton -toni, T.	2008				✓	the differential effects of L1 subtitles (Italian), captions (English) on adult beginner, intermediate, and advanced students' listening comprehen-sion.	Quantitative		✓	- Three experimental groups: English captions, Italian subtitles and no caption - Content comprehension test	A higher increase in content comprehension test scores in both groups of students who were exposed either to subtitles or captions than audio-only group, regardless of their proficiency levels
Joyst, R.E.	2008				✓	the impacts of feature films on university students' cultural knowledge and their overall language learning experiences.	Qualitative		✓	- Focus group interviews - Observations - Open-ended questionnaire	Italian films were considered compelling and helpful in exposing the students to the target culture. Moreover, many students were also found to notice and be more aware of the similarities and differences between cultures
Cross, J.	2009	✓				the influence of listening strategy instruction on students' comprehen-sion of BBC news videotexts.	Quantitative		✓	- One experimental group with listening strategy instruction and one control group with no treatment - Pre- and post- listening comprehension test	No significant difference in the scores of the two experimental groups

Davidson, K.F.	2009					effectiveness of advance organizers, or introductory devices, in introducing the content in the video	Qualitative and quantitative		✓	- Experimental group with the guiding questions with multiple-choice answers as pre-viewing activity and control group with no treatment - Listening quizzes -Questionnaire - Interview	No significant statistical differences between the two research groups in the quiz scores A favorable view to guiding questions as an aid in forming a reasonable hypothesis and interpretation in the video
Provazni-kova, L.S.	2009			✓		the effects of online previewing activities, including glossary-based and drag-drop activity, on authentic soap opera content comprehension	Qualitative and quantitative		✓	- Experimental group with online previewing activity and control group - Vocabulary pre and posttests -Questionnaire	Assured potential of the two previewing activities in assisting students with comprehen-ding the German soap opera, and learning novel vocabulary
Martinez, R.G.	2010	✓				the extent to which the students improve their listening comprehension and their attitudes toward learning through CNN news for 20 hours	Qualitative and quantitative		✓	- Pre and post-Listening comprehension tests - Attitude surveying questionnaire	A slight difference of scores in pre and post-listening tests Positive attitude towards authentic news in terms of the power of visual inputs in facilitating processing and deepening cultural knowledge
Tsai, F.H.	2010			✓		the effects of L1 subtitles and L2 captions on listening comprehension	Qualitative and quantitative		✓	- Three treatment groups: L1 (English) subtitles, L2 (Chinese) captions, and no captions. - Listening comprehension test -Questionnaire	The outperformance of the English subtitles and Chinese captions groups over the control
Winke,P., Susan, G., Sydorenko, T.	2010		✓			the students' use of captions while watching documentary with captions and the effects of captions on listening comprehen-sion	Qualitative and quantitative		✓	- Experimental group with captioning and control group without captioning - Listening comprehension test - Vocabulary test - Interview	Students exposed to captioned documentary outscored the control group on both the listening comprehension and vocabulary tests

Grineva, M.	2011	✓				the perception of students on learning culture	Qualitative		✓	- Interviews -Questionnaire - Observations	Positive views toward learning culture, trends, traditions, values and beliefs of the target culture
Hayati, H.P., Mohmedi, K.M.	2011				✓	the effects of subtitled films on listening comprehension	Quantitative		✓	- Multiple-choice listening comprehension test	A considerably higher scores of the Persian subtitles and no subtitle groups on the listening test than the English subtitles group
Rooney, K.M.	2011		✓			the impacts and helpfulness the different keyword captioning modes were in assisting listening comprehension in science documentary	Qualitative and quantitative		✓	- Three experimental groups with different keyword caption conditions: 10%, 30%, 50% of the full script captions - Listening test -Questionnaire	The best performance in the group of students aided with captions containing 50% of the full-script captions
Rodgers, M.P.H.	2013			✓		the effects of viewing TV series on listening comprehension over an extended period of time	Quantitative		✓	- Content comprehension test	A significant increase in content comprehension scores after viewing TV series
Wang, Y.	2014			✓		the effects of watching TV series with L1, L2, and dual subtitling modes on listening comprehension	Qualitative Quantitative		✓	- Listening comprehension test - Vocabulary test - Attitude questionnaire	Dual subtitles were found to be the most effective subtitling condition in promoting listening comprehension and vocabulary knowledge.
Yang, H.Y.	2014	✓				the impact of subtitles and advance organizers (vocabulary and question previewing) on students' listening comprehension of CNN news	Quantitative and qualitative		✓	Three experimental groups: subtitle group, unaided advance organizers, and teacher-guided advance organizers and one control group with no treatment - True-false and Multiple-choice listening comprehension tests - Attitude survey	The teacher-guided advance organizer group outperformed the two other groups in comprehension tests Students' favor using subtitles to reduce cognitive load Students' preferences of teacher-guided advance organizer over unaided advance organizer

Frumuselu, A.D.	2015				✓	the effects of TV series with different caption modes on listening and lexical comprehension	Quantitative		✓	- Two experimental groups: English soundtracks + Spanish subtitles and English soundtracks + English subtitles - Short-term lexical test - Long-term lexical test - Oral tests	The equal increase of scores in short-term lexical test in both subtitle groups The outperformance of the English subtitle group over Spanish subtitle group in long-term lexical test and oral production test
Frumuselu, A.D., Maeyer, S.D., Donche, V., and Plana M.M.G.	2015				✓	the effects of captioned American TV series on listening comprehension	Quantitative		✓	- Two experimental groups: interlingual mode (English soundtrack + L1 subtitles) or intralingual mode (English soundtrack + English subtitles) - Multiple-choice and open-ended listening tests	Most students enjoyed watching the TV series in the classroom. In addition, the students also favored the discussion after viewing activity
Fakhr, A.	2016			✓		the perception of use of authentic video materials in listening classrooms.	Qualitative		✓	Focus group interview	Positive attitude toward the use of TV series in the listening classrooms
Muntane, J. B., Faraco., S. S.	2016				✓	the effects of L1 subtitles to L2 captions on the listening comprehen-sion	Quantitative		✓	- Three treatment groups: L1(English) subtitles, L2 (Spanish) captions, and no captions - Listening comprehension test - Vocabulary acquisition test	The outperformance of the English subtitles and no-captions groups over the Spanish subtitles group, with the best results being achieved by the participants in the English subtitles group.

Note*

The letters N, D, T, F in the table stand for *news*, *documentary*, *TV series*, and *film respectively*

A Discourse Analysis of Newspaper Headlines Containing the Words 'China' or 'Chinese': A Case Study of Two English Language Newspapers in Thailand

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Abstract

The People's Republic of China (PRC) is a global world power, the world's most populous nation and has become increasingly influential in global politics; however, there is very little academic research available that analyzes how the Chinese are portrayed in the media. The media is partly responsible for shaping the public's ideology of the outside world in terms of what they choose to report and how they present the information. Therefore it is important to analyze the impact of media reporting. This study reviewed news headlines of two leading English language newspapers in Thailand: *The Nation* and *The Bangkok Post.* In total, 200 news headlines were analyzed over a period of seven months (from January 2017 through July 2017). News headlines were first separated into six most common news topics: business, politics, arts and entertainment (including sports), general news (including local news), science and technology, and environment. A primary goal of this research was to discover what the connotations of the words 'China' and 'Chinese' were in popular Thai media headlines; in order to gain insight on whether any meaningful media bias exists. Results showed that, as far as business is concerned, news headlines across Thai media generally portrayed China with more positive connotations than negative ones. Science and Technology was the only category with mostly positive connotations while all of the other categories had more negative connotations than positive ones. In conclusion, we discuss possible outcomes and inferences related to our findings.

***Keywords**:* News headlines, Critical discourse analysis, Connotations, China, Chinese

Introduction

The People's Republic of China (PRC) is a global world power, the world's most populous nation and has become increasingly influential in global business, politics, and culture. Subsequently, the Chinese influences around the world have significantly increased as well. China's current economic policy is known as "One Belt, One Road" which outlines their current development strategy to expand their connectivity and cooperation across Eurasian countries. Indeed, China has initiatives to engage more with the world in all sectors. In regards to Thailand, we have seen an increase in Chinese tourists, students and investors across the country.

However, there is very little research available that analyzes how China is portrayed in Thai media. This is of particular importance as the media is responsible for informing the masses and has the power to shape the people's perception of the world. Often, the media is faced with the task of choosing what news to report on and when to ignore a story. How they choose to present the information and their choice of words matter in regards to creating the perceptions of the news for their consumers.

An important factor to consider when analyzing news headlines is that they are often concise and each word is carefully selected. In critical discourse analysis (CDA), language is perceived as a social practice (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). Language is used to make representations of the real world. At the word level, most content words are often loaded with connotations. Overall, most words vary in their connotations because some have positive connotations such as 'security officers', 'creative', and 'noble' but in contrast many words could also be perceived negatively such as 'goons' and/or 'fascists.' Hence, headlines as texts convey not only new information (denotative meaning) but connotations (connotative meaning). Connotations matter in newspapers and news coverage as they have the potential to form attitudes in the mind of news consumers.

In today's globalized world, the news spreads rapidly through online media and traditional newspapers. In Thailand, according to a report by the National Electronics and Computer Technology Center (NECTEC), the number of Internet users has increased from 27,653,927 users to 43,873,732 in 2017. The number of smartphone users has also continued to skyrocket. More and more people are consuming the news on their mobile phones and on the Internet. Any news reaching the consumers has the potential to shape their attitudes towards individuals, groups, and cultures. Headlines are important as they are the first part of news to be read by the news consumers, they are attention getting and in certain cases they are

the only part that is read by the consumer.

China has continued to play more prominent roles on the global stage and the increased trade and cultural exchanges between Thailand and China, it is necessary to investigate the various ways China is presented in the Thai media.

Research Objectives and Questions

Goals of This Research

1. To analyze news headlines from two newspapers in Thailand.
2. To investigate news coverage based on a range of 6 news categories: business, politics, arts and entertainment (including sports), general news, science and technology, and environment

Research Questions

1. What were the connotations of the words 'China' or 'Chinese' and how were they used in the headlines of the two newspapers?
2. Was the coverage equally distributed?
3. Is the Thai media biased for or against China?

Limitations

Our study only covers a period of 7 months, from January to July 2017. Moreover, only English language newspapers were chosen for representation. The short time slot and the newspapers selected may limit the interpretability of the study.

Literature Review

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Newspaper headlines have been analyzed to understand the attitudinal construction in various areas, ranging from business to politics. News headlines are texts with purposes and structures. Headlines are often carefully crafted; words carefully chosen. Words, phrases, and collocations found in newspaper headlines carry with them, not only denotative meaning, but also connotations that are positive, negative, or neutral. As texts, headlines, are social constructs or what Kress (1989, cited in Wodak & Meyer, 2001, p. 6) refers to as a "social phenomenon". By critically analyzing the news headlines, we can better understand their social construction through and their use of linguistic elements to represent realities.

In discourse studies, there are generally three ways of looking at discourse or text, the formal, the functional, and the social approaches (Jones, 2012). Under the formal approach, discourse analysts look into the text's cohesion and its use of cohesive devices. In short, it looks at how sentences are put together to create a text such as paragraphs. For the functional approach, the focus is on the language that is used and what happens when the language is put into use. The last approach, the social approach, regards discourse as a social construction. Under the social approach, a discourse or text is analyzed critically to explore deeper into the construction of a given society, what is being represented and whether it is at all underrepresented; and why.

Connotations

News headlines as text units carry with them two kinds of meanings: denotative meaning (which is direct and literal) and connotative meaning (the emotions and associations connected to a word). Headlines are similar to signs in their function; Barthes (1977) discusses signs as codes that can be interpreted for their second meaning or connotative meaning. As with a photograph or a sign, at the word level, it is recognized that most content words have at least two meanings: denotative and connotative meanings. A denotative meaning is direct and unbiased. For example, the word 'tiger' can be interpreted differently. Denotatively, it is a kind of animal, however, it is also commonly known that a tiger may signify a powerful and strong person. Within the sphere of connotations, there are three kinds for them: positive, negative, and neutral. Words like 'goons' or 'bribe' carry negative connotations. On the other hand, words like 'freedom' or 'intellectual' are positive words. In this study, headlines are regarded as a unit of thought and each unit has its own connotation.

According to Alan (2007), connotation of all language expressions arise from denotation, or the denotative meaning. In this sense, it is an additional meaning. Connotations are tied to cultural values, experiences, beliefs, and even prejudices of a particular social group or society. In regards to this research and in an effort to eliminate as many of these inherent biases as possible we chose to split the choices into three categories positive connotation (only good outcomes tied to the headline), negative connotation (one or more bad outcomes tied to the headline) and neutral connotation (if the headline had neither a positive or negative outcome attached to it).

Previous Research

In previous research there is not a lot of formal academic research available regarding how Western media portrays China and the perceptions people have about China. Similarly, there also is not any research available regarding how Thai media portrays China and what that means in context of Thai-China relations. Consequently, we will discuss some similar research that was conducted that involves European media attitudes towards China and also an Oxford University study that was done regarding international media coverage of China. Overall, the previous studies that were done were typically smaller in scope/scale but their findings supported the conclusions and hypothesizes made in this research.

In 2013, a study was conducted by the University of Oxford titled "*The International Media Coverage of China: Too narrow an agenda*?" by Daniel Griffiths it was a two week study of newspaper articles about China in Western media. This study presented "a content analysis of news stories about China in the online editions of the New York Times, BBC News, and the Economist over two separate weeks in the autumn of 2013. In total, 129 stories were analyzed (Griffiths, 2013)." The findings of this research concluded that Western media is indeed biased against China and it generally stemmed from political influences.

In the context of the European Union, a study was conducted in 2014 by the Department of EU International Relations and Diplomacy Studies (*EU-China Observer*, 2014) which discussed EU-China relations and hypothesized causes for the media bias by western media. According to Michael Reiterer "European media were often criticised for reporting only negative news on China" (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, p.19). William Fingleton (the Head of the Press and Information Section of the Delegation of the EU to China) gave the following reasons for the negative press in China: "Fingleton stated that in his daily work he faces complaints from both sides: on the one hand, European journalists express dissatisfaction about their treatment in China, while on the other hand, Chinese authorities are concerned about the imbalanced and unfair reporting on China of European journalists" (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, p.19). Also, Fingleton noted that over the past 20 years there has been a significant improvement in the conditions that Western journalists face in China but that during the 2008 Olympic Games that were held in Beijing these conditions rapidly deteriorated "Fingleton identified the lack of transparency and lack of information to journalists coming from Chinese authorities as one of the main reasons for this friction" (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, p.19). According to Fingleton, Western media journalists want to portray a more favorable viewpoint on China but they are unable to because "when seeking

official information so as to create a balanced point of view, foreign journalists often do not receive replies" (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, p.19). He therefore concedes that European media is in fact biased but that the main cause is a lack of transparency and difficult working conditions that journalists face in China.

In the same EU report, an attempt was made to explain the differences between European and Chinese media. According to Fingleton, there are many ideological differences between Chinese and European media, for example, "In the eyes of Europeans, every journalist is biased but that by verifying the facts from as many sources as possible, one is able to mitigate this pitfall in an attempt to present a credible story and, thus, independent and supervisory. Chinese journalists are expected to be loyal to the party" (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, p.19). In conclusion, there are barriers to the Western press in both cultural and ideological senses which could account for the more negative viewpoints from Western journalists compared to their Chinese counterparts.

There is also research that was done to compare non-English newspaper stories in Europe about China to determine whether China is seen as an economic magnet or as a rival. In 2014, Lutgard Lams studied how the Dutch and French press in Belgium and the Netherlands framed China in the media (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, pp.19-20). European papers that were studied in this research include the following: De Morgen, De Standaard, De Tijd, Le Soir, La Libre Belgique, De Volkskrant and NRC Handelsblad. Two primary themes of Dr. Lam's research involved the influence of social and political practices in the media from November 2012 to October 2013 through both a quantitative and qualitative approach. She studied positive and negative connotations of words in media as well as political, economic, social and cultural themes. In her research political and economic stories were the dominant themes discussed and cultural themes were the least discussed (6 to 10 percent). Overall, Lams found that 58.7 percent of articles provided negative viewpoints about China and 16 percent were positive viewpoints. According to Lams, the reason that this bias existed so prominently is because "both positive and negative frames concerning China exist and that often times journalists take over discourse from other papers and articles and stop questioning the assumptions and statements made" (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, p.20). A major theme of this researched centered around how much Eurocentrism factors into the journalism that reports on China.

In order to explain the bias that exists in Western media, research done by Jeanne Boden hypothesized that Europeans and Chinese have insufficient knowledge of one another

and her analysis focused on post-colonial Eurocentrism and Sinocentrism in the media and how it influences coverage of China in Europe (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, pp.20-21). There exist certain stereotypes between the two regions that undoubtedly influence whether media connotations are positive, negative or neutral. According to Boden, "it is very important for both sides to give each other information about the ways the systems on each side work so as to deconstruct the stereotypes that exist on both sides" (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, p.20).

The difference in media coverage between Europe and China can also be attributed to the structures of government: According to Boden, "in Europe multiple centers of authority have to come to a consensus and historical developments in Europe favored debate, while in China the power is rather centralized, a configuration which is still visible nowadays in the figure of the President of the People's Republic of China who is also General Secretary of the Communist Party of China and Chairman of the Central Military Commission" (*EU-China Observer*, 2014, p.20). Therefore, it is natural for European journalists to view China through a "European point of view" which judges China by European standards and China will continue to view Europe through a Sinocentric approach. This perpetuates the conflicting opinions which help to explain the differences in negative and positive connotations in the media, which ultimately end up serving the political agendas of each region (West vs. East).

China's increasing global dominance is becoming increasing common in Western literature. Some examples include the following: "In the Jaws of the Dragon: America's Fate in the Coming Era of Chinese Hegemony" written by Eamonn Fingleton in 2008; "When China Rules the World: The End of the Western World and the Birth of a New Global Order" by Martin Jacques in 2009; "The Beijing Consensus: How China's Authoritarian Model Will Dominate the Twenty-First Century" by Stefan Halper in 2010 (Miles, 2011). According to Miles, such political anxiety is not a new phenomenon either as literature about China as a threat to the West has existed since the early 20th century. As early as 1904, Arthur Brown wrote an article titled "New Forces in Old China: An Unwelcome But Inevitable Awakening". An important factor to point out is that China is not alone in being highly criticized by Western media as this phenomenon has occurred at various times during the 20th century towards other influential countries around the globe such as Japan, Germany, Russia and America.

The media plays a strong influence on the perceptions of citizens towards the nations they report on. It is therefore important to know that there are certain narratives and biases that exist in media that you will need to be conscious of in order to form a better

understanding of the world at large. In conclusion, the literature has pointed out that the fear of China globally is not a new phenomenon but rather a result of their growing influence globally.

Methodology

A total of 200 news headlines were randomly selected from two English language newspapers in Thailand: *The Nation* and *The Bangkok Post*. Headlines were then categorized based on their news coverage. Six categories were identified: (1) business/economy, (2) politics, (3) art and culture, (4) general news e.g. crime, 5) science and technology, and 6) environment.

The 200 headlines were taken via the Internet from publications with wide circulation networks in their marketplace. With regards to Thai newspaper media there are two brands at the forefront of English language news: *The Nation* and *The Bangkok Post*. The motto of *The Nation* is "Thailand's Independent Newspaper". *The Nation*'s parent company has since crossed over into Thai business newspaper publishing and television media, both of which are outstanding in their news presentation in Thailand. *The Bangkok Post* has been in operation for over 60 years, "providing accurate and trustworthy content that serves the needs of discerning readers. Our in-depth analysis of current hot issues helps our readers to stay ahead of the competition[1]" its daily circulation is as high as 110,000 mostly in the Bangkok metropolitan region.

Each headline was read and three connotations were assigned: (1) positive connotation (2) negative connotation, and (3) the neutral one.

Table 1: Example of how connotations of the Thai Newspapers were based on Positive, Neutral or Negative Categorizations

Example of Connotations		
Positive	Neutral	Negative
"Stocks rise to record as China fuels global growth: (Business News) BKK Post 23/7/2017	"Thai navy signs Bt13.5-bn deal for Chinese submarine" (General News) The Nation 5/5/2017	"US to list China among worst human trafficking offenders" (Political News) BKK Post 13/7/2017

1 http://www.bangkokpost.com/subscribe/

Table 1 shows examples of headline connotations of the two Thai media based on the three categories of classification: positive connotation, negative connotation and neutral connotation.

Findings

The findings are as follows:

Table 2: Headlines and Connotations based on Newspapers

	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Total
The Nation	44	52	4	100
Bangkok Post	31	59	10	100
Total	75 (37.5%)	111 (55.5%)	14 (7%)	200

Table 2 shows the news headlines of the two Thai newspapers divided into positive, negative or neutral. In general, 111 headlines (55.5%) have negative connotations; 75 have positive connotations (37.5%). Only 14 of them (7%) are headlines with neutral connotations.

Table 3: Distribution of News Coverage

Business	Politics	Art and Culture	Gen News	Science and Technology	Environment	Total
48 (24.00%)	72 (36.00%)	18 (9.00)	43 (21.50%)	15 (7.5%)	4 (2%)	200 (100%)

Table 3 shows the headlines coverage of the two newspapers divided into our 6 primary groups. The coverage of news on politics was the highest frequency (36%), followed by business (24%), general news (21.50%) and arts and culture (9%). The coverage of news on environment and science/technology was significantly low (only 2%).

Table 4: Connotations of the Thai Newspapers based on news categories

	Business	Politics	Art and Culture	Gen News	Science and Technology	Environment	Total
Positive	28	25	7	6	9	0	75
Negative	17	44	9	34	4	3	111
Neutral	4	3	2	3	2	1	15
Total	48 (24.0%)	72 (36.0%)	18 (9.0%)	43 (21.50%)	15 (7.50%)	4 (2.00%)	200

Table 4 shows headline connotations of the two Thai media based on the six categories of the news coverage. For business, the Thai media had 28 positive news headlines, 17 negative headlines, and only 4 neutral ones. For politics, the positive coverage from the Thai media found a total of 25 headlines, 17 were negative, and only 3 were considered neutral. For general news, the negative connotations significantly outnumbered the positive ones. In the realm of science and technology, 9 were positive, 4 were negative, but only 2 were neutral.

Business and Politics

Media coverage of China focuses on six areas: 1. Business 2. Politics 3. Arts and entertainment (including sports) 4. General news (such as local interest stories) 5. Science and technology and 6. Environment. Four of these areas (business, politics, arts and entertainment, and general news) accounted for 181 (90.3%) of the 200 headlines, based on the data collected from January 2017 to July 2017. Narrowing down the results even further you can see that two topics: business and politics make up 60% of the media coverage or 114 of the 200 articles.

Art and Culture, General News, and Science and Technology

Headlines that covered themes representing a broader range of topics about the Chinese people and China included arts and culture, general news, and science and technology. Overall, these four themes accounted for 76 of the 200 headlines or 38% of the media coverage about China.

The arts and culture category included headlines about cultural habits, Chinese entertainment, sports and similar leisure activities. In regards to general news, any news about China or Chinese citizens, included crime headlines (ex. *'Chinese man robbed in Pattaya'*), day to day life (ex. *'Bus in China drives off cliff, 4 dead'*), or any other human interest story. Science and Technology headlines included a broad range of topics related to anything from inventions, medical breakthroughs, new products being released in China, or products invented by Chinese citizens. Lastly, we included environmental issues which included headlines that covered topics such as clean air or natural disasters.

Environment

This study found the smallest media coverage turned out to be about the environment. In the Thai media there were zero positive media mentions of the environment compared to 3

negative mentions of the environment. The Thai media reported only one neutral environmental topic. Overall, there appears to be no significant media bias in relation to environmental topics.

Discussions

Business and Politics

There are several inferences that could account for such a high frequency of the media coverage of business and politics in Thailand. First, China is increasingly making its presence felt in the ASEAN economic alliance; it has exerted its influence through trade agreements or investment in Thailand and other countries. Thailand on the other hand has been increasingly strengthening ties with China through both financial and social agreements. Consequently, it makes sense that Thai media would report more news on business and politics related to China as it brings added benefits to the Thai people. Moreover, it makes logical sense for Thai media to report favorably about Chinese business and politics as China has become an important trade partner for the kingdom. Comparatively, Western media often reports about China with a more negative manner because China has been seen as a growing threat to the West as a world power with increasing influence globally (Department of EU International Relations and Diplomacy Studies, 2014).

Art and Culture, General News, and Science and Technology

This section's results of the data seemingly contradicted the predictions of the previous studies. Headlines about general news garnered 34 negative headlines in Thai media; it is believed that there is a logical explanation for this phenomenon. *The Nation* and *The Bangkok Post* focus coverage on more local stories that would never make publication in global papers such as *BBC News*, *The New York Times,* and *USA Today*; for example, there were numerous stories regarding pitfalls of Chinese tourists in Thailand that skewed the data in this category to be more negative. For example, the Thai media would report on simple assaults and minor crime that befell Chinese tourists; such as: 'Chinese tourists get in a fight', or *'Chinese tourist robbed in Pattaya'*, in addition to more serious headlines such as *'Chinese tourists drown'*. Since Thailand's economy relies on a robust tourist industry as a major driver of its economy it makes sense that stories such as these would interest the local citizens and it also explains why these stories would not make it to global publications that are generally less likely to cover such special interest stories.

Environment

Based on the findings about the environment above, one might assume that Thai media rarely reports the environmental issues related to China and the Chinese. However, due to the small sample size we probably need a lot more data to make significant assumptions or make any meaningful conclusions regarding this.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that the two Thai newspapers portrayed China and the Chinese positively in the domains of business, science, and technology. However, the realm of politics, arts and culture, and general news, we found more headlines with more negative connotation than the positive ones. Our analysis showed that the coverage was not equally distributed. We have found that both Thai media sources were biased for and biased against China in their headlines depending on the particular topic.

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The two newspapers in study were:

1. The Bangkok Post. Articles retrieved January to July 2017, from http://www.bangkokpost.com/
2. The Nation. Articles retrieved January to July 2017, from http://www.nationmultimedia.com

Attitudinal Study of ELF Accents: Perceptions of English and Non-English Teachers at an International University in Bangkok

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Abstract

This study investigates how teachers from two different fields of education and expertise (English and non-English language teachers) view different English accents of their non-native students who are predominantly from expanding circle countries. The study took place at an international university in Bangkok, where English is used as a lingua franca and main medium of instruction and international communication. Questionnaire and semi-structured interviews revealed that teacher participants had no negation and objection towards their students' accents. Despite this Burmese English accent was perceived most positively by both groups of participants. The findings further indicate that mutual intelligibility and successful communication are prioritized, as well as, strong preference for native English varieties for being pedagogical models.

Keywords: English as a Lingua Franca, accents, attitudes, teachers, international communication

Background

In the current globalized world, it is undeniable and evident that the English language has genuinely achieved international status in a global domain requiring a tremendous demand for using English as a main medium of communication in multilingual and multicultural environments. Given the axiom that non-native speakers of English overwhelmingly outnumber the native speakers, the interactions of English as a lingua franca (ELF) seem to involve members for whom English is not their first language. According to Jenkins (2009), in ELF interactions, English is used as a common language of choice for people who share different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Consequently, it seems that ELF enjoys the diversity of several varieties of English as it is used among these non-Anglophone speakers. One conspicuous manifestation of such diversity is accent which is often ascribed to its diverse speakers, wherever the language is spoken or used. In this respect, Breiteneder (2009) suggests that present day English is inexorably used among non-native speakers in non-native settings; therefore, the intelligibility and successful communication should be of primary concerns rather than the quality of language. Correspondingly, Jenkins (2005) points out that there is no need for non-native speakers to have native-like accents in ELF communication. Moreover, non-native accents have always been under criticism due to the fact that ELF industry has been significantly reliant on textbooks, teacher educations, syllabus, etc. that are based on standard Anglophone norms: British and General American English. Furthermore, a number of previous studies revealed that non-native accents were usually viewed less positively by both English teachers and learners, whereas native ideology remains highly entrenched and native model were universally regarded by both native and non-native speakers for being the ultimate goal to achieve (Jenkins, 2007; Matsuda, 2003; Shim, 2002). Despite the fact that there are several related researches on related issues investigating attitudes, of English teachers and learners (both native and non-native), towards varieties of English accents, how non-English teachers perceive this issues still remains largely untouched. Therefore, this study investigated accent attitudes of English and non-English teachers who teach at an international university in Bangkok, where English is used as a major mean of international communication.

Objectives of the Study

There are two objectives in this study:

1. To explore English language teachers' attitudes towards English accents used by non-native students
2. To explore non-English language teachers' attitudes towards English accents used by non-native students.

Theoretical Framework

Having adopted the ideology of English as a lingua franca, this study set out to examine the teachers' attitudes towards students' varied English accents in a multilingual setting. Since the attitudes of English and non-English language teachers are in the same vein, remaining largely unexplored, it is of crucial importance to map the attitudes from the perspectives of teachers who share different educational and professional backgrounds. Furthermore, within an international context where English is a universal lingua franca, it is likely that accent is the linguistic component that is most likely to be under attack. Hence, the study aims to investigate both groups of teachers, who are in the context of using English as a lingua franca, whether they consider the native-like accent essential to achieve or they prioritize mutual intelligibility and successful communication. Additionally, this research analyzed whether there are differences or similarities in attitudes towards students' English accents.

In sum, this study addresses two research questions:

1. What are English language teachers' attitudes towards four different English accents used by their non-native students?
2. What are non-English language teachers' attitudes towards four different English accents used by their non-native students?

Research Methodology

Context of the Study

This study was conducted at Assumption University of Thailand, Suvannabhummi Campus where English has been used as a lingua franca and a major medium of instruction. The university is located in the province of Samutprakarn, Thailand and is generally known to be the first and largest international university of the nation. According to the survey carried out by ONESQA in 2011 (Rattanaphumma, 2011), there are 89 nationalities of students taking courses at Assumption University. The survey also reveals that Chinese is the majority of international students followed by Burmese, Korean, Vietnamese and Bhutanese (Rattanaphumma, 2011).

Other nationalities found were: Nepalese, Indian, American, Taiwanese, Bangladesh, and other nationalities from Asian and adjacent regions.

Research Design

Results of this study were based on the data obtained from the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, incorporating methods from both attributes of the traditional division between qualitative and quantitative researches. By employing the questionnaire, the researcher was allowed to analyze the data in multiple ways, whereas the semi-structured interviews helped the participants to reflect, expand and elaborate their thoughts. Both of these methods provided the extensive insights of attitudes held by the research participants. In order to meet the answers of the research objectives, two groups of participants, English and non-English teachers, were chosen in this study to find out whether ones with English and linguistics competence would share differences and similarities with ones who possess different educational backgrounds and specializations. Regarding the investigation of accent attitudes, this study looked into teachers' attitudes towards these four non-native accents; namely, Chinese English, Burmese English, Korean English and Thai English. It should be noted that these accents are the accents of English spoken in expanding circle countries based on Kachru's three concentric circles of English. The primary reason for choosing these four accent varieties is because they are the four most dominant accents present in the context of study. These varieties of accents are used by the students from the majority group of nationalities: Thai, Chinese, Korean and Burmese, in respective order of dominance, based on the survey carried out by UNESQA as found in Assumption University (2011).

Population

The population in this study was full-time lecturers at Assumption University; however, the concentration of this study was merely on two main groups of teachers: English and non-English teachers. Consequently, 145 lecturers from the Institute for English Language Education and 40 lecturers from the Faculty of Arts in Business English were opted to represent the English language teachers. The non-English teachers, consisted of 213 lecturers from the Martin de Tour Schools of Management and Economics to make the total population of the teachers. These lecturers, both Thai and non-Thai in nationalities, rely significantly on the use of English as a major medium for daily instructions and communication in an international environment. It is safe to note that they are all the adept users of English and have been exposed to a variety of

English spoken by their international students. Therefore, they make appropriate research samples in sharing their attitudes towards students' accents.

Selection of Research Samples

In this study, the research samples were defined by the formula introduced by Yamane (1973) in order to decide the sample size of the research. Both groups of teachers were subject to the simplified formula as follows:

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

n = the sample size

N = the population size

e = the acceptable sampling error (0.05)

* 95% confidence level and e = 0.05

Subsequently, the stratified random sampling was employed by utilizing the strategy of choosing the most salient and similar characteristics featuring in the population of each group of the samples; English and non-English teachers, which were classified into Thai and non-Thai teachers. As the number of the population in each strata (Thai teachers and non-Thai teachers) is not identical, the following formula was embraced to define the sample size:

$$\mathbf{n_i = (N_i / N) * n}$$

n_i = sample size

n = required sample size

Ni = population of the participants

N = the entire population

The following Table.1 displays the details in selecting stratified samples for two population groups:

Table 1: Stratified samples details

Teachers	Classifications	Population	Sample
English teachers	Thai	62	42
	Non-Thai	123	84
Non-English teachers	Thai	165	108
	Non-Thai	48	31

Research Instruments

Questionnaire

The findings of this study were retrieved by using an adapted version of the questionnaire designed by Jenkins (2007), which is aimed to explore people's perceptions of language varieties. Following the research objectives, the focus of the questionnaire was on the teachers. The questionnaire used in this study is comprised of two parts. The first part elicits personal information from the participants, which includes sex, age, years of employment, first language, faculty and nationality. The second part of the questionnaire consists of five items aiming to elicit how the teachers perceive four varieties of accents in terms of their pleasantness, familiarity, correctness, and acceptability for international communication (Jenkins, 2007). Following this, the lecturers were asked to respond to a series of statements on attitudes, which focused on these following four items:

Item 1: The accent of my student is pleasant.
Item 2: The accent of my student is familiar.
Item 3: The accent of my student is correct.
Item 4: The accent of my student is acceptable for international communication

The questionnaire uses a 5 point Likert Scale in which 1 indicates strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 neutral, 4 agree and 5, strongly agree. In addition, part two of the questionnaire also includes space for additional comments after the evaluation of each accent.

Semi-Structured Interview

Data was also obtained from a semi-structured interview in which five lecturers of each group of the samples were randomly selected and requested for the interview at their willingness. It is commonly believed that the interview data serves as the confirmation and enhancement of the

data gained from the questionnaire. In this study, the interview was equipped with open-ended questions which covered the area of the current study and its objectives. In addition, the researcher divided the interview framework into two themes: attitudes towards accents in general and preference for the accents.

Data Collection

Questionnaire Data Collection

The data collection of this study was carried out during the third week of April which was during the second semester of the academic year 2016 at Assumption university of Thailand, Bangna Campus. Prior to the administration of the questionnaire, the informed consents were issued to the head offices of the two groups of samples. With the valuable assistance and permission from the departments, the questionnaires were distributed to the samples through the secretaries of their departments. Each teacher respondent was asked to complete the questionnaire and encouraged to return it to the head office at earliest convenience. Additionally, the questionnaire required approximately 5 minutes to complete.

Interview Data Collection

Upon their approvals and willingness to participate in the interview, five lecturers from English language major and another five from non-English major were randomly selected to take part in semi-structured interview which was conducted in English. As for Thai lecturers, they were allowed to use the preferred language at their convenience. All responses given by the interviewees were recorded by audio equipment. To prevent any biased or prejudicial views, the interviewees were not given considerable information about the current study. Lastly, the interviewees were ensured that their anonymities were protected by invented names and all their personal data was kept confidentially.

Data Analysis

Questionnaire Data Analysis

The main statistical procedure utilized for data analysis was the SPSS program with the attempt to retrieve means and standard deviations. Subsequently, the statistical data was interpreted by using the data interpretation scales prescribed by Sri-saard (2002) in which

Mean 1.00 – 1.49 = most negative attitudes

Mean 1.50 – 2.49 = negative attitudes

Mean 2.50 – 3.49 = neutral attitudes

Mean 3.50 – 4.49 = positive attitudes

Mean 4.50 – 5.00 = most positive attitudes

Additionally, the results were tabulated and presented in response to the research objectives.

Interview Data Analysis

The interviewees' responses were transcribed into verbatim English and presented in the following section, all of which were categorized under two different themes for content analysis. Then, the data obtained from the two groups of sample was analyzed and interpreted in order to determine the extent to which English teachers and non-English teachers adopt the ideology of English as a lingua franca.

Findings

Quantitative Data (Questionnaire Results)

Research Question 1: English Teachers' Attitudes towards Students' English Accents

The quantitative data indicates that English language teachers' attitudes were neutral towards most accents because their total mean values did not surpass the neutral point (2.50 - 3.49). Nevertheless, it appears that an exception goes to Burmese accent, for being rated exclusively with positive evaluations in every attribute reaching 3.55 for total mean score. The following Table 2 presents the overall mean values and standard deviations of the four accents as perceived by English language teachers:

Table 2: Overall mean values and standard deviations of the four English accents (N=126)

Attributes	Non-Native English Accents			
	Thai	**Chinese**	**Korean**	**Burmese**
Pleasant	3.32(0.73)	3.16(0.74)	3.47(0.71)	3.54(0.74)
Familiar	3.93(0.72)	3.27(0.78)	3.47(0.64)	3.52(0.70)
Correct	2.83(0.73)	2.96(0.77)	3.15(0.71)	3.43(0.71)
Acceptable	3.53(0.77)	3.46(0.66)	3.46(0.77)	3.71(0.70)
Total	3.40(0.35)	3.21(0.33)	3.38(0.33)	3.55(0.36)

Research Question 2: Non-English Teachers' Attitudes towards Students' English Accents

Based on the total mean scores, the overall attitudes of non-English language teachers towards four expanding-circle accents appear considerably identical to those of English language teachers, which can be interpreted as shown in Table 3. It is obvious that the respondents felt neutral to most of the accents since the total mean scores given to each accent are at the point of neutrality (2.50 - 3.49). The only accent that outshines the others is Burmese English accent, which was rated positively in every attribute with a total mean value of 3.59.

Table 3: Overall mean values and standard deviations of the four English accents (N=139)

Attributes	Non-Native English Accents			
	Thai	**Chinese**	**Korean**	**Burmese**
Pleasant	3.34(0.75)	2.84(0.72)	3.19(0.63)	3.51(0.77)
Familiar	4.00(0.78)	3.03(1.03)	3.25(0.70)	3.60(0.69)
Correct	2.55(0.60)	2.63(0.77)	3.06(0.62)	3.52(1.82)
Acceptable	3.38(0.69)	3.14(0.82)	3.48(0.64)	3.76(0.73)
Total	3.31(0.31)	2.91(0.29)	3.24(0.61)	3.59(0.28)

Qualitative Data (Semi-Structured Interview Results)

Due to the space limitation, this paper will only present interview findings from two teachers from each sample group.

Research Question 1: English Teachers' Attitudes towards Students' English Accents

Attitudes towards English accents in general. To elicit the teachers' overall attitudes, they were asked whether they feel that some English accents are better than others. The interviewers expressed their strong belief that no English accent should be seen as a better or a superior accent. Their responses also suggest that mutual intelligibility and successful communication should be prioritized. The following excerpts are the specimens of such views:

> Example 1:
> "I don't usually judge if some accents are better than others including those four accents from the survey. For me if it's clear and understandable, I will consider that it's good. Some Asian students might have American or British accents and it's good for them to have those accents because most people might prefer to hear native accents. For me, understanding of message comes first. Somehow, when I teach English, I won't teach non-native English accent to my students for sure. It's

definitely native English that should be aimed and taught. But in term of spoken interaction, that's another story. As long as we understand each other, that's it." (Interviewee A)

Example 2:

"I think we should not say that this accent is better than or superior to that accent. I understand that we are not native speakers of English, so I'm okay with all my students' accents. I don't expect them to speak 100 percent correct grammar or native-like accent. I always try to understand what my students say. They also do the same. I mean people tend to have different background, since they come from different places where English is not their mother tongue. So we all speak with some accents. And in real life conversation, everyone tries to understand each other and it is much more important that our mutual intelligibility is met." (Interviewee B)

Preference for the accents. The interviewees were asked what accents they aim at their students when using English. Their harmonious responses indicate a significant preference for native English, yet they did not have objection or negation against their students' non-native accents. The following quote is an instance of this view:

Example 3:

"I always encourage British or American English if it has a lot to do with learning target. But in term of spoken language, it doesn't really matter, you know if people recognize your foreign accent: Thai or Chinese, for example. As long as my students speak well and manage to communicate effectively, that's more important than speaking English with native accent." (Interviewee A)

Example 4:

"Well as an English teacher, I prefer standard RP. I'm thinking that it's important for students to get correct input and produce correct output. But then again, it's important that they can communicate and communication is the main focus. So, I would say any accent that makes them comfortable to speak; it's acceptable. But I wish they could master native English accent and be able to use it at the end of the

day." (Interviewee B)

Research Question 2: Non-English Teachers' Attitudes towards Students' English Accents

Attitudes towards English accents in general. When asked whether there are better English accents, their responses seem to resemble with those of English teachers since they pointed to the importance of communicative success and mutual intelligibility. These attitudes can be seen in the following excerpts:

Example 5:

"No. Every accent has its own style. If you talk about accents, for me, there's no accent that is better than the others. Many people would say the accents of the mother tongue speakers are preferable and I don't disagree that it's true when it comes to teaching as well as learning. Native English is definitely the goal, but it's also up to the learners. But again, if you talk about accent, nothing is better than the others. I mean there is no global standard that tells which accent is the best. People have different culture and background so they speak with different accents. Every accent is acceptable to me if they are understandable." (Interviewee C)

Example 6:

"Well, for me, it's a no. Because every accent is the same; no accent is better than others. But it's important that we should be aware of theses English varieties. Luckily, I've been teaching here in ABAC for some time, so I expose myself to many accents of my students here. And they still speak English anyway no matter what accent they have. It's still English. We can understand each other. That's it. And many ABAC students are very good at English and have no problem in confronting English conversation most of the time. The point is we use English to communicate and we should focus on successful communication and understanding, period." (Interviewee D)

Preference for the accents. When asked what accents are preferred by the teachers, they reflected in their responses that they had some preference for native English varieties despite the fact that they were not opposed to the students' whose first language accents could be recognized through spoken English. The following quotes are of such opinions:

Example 7:

"It made me think differently, you know, about the use of English. I used to think that American or British English are the only correct accents before. But now English is used internationally and used to communicate with people around the world. Speaking with non-native accents is not the point here, as long as they don't cause misunderstanding among us. Things changed nowadays. But I still believe native English must be the goal for language learners and teachers." (Interviewee C)

Example 8:

"Well, I wish, I must say, I wish that they could speak with native accents like American, British, or Australian because these are the most intelligible accents for me. They are like standards for English. Somehow native accents may not be that intelligible if used among non-native speakers according to my experience. So, I would say, again, any accent is fine for me as long as we can understand each other." (Interviewee D)

Discussion and Implications

It is interesting to see from the ample evidence that English and non-English teachers shared significant similarities in their attitudes albeit some differences in statistical data. That is, their attitudes were mostly neutral towards non-native English accents used by their students and even positive for Burmese accent despite the abundance of previous studies that unveiled the less positive perceptions of non-native English accents among English users both native and non-native. Furthermore, the participants seemed to prioritize mutual intelligibility and success in communication rather than the quality of language, as found in the interviews. Although native-like accents are not necessarily the most intelligible in an international communication (Jenkins, 2005, 2007; Walker, 2010), they still remain the ultimate goal for language pedagogy as pointed out by the participants.

Based on the findings, it is implied that in international or multilingual contexts where English is used as a lingua franca or international language, the goal of lingua franca approach should be adopted. As initiated by Kirkpatrick (2012), the approach suggests the goal of using English as a lingua franca is mainly to be able to communicate successfully in multilingual and multicultural settings. As a consequence, it is crucial now for both teachers and students to be

alerted to which linguistic features provoke unintelligibility and communicative failure (Kirkpatrick, 2012). Concerning English pedagogy, components of English curriculum that follow lingua franca approach should include varieties of culture that suit the local concerns and contexts of teaching and learning (Kirkpatrick 2012). Furthermore, students should be taught the communicative strategies capable of assisting successful cross-cultural communication. As for English teachers, intercultural knowledge can also be enhanced in students by a number of means: social media, movies, or songs. Increasing training in this area may help teachers to aid students in linguistic and cultural diversity challenges.

Although the native English varieties have been deeply entrenched by both teachers and learners, it is suggested that language teaching and learning should be supplemented with the focus on effective communication across linguistic and cultural boundaries rather than applying a monolithic, codified model (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Thus, students and teachers, both English and non-English, should be exposed or constantly expose themselves to varieties of English apart from native varieties. In an international context, teachers and students are prone to interact with interlocutors of multilingual and multicultural backgrounds. English knowledge should be supplemented by communicative and intercultural competence as they are equally important in international communication (Baker, 2012). In addition, it is suggested educational administrators should organize teacher development programs or training courses that suit local purpose (Seidlhofer, 2011) so as to equip teachers, particularly non-English teachers, with critical understanding of the nature of the language and its use in pedagogic practices.

Recommendation for Future Research

Based on Kachru's concentric circles of English, four accent varieties are chosen for attitude investigation consist of Thai English, Chinese English, Korean English, and Burmese English accents. In order to gain clearer understandings of teachers' attitudes towards their students' English accent varieties, it is recommended that the future research should include more accent varieties since teachers have ample opportunity to interact with other students who have different accents other than the current four.

In the future research related to attitudes towards varieties of English accent, it might be a great idea to develop several methods and instruments to triangulate data. Since two main research instruments of this study were questionnaire and semi-structured interview, there were some complaints from the teacher respondents about the unavailability of accent sample which caused difficulty for some teachers in generalizing the characteristics of the accents varied in

students. Therefore, the possible future research is suggested to employ verbal-guise test which involves playing recorded speech samples of different accents to the participants and having them rate their impression for the speakers based on stereotypical attributes.

The present study did not bring teachers' demographic data into focus; it might be interesting to examine whether demographic variables such as age, sex, education and cultural backgrounds have relationship with teachers' attitudes towards students' varieties of English accent. Furthermore, since this study merely focused the attitudes of teachers from two different majors, it is recommended that the future research could examine the attitudes of students from two different majors towards their teachers' English accents. Additionally, it might prove interesting for the future research to investigate accent attitudes of teachers who do not teach in international context.

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Developing Autonomous Learning Process for Public Speaking in English Class: A Conceptual Framework

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Abstract

For public speaking in English classes, speech anxiety poses a great challenge to develop students' public speaking ability. At the same time, there has also been a push towards learner-centered classrooms, a term often associated with learner autonomy, as depicted in the Thailand Quality Framework (TQF). However, the literature on training to develop students' public speaking ability while fostering learner autonomy is still limited. This paper, which is a part of an ongoing research project, therefore proposes a framework to develop autonomous learning in public speaking in English classrooms. The proposed synthesized framework based on Benson (1997), Oxford (2003), and Murase (2015) and related literature, consists of four dimensions which are technical, psychological, political-critical, and sociocultural. The study's implications for classroom applications and future studies are also discussed.

Keywords: learner autonomy, public speaking ability

Introduction

As citizens of Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Community, Thai students are required to have the ability to use English in all educational levels. However, English language education in Thailand lags behind other countries. In 2017, Thai students ranked 15th out of 20 countries in Asia, and 53rd out of 80 countries signifying low English proficiency (EF English Proficiency Index, 2017). Although this ranking increased from 62nd place in 2016 (very low English proficiency), Thailand's English proficiency is still considerably low comparing to other countries. Fundamentally, the level of language proficiency directly relates to students' ability to communicate in English. For this reason, communication ability, particularly public speaking ability, is central to this study.

One major challenge to develop public speaking ability is students' speech anxiety. The term speech anxiety refers to "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey, 1977, p.78). Though a significant number of students suffer from speech anxiety, studies regarding strategies to help students overcome such anxiety remain limited (Bodie, 2010).

Focusing on Thai context, Thai students in speaking classes reported that they did not have confidence to speak English with international speakers as they were afraid of making mistakes (Boonkit, 2010). Unwillingness to communicate in English is also believed to be one factor leading to lack of confidence to speak in the target language (Forman, 2005). Another challenge in English language education in Thailand concerns methods to develop students' English skills when students' language use in and out of class is solely Thai (Sa-Ngiamwibool, 2010; Suwannopharat & Chinokul, 2015).

Additionally, the push towards student-centered classrooms rather than teacher-centered classrooms as part of educational reforms (Office of the National Education Commission, 1999) also calls for the need to integrate autonomous learning to meet the specifications of Thailand Qualification Framework (TQF). Therefore, this study proposes to adopt the concept of autonomous learning into public speaking classes. To develop public speaking ability, it is believed that a certain degree of learner autonomy is applied because each speech depends upon the students' responsibility and capacity to manage their own learning in order to prepare and practice their speeches in and out of classes.

Hence, this paper aims to propose the conceptual framework to develop

autonomous learning process (ALP) for public speaking in English classes. As part of an ongoing research, the goals of the ALP are to increase the level of learner autonomy as well as to improve students' public speaking ability.

Review of the Literature

What is Learner Autonomy?

Central to the concept of learner autonomy is learner-centered approaches which started since 1970s (Benson, 2012). Contrary to teacher-centered classrooms, students in learner-centered classrooms are actively involved in their own learning processes (Nunan & Lamb, 2001). This involvement signifies students' responsibility in knowledge creation to form understandings from their own discovery (Knowlton, 2000; Nunan, 1999). For a language classroom to be considered learner-centered, it should aim at both language content goal as well as learning process goal (Nunan & Lamb, 2001). Learner-centered approaches therefore directly relate to pedagogy of learner autonomy.

Learner Autonomy is most popular defined by Holec (1981) as "the ability to take charge of their own learning" (p.3) which requires learners' responsibility over all aspects of their learning process. In a practical sense, however, learners may not have full competence or ability to take charge of their own learning because most aspects of learning are established by institutions. Benson (2011) then further defined learner autonomy as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (p.58) as the construct "control" can be more open to investigation than Holec's constructs of "charge" and "responsibility".

Additionally, it is also believed that a support measure such as learner training is needed to develop learner autonomy (Smith, 2008). Indeed, it is important that learners are explicitly trained on the use of learning strategies for the link between learning strategies and learner autonomy is evident (Wenden, 1991).

Dimensions of Learner Autonomy

From the literature, definitions of learner autonomy can be complex and varied and is often viewed as multidimensional (Benson, 1997; Little, 1991; Pennycook, 1997). For this reason, it is worthwhile to examine learner autonomy through different dimensions. Components of learner autonomy based on different dimensions are also briefly explained.

Earliest in the literature to explore varying versions of learner autonomy is Benson (1997). His versions of learner autonomy can be identified as technical, psychological, and political. To elaborate, technical versions focus on learning management or the situational conditions of learner autonomy while psychological version focuses individual characteristics such as attitudes and behaviors. A political version focuses on the learning content or competing ideologies (Benson, 1997, 2011; Oxford, 2003). However, the versions of learner autonomy were later criticized by Benson himself as being less useful because political version is regarded as more idealized than the other two. In practice, autonomy is best evaluated with reference to learners' goals and desire (Benson, 2011; Oxford, 2003).

Another perspective on the dimensions of learner autonomy is Littlewood's (1996) three-stage model for the development of learner autonomy. In this model, autonomy is also viewed as learners' ability to take responsibility for their own learning (Benson, 2011). Littlewood's (1996) dimensions comprise language acquisition, learning approach, and personal development. Autonomy of language acquisition is understood as autonomy of a communicator while autonomy of learning approach is seen as autonomy of a learner. Finally, autonomy of language competence and autonomy of learning approach competence lead to a higher order goal which is autonomy of a person (Benson, 2011).

Similar to Littlewood (1996), Macaro (1997) also proposed the three dimensions of L2 autonomy which are autonomy of language competence, autonomy of language learning competencies, and autonomy of learner choice. In Macaro (1997), autonomy of language competence means "learners move gradually towards competence to generate their own utterances" (Macaro, 2008, p.50). Moreover, autonomy of language learning competencies involves learners' ability to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Lastly, autonomy of choice or having control over learners' language learning means they not only take control over their learning but also the goal and the purpose of that learning (Macaro, 2008).

Furthermore, Oxford (2003) expanded Benson's (1997) versions of autonomy in an attempt to develop a more systematic model of autonomy. The previous models in the literature, in Oxford's view, still lacked crucial elements. With the expansion, Oxford's (2003), model of language learner autonomy comprises four dimensions or perspectives which are technical, psychological, political-critical, and sociocultural. Also, central to

Oxford's model of learner autonomy are the four themes which Benson (1997) did not address (Oxford, 2003). The themes are L2 learning context, agency or learners' sense of self and power, L2 learning motivation, and learning strategies (Oxford, 2003).

For Oxford (2003), in a technical dimension, autonomy is viewed as the skills conducive for independent learning situations. The psychological dimension focuses on the combination of learners' characteristics such as attitudes, ability, learning strategies, and styles. Benson's (1997) political version of autonomy is expanded into political-critical dimension in Oxford (2003) where the focus is placed on power, access, and ideology. This is in line with Pennycook (1997) who suggested that development of autonomy involves learners becoming the owner of their own world. An additional dimension in Oxford's model is sociocultural dimension which involved socially mediated learning. In this sense, learner autonomy can be developed through interdependence and social mediated learning processes (Benson, 2007)

Comparisons of major models of learner autonomy from the literature can be summarized in the following table (Table 1).

Table 1: Models of Learner Autonomy from the Literature

Models of Learner Autonomy	**Components**
Versions of Learner Autonomy (Benson, 1997)	• Technical Versions • Psychological Versions • Political Versions
Three-Stage Model (Littlewood, 1996)	• Autonomy of language acquisition • Autonomy of learning approach • Autonomy of language competence
Three Dimensions of L2 Autonomy (Macaro, 1997)	• Autonomy of language competence • Autonomy of language learning competencies • Autonomy of learner choice
The Model of Language Learner Autonomy (Oxford, 2003)	• Technical Perspective • Psychological Perspective • Political-critical Perspective • Sociocultural Perspective

For the purpose of assessment, Murase (2015) adapted Oxford's (2003) model and added sub-dimensions of autonomy. However, the model merely aims at learner autonomy

in general without direct implications for specific skills. Adjustments to the model is still needed so as to be applicable for classroom practices. In the next section, the relationship between learner autonomy and public speaking ability, especially in the Thai context, is discussed.

Learner Autonomy and Public Speaking Ability

As stated earlier, a certain degree of learner autonomy is applied in public speaking ability improvement since each speech requires students' capacity to manage their own learning. Such learning management entails learners' capacity to appropriately select topic, strategically plan speech outline, carefully prepare speech content and speaking notes, attentively rehearse, and enthusiastically deliver the speech. Public speaking ability requires not only speaking skills but also learners' motivation to speak, critical thinking skills, creativity, and social interaction skills to engage their audience. However, literature regarding learner autonomy and public speaking ability remain limited.

In Thailand, many public speaking classes at the university level require students to deliver individual speeches throughout the semester. Individual tasks can be challenging for Thai students as it is more customary to work on tasks as a group. This group-oriented customary practice might stem from the nature of Asian classrooms which are believed to be collectivist (Hoftstede, 1991; Littlewood, 1999). The implication is that Thai students may not be accustomed to speaking their mind especially in front of the class which can lead to anxiety.

Although Thai university students experience anxiety at varying stages, the highest level of anxiety was found in the performance stage. It was suggested that speech anxiety can be experienced regardless of proficiency or perceived proficiency level (Plangkham & Porkaew, 2012). In another study, findings suggested that Thai students feel incompetent when speaking in the public setting especially with strangers (Dilbeck, McCroskey, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2009). Thus, although many universities in Thailand offer a public speaking course as either a requirement or an elective course, students tend to avoid taking the course as they fear giving a speech, even if it is just for the classroom (Plangkham & Porkaew, 2012).

In sum, regardless of learners' language competency, public speaking ability is regarded as a major challenge for Thai university students. Hence, it is worthwhile to

explore the ways to which students can become better speakers so as to benefit the learners not only academically but also professionally.

Proposed Conceptual Framework: Autonomous Learning Process (ALP) for Public Speaking Ability

In this section, the proposed conceptual framework, consisting of four dimensions and their sub-dimensions, based on Benson (1997), Murase (2015), Oxford (2003) and related literature, is explained. The fundamental reason for exploring all four dimensions of learner autonomy is that all four dimensions are interconnected (Benson, 1997; Murase, 2015; Oxford, 2003) which should be examined in a holistic manner.

For the proposed Autonomous Learning Process (ALP), the emphasis is placed on Oxford (2003) because it is viewed as the most comprehensive comparing to others in the literature. However, it is noted that Oxford (2003) only offered the four dimensions of learner autonomy as a systematic model without the sub-dimensions. The sub-dimensions proposed here derived from integration of learner autonomy and public speaking pedagogy from the existing literature as well as the author's observations in public speaking classrooms. It should be noted that the ALP in this paper is not to be treated as a linear process. Rather, it is intended as a learner training program with a focus on learning strategies pedagogy where each dimension can be developed simultaneously.

Technical Dimension

The first dimension is the Technical Dimension. Benson (1997) originally depicted technical versions of learner autonomy as the situations where learners take charge of their own learning beyond the classroom. The main issue is how to equip learners with necessary skills and techniques in order for them to learn independently. In line with Benson (1997), Oxford (2003) explained technical perspective on learner autonomy as situational condition conducive for autonomy to develop. For this, an effective learning strategy instruction is called for. For the ALP, the technical dimension focuses on behaviors of autonomous learners which places emphasis on the use of learning strategies namely cognitive and metacognitive strategy.

Cognitive Strategy

As guided by Macaro (2008), the development of learner autonomy concerns learners' strategic behavior and strategic plans. Within the ALP, cognitive strategy refers to learners' thought processes which allow them to manage the information presented to them (Hedge, 2000). Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) also characterized the use of cognitive strategy to include strategies of identification, comprehension, grouping, retention, and storage of language material. In this sense, students in public speaking classrooms should be explicitly trained on learning strategies essentials for public speaking ability so that they have capacity to manage their topic selection, content preparation, speech rehearsal, and speech delivery from their knowledge creation and discovery.

Metacognitive Strategy

Another sub-dimension in the Technical Dimension is metacognitive strategy. For Oxford (1990), metacognitive strategy includes centering their own learning, arranging and planning their own learning, and evaluating their own learning. For the ALP, learners' use of metacognitive strategy implies the ability to reflect. Indeed, reflection on the learning process is considered one integral part of autonomous learning (Benson, 2011; Little, 1997). In this ALP, metacognitive strategy can be developed through the consistent use of self-reflection after each speech. In practice, learner training with regards to reflection practice is also needed. Through reflection training and guided questions for self-reflection, learners can reflect not only on the speech they delivered but also the learning strategy involved. Through self-reflection, learners are expected to learn how to learn and to have a better understanding of themselves.

Psychological Dimension

Another dimension in the ALP is the Psychological Dimension. Linking to Holec's (1981) definition of learner autonomy, learners' capacity to manage their own learning is dependent upon learners' psychological capacities (Benson, 2007; Little, 1991). For Oxford (2003), such capacities signify learners' mental and emotional characteristic. From the literature, mental and emotional autonomous characteristics also include motivation (Breen & Mann, 1997; Dörnyei, 1994; Ryan & Deci, 2000), and self-confidence (Cotterall, 1995). In the ALP, to develop public speaking ability, students

should be trained on affective strategy, motivation, and confidence.

Affective Strategy

In the Psychological Dimension, learners' capacity to use affective strategy to cope with their affective stage is crucial (Murase, 2015). Oxford (1990) specified the use of affective strategy to include lowering one's anxiety, encouraging oneself, and taking one's emotional temperature. Since speech anxiety is prominent among students, they should be well trained on the strategy to cope with such anxiety both physically and mentally. For instance, physical training can be muscle relaxation before the speech while mental training can be positive visualization.

Confidence

Connected to affective strategy is learners' confidence. Indeed, one characteristic of autonomous learners is learners' confidence in the learning ability (Cotterall, 1995). This is because such confidence can lead to learning success (Wenden, 1991). On the contrary, learners' lack of confidence can be considered as a constraint to the development of learner autonomy (Swatevacharkul, 2014). Level of confidence is also an essential determinant of public speaking ability. For the ALP, it is believed that once learners develop self-confidence, learner autonomy as well as public speaking ability can also be developed.

Motivation

The third sub-dimension in the Psychological Dimension is motivation. Motivation directly relates to learner autonomy because enhanced motivation can prompt learners to take responsibility for their learning (Benson, 2007; Ushioda, 1996). In other words, motivation is a drive towards learners' goal. Motivation can be intrinsic which is derived from personal satisfaction or extrinsic which is controlled by other external factors (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Though intrinsic motivation is crucial to autonomous learning process, extrinsic motivation can also be internalized through support from teachers and peers (Yashima, 2014). Motivation is also important to public speaking ability improvement because students' motivation determines students' direction in each speech they pursue from their topic selection process to their speech delivery.

Political-Critical Dimension

The next dimension is Political-Critical Dimension which focuses on learners' sense of self and identity. Influenced by the Critical Theory, Benson's (1997) political versions of learner autonomy emphasizes learners' right to exercise control over the languages they learn and the ways they use the language. Following Pennycook (1997), development of learner autonomy also concerns learners becoming "an author of their own world" (p. 45) which implies learners' sense of self and identity. In relations to public speaking ability, self and identity can be expressed as students' creativity and critical thinking skills over the speech contents. In this ALP, the main emphasis is placed on creativity and critical thinking skills.

Creativity

The first sub-dimension in the Political-Critical Dimension is creativity. Tin (2013) explained creativity as the human ability which includes the need to make new meaning and 'do things that are beyond them' (p. 388). Creativity can also be understood as originality and adaptability (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). In this regard, learners' expression of self is an exercise of creativity. Indeed, learners' compulsion for creativity is conducive to the development of learner autonomy. For public speaking, creativity development helps learners to have original ideas for the speech. Learners also learn to be adaptive to various speech situations which involve a high degree of self-awareness and personalization. Creativity and personalization are undoubtedly crucial for public speaking ability development from the process of selecting the speech topic, gathering supporting materials, to speech delivery (Lucas, 2015).

Critical Thinking Skills

Another sub-dimension is critical thinking skills or criticality, which is considered one characteristic of autonomous learners. Along the same line, Raya, Lamb and Vieira (2007) also suggest that "the competence to think critically is coextensive with the notion of autonomy and self-sufficiency" (p. 43). In other words, autonomy entails learners' ability to take a stance, form opinions, and make judgments regarding what they are learning. For public speaking, critical thinking is especially important for persuasive speeches. To

convince others, critical thinking plays a vital role. Training of critical thinking skills can help students develop a standpoint. Students also acquire the skills to judge the credibility of the materials they use in their speech.

Sociocultural Dimension

The last is Sociocultural Dimension, which is grounded on the view that learner autonomy can be developed through interdependence or social interactions (Benson, 2007; Little, 1991). Based on Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory of human mental processing, language learning is socially mediated as interactions facilitate the learning process. Public speaking is considered a social function as speakers need to be able to interact with their audience. For this purpose, Sociocultural Dimension in the ALP focuses on learner interdependence and social interactions. Sociocultural Dimension therefore comprises of social strategy and collaboration.

Social Strategy

As learner autonomy can be developed interdependently, students' ability to use social strategy to aid their learning is important (Murase, 2015). Use of social strategy often includes strategy to ask questions, cooperate with others, and empathize with others (Oxford, 1990). Public speaking also requires speakers' understanding of audience which is often referred to as audience analysis. In the ALP, students can be trained on the use of various social strategy to interact with others through group work tasks. Especially, when the tasks require learners to interact in the target language, learners can also practice speaking naturally. Moreover, through interactions, students also gain better insights into their classmates' thoughts and feelings which can in turn help them to prepare their speech to suit the audience better.

Collaboration

The last sub-dimension is collaboration, for the reason that collaborative decision making within the learning groups can foster learner autonomy (Little, 1996). In addition, collaborative work, whether in pairs or in groups can benefit the development of learner autonomy (Benson, 2011). For the ALP, learner interdependence through collaboration can include the exchange of constructive feedback among learners such as peer feedback

after each speech. It is noted that learners should be trained on the provision of feedback especially when learners are not accustomed to criticism by their peers. Constructive feedback can then benefit learners so as to improve their speech.

In summary, the ALP for public speaking ability consists of four dimensions of learner autonomy which are Technical, Psychological, Political-Critical, and Sociocultural. All four dimensions are interconnected and each of the dimensions includes several sub-dimensions based on the literature review. Therefore, the proposed ALP can be summarized in Figure 1.

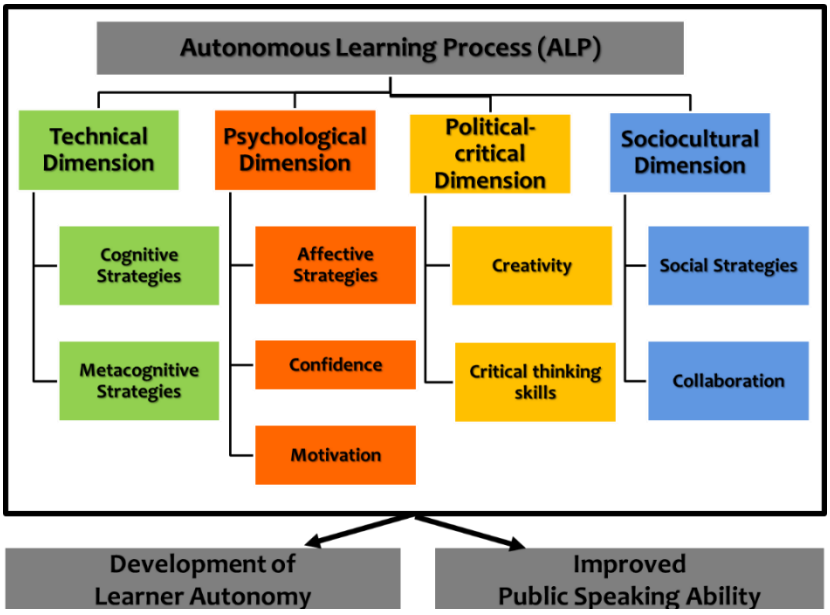

Figure 1: The Proposed Autonomous Learning Process (ALP) for Public Speaking Ability

Implications and Future Research

Since studies on public speaking ability and development of learner autonomy is still limited, especially in Thailand, this paper proposes a conceptual framework as an attempt to provide some guidelines for teaching and learning of public speaking as well as other classes where oral presentation skills is essential. It is hoped that an integration of public speaking ability improvement and learner autonomy development can shed light on underexplored areas. Concerning its applicability to classroom practices, the proposed Autonomous Learning Process (ALP) is intended as a basis to design learner training for

public speaking and oral presentation classrooms. Activities for learning strategy training should include training on learning strategies relevant to public speaking ability and reflection training that is conducive to the development of learner autonomy.

However, ALP is only a preliminary conceptual framework based on the literature; empirical evidences are needed to support its effectiveness. Exploration of the magnitude of the effect size of the ALP on the level of learner autonomy and public speaking ability is also needed. Furthermore, research instruments to measure degree of learner autonomy and public speaking ability must be developed to complement the ALP. It is noted that instrument development for the ALP for public speaking ability will be the next phase of this ongoing research. Finally, it is also hoped that ALP can be applied to various ELT classrooms to promote other skills beyond solely public speaking ability.

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A Study of Language Learning Strategy Use Perceived by International Junior High School Students in Thailand

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Abstract

It has been unanimously accepted that in order to improve language proficiency and success in language learning, employing appropriate language learning strategy (LLS) is required (Oxford, 1990). Additionally, LLS is one of the topics that is promoted in the 21st century learning with the objective to follow complex global challenges. Therefore, this paper aims to identify the range of LLS use perceived by international junior high school students in Bangkok, Thailand and the reasons why the subjects used particular LLS the most and the least. The subjects were 136 international junior high school students who were non-native English speakers. This study applied an explanatory mixed methods design. Quantitative research was applied to collect data from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), which consisted of thirty questions divided into six sub-strategies. Then, a semi-structured interview was conducted to gain insight and support the quantitative data. The findings indicated that the overall LLS was moderately used (M = 3.02, SD = 0.76). Further analysis showed that students used cognitive strategies the most which were rated in a high range (M = 3.54, SD = 0.65), followed by a medium range of metacognitive strategies (M = 3.45, SD = 0.86), compensation strategies (M = 3.21, SD = 0.68), social strategies (M = 2.88, SD = 0.90) and affective strategies (M = 2.57, SD = 0.84) respectively. However, students were low users of memory strategies (M = 2.46, SD = 0.73). The findings also revealed that students' age, exposure of English language and the backwash effect directly affected their LLS use and choice.

Keywords: Language learning strategies, Junior high school students, International school, English language, Foreign language learning

Introduction

Diversity and variation are common features of learners since they have different backgrounds, diverse characteristics, and various learning styles and strategies which influence the way they learn. Consequently, in the language classes, teachers should follow the requirements of the 21st-century learning, which aim to support learners in discovering their LLS and promote student-centered learning, which are the foundations for life-long learning. Generally, language learners need to process a large amount of information in the language classroom. Hence, LLS are good tools for learners to employ during the process of language learning in order to complete tasks or solve problems effectively. In other words, LLS give valuable clues to language teachers about how their learners plan or assess the situation, select appropriate skills, learn or remember new input presented in the language classroom (Hismanoglu, 2000). For more than three decades, researchers all agreed that LLS is a crucial method for language learning because learners who employ a number of LLS usually get a high score on the examination or are classified as high proficient learners (Al-Hebaishi, 2012; Castillo & Córdova, 2014; Ghiasvand, 2010; Oxford, 1990; Zhao, 2009).

Most international schools in Thailand implement student-centered learning where teachers allow students to think outside the box and experience new things by themselves. However, teachers should consider giving junior high school students some time to adapt to the new ways of teaching and learning in order to allow learners to enjoy and learn comfortably, especially, when teachers' roles have been changed from givers to facilitators and supporters. The researcher decided to select junior high school students as the subjects because they are mature enough to think about their future academic studies and future careers. Once, they move to senior high schools or universities, they can apply LLS in each class to prepare themselves for future learning. In general, teaching and learning methods at higher levels are varied on each country, cirriculum, teacher, and subject. Therefore, students should be prepared to learn effectively in diverse teaching and learning situations where LLS play a significant role.

In addition to teachers ability to understand learners' use of LLS, teachers can suggest the use of more strategies that teachers are less likely to use and even develop more orchestrated strategies in order to improve their way of teaching and learning. Recent research on LLS consists dominantly with university students as research subjects (e.g. Al-Hebaishi, 2012; Castillo & Córdova, 2014; Lee, 2010). However, there is limited research investigating the range of LLS of international junior high school students in Thailand. Hence, this scarcity led to this present study.

Research Objectives

1. To investigate the range of LLS use perceived by international junior high school students.
2. To investigate why students reportedly use particular LLS the most and the least.

Research Questions

1. To what extent do international junior high school students perceive the use of language learning strategies?
2. Why do the students reportedly use particular LLS the most and the least?

Literature Review

Definition of Language Learning Strategy

Oxford (1990) identifies LLS as specific actions taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) added that LLS are special thoughts or behaviors that each learner uses to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information. According to McDonough (1999), the term LLS has been used in relation to learning to learn a second language, for instance, using the language for communicating and compensating for a lack of knowledge or communication breakdown. Moreover, students who use LLS can practice a language in macro-skill areas, for example, reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Also, students can cope with difficult elements of language instruction, such as, classroom presentation, instruction, and test taking, better when they employ LLS.

There are many benefits gained from employing LLS, for instance improvement of students' learning attitude and enhancement of their learning motivation (Shuang, 2014). Moreover, Rahimi and Katal (2011) revealed that LLS could reduce confusion and anxiety for students which keep their learners enthusiastic. It has been widely accepted that LLS can significantly develop knowledge skills, control one's own learning in the long term, and sustain favorable attitudes towards language learning which finally leads to life-long learning (Hismanoglu, 2000; Hungyo, 2015; Namwong, 2012; Shuang, 2014). Despite the variety of definitions and systems of LLS, they are still valuable tools that can serve multiple purposes in language learning.

Language Learning Strategies Classification by Oxford (1990)

Oxford (1990) classifies LLS as the most widely used in the language field. She divided strategies into direct and indirect strategies. Both strategies support each other, and each strategy group is capable of connecting with every other strategy group. Figure 1 summarizes Oxford's LLS.

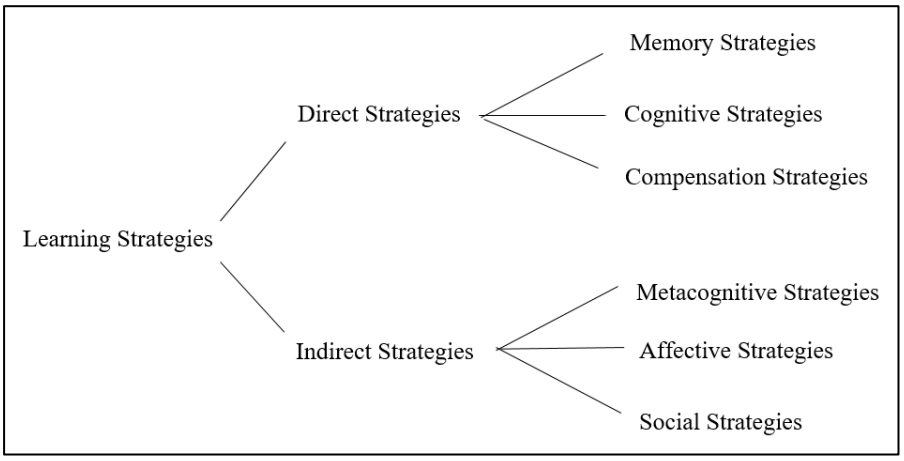

Figure 1: Diagram of Oxford's language learning strategies system

Direct Strategies

Direct strategies are employed to deal directly with language learning in a variety of specific tasks and situations.

- Memory Strategies refer to remembering and retrieving new information, such as grouping or using pictures to help students store and retrieve information.
- Cognitive Strategies help learners to understand and produce the new language, for instance practicing, receiving, analyzing, reasoning and creating a structure for language input and output.
- Compensation Strategies are intended to make up for missing knowledge, for example listening, reading, speaking, writing, using gestures or body language, rephrasing and making guesses based on the context.

Indirect Strategies

Indirect strategies are for general management of learning.

- Metacognitive Strategies are employed for managing the overall learning process, for instance centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating learning.

- Affective Strategies are used to control emotions, motivations, and attitudes, such as lowering anxiety, encouraging oneself and taking the emotional temperature.
- Social Strategies help learners learn through interaction with others. For instance, students ask questions, cooperate with others and empathize with others.

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed an explanatory mixed methods design which collects both quantitative and qualitative data in two successive phases within one study. Quantitative data, which was the main part of this study, utilized the 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning questionnaire (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) was implemented to investigate the range of LLS reportedly used by international junior high school students. Then, a qualitative research was applied to support quantitative findings by collecting data from a purposive semi-structured interview. Additionally, the information was gathered only one time which in term 1, during September 2017.

Subjects

The subjects were 136 international junior high school students who use English as a foreign language. They were studying in Year 8 to Year 10 or Mattayom 1 to 3 in Thai education system. Year 8 students are 12-13 years old, Year 9 students are 13-14 years old, and Year 10 students are 14-15 years old. There were 9 nationalities as shown in Table 1. In terms of gender, 52.21% were female and 47.79% were male. Systematic sampling which is one type of probability sampling methods was applied.

Table 1: Nationalities and Percentage of Subjects

Nationality	Number	Percentage	Nationalities	Number	Percentage
Thai	91	66.90%	Non-Thai	45	33.09%
			Japanese	16	11.76%
			French	11	8.09%
			Israeli	8	5.88%
			Korean	6	4.47%
			Chinese	1	0.74%
			Nepalese	1	0.74%
			Spanish	1	0.74%
			Ukrainian	1	0.74%

Instruments

Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire

The English version 7.0 of SILL was used in this study. Version 7.0 is suitable for students who use English as a foreign language. It was found that the reliability was 0.886 which was acceptable for data collection. Also, the alpha coefficients were well above an acceptable value of 0.94 (Hair, J., Anderson, R., Black, W., & Tatham, R., 1998). Hence, the validation process was well checked for consistency and accuracy. There were thirty questions consisting of six components including memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. Students were asked to rate either ‘always or almost always true of me,' ‘usually true of me,' ‘usually not true of me,' ‘somewhat not true of me’ or ‘never or almost never true of me’ on each statement.

A Semi-Structured Interview

An English semi-structured interview was conducted of 13 purposively selected students who had cognitive strategies as the highest domain or memory strategies as the lowest domain. These 13 students came from 10% of the 136 samples. According to Baker and Edwards (2012), the suggested sample of the interview is 12 students as this number allows adequate chances to plan, conduct, partially transcribe the interview, and generate quotes or excerpt for the research. Furthermore, to assure the quality of the information, the number can be extended slightly. However, more than 12 samples, will be impractical within the customary time constraints. To clarify, five Thai students and one of each other nationality were interviewed to ensure that all the findings were obtained from every nationality. In the case of more than one student of the same nationality, the researcher selected the sample who answered the questions with most clarity. Two questions based on the quantitative results were asked to students during a semi-structured interview as follows:

1. According to your answer from the questionnaire, cognitive strategy is the one that you employ the most. Why? Please explain. (to find out in more detail about why students select that particular language learning strategy)
2. According to your answer from the questionnaire, memory strategy is the one that you employ the least. Why? Please explain. (to find out in more detail about the reason why students use that particular kind of strategy the least)

Data Collection

The questionnaire was administered to students in term 1/2017, September via a Google form during an English lesson in the classroom which took approximately twenty minutes to complete. Before the questionnaire was given out, the researcher had received permission from the head of school, parents, and students. Any student who was not willing to participate was given an opportunity to do so. The researcher clearly explained the subject on how to answer the questionnaires. Moreover, all subjects understood that there were no right or wrong answers and their answers did not affect their grades.

Data Analysis

Scores of 5- point Likert Scale questionnaires were computed to find mean scores and standard deviation (SD). In order to analyze the data from a semi-structured interview, quotes and excerpts were presented to support and elaborate the findings from quantitative findings. According to Oxford (1990), SILL the evaluation criteria of the questionnaire were as follows:

1.0-1.4 means the range of language learning strategies is ‘very low’.
1.5-2.4 means the range of language learning strategies is ‘low’.
2.5-3.4 means the range of language learning strategies is ‘medium’.
3.5-4.4 means the range of language learning strategies is ‘high’.
4.5-5.0 means the range of language learning strategies is ‘very high’.

Findings

The Range of LLS Use Perceived by International Junior High School Students

The data analysis shows that the mean (M) is 3.02 and standard deviation (SD) is 0.76. This means that on average the range of LLS is at a medium level. A further descriptive statistical analysis of each domain was conducted in order to obtain more information and the results are demonstrated in Table 2 with the interpretation of the range of LLS.

Table 2 indicates that on average students are high users of cognitive strategies (M = 3.54, SD = 0.65), followed by the medium range of metacognitive strategies (M = 3.45, SD = 0.86), compensation strategies (M = 3.21, SD = 0.68), social strategies (M = 2.88, SD = 0.90) and affective strategies (M = 2.57, SD = 0.84) respectively. However, they are low users of memory strategies (M = 2.46, SD = 0.73). Apart from the mean of each domain, it is worthwhile exploring the mean of the highest and lowest starategies that students employed.

Table 2: Mean of Each Domain and the Range of LLS

Domain	N	Mean	SD	The range of LLS
Memory Strategies	136	2.46	0.73	Low
Cognitive Strategies	136	3.54	0.65	High
Compensation Strategies	136	3.21	0.68	Medium
Metacognitive Strategies	136	3.45	0.86	Medium
Affective Strategies	136	2.57	0.84	Medium
Social Strategies	136	2.88	0.90	Medium
Total Strategies	**136**	**3.02**	**0.76**	**Medium**

The Highest Strategy Used: Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies were the highest range rated by the subjects. Table 3 displays each statement of cognitive strategies.

From Table 3, students reported that they watch English language TV shows or movies as the highest domain (Item 2, M = 4.39, SD = 0.97), followed by trying to talk like native speakers (Item 1, M = 3.70, SD = 1.17). Students ranged at the medium level of looking for words in their language that are similar to new words in English (Item 5, M = 3.06, SD = 1.35). This also corresponds to the finding that students have moderately skimmed an English passage then go back and read carefully (Item 9, M = 3.27, SD = 1.13). Below are excerpts from a semi-structured interview.

Table 3: Mean of Each Statement of Cognitive Strategies

Domain	Mean	SD	The range of language learning strategies
Cognitive Strategies	**3.54**	**0.65**	**High**
1. I try to talk like native English speakers.	3.70	1.17	High
2. I watch English language TV shows or go to movies spoken in English.	4.39	0.97	High
3. I revise what I write in English to improve my writing.	3.30	1.12	Medium
4. I first skim an English passage (read it quickly) then go back and read carefully.	3.27	1.13	Medium
5. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.06	1.35	Medium

"I prefer to rewrite knowledge learned in my own words for the quiz or exam."
(French student #2)

" I love to learn new vocabularies by watching English news every day so that I know what is going on around the world and learning new vocabularies at the same time." (Spanish student #1)

" I know that I like to learn more when a teacher asks me to find something interesting on the website, magazine or newspapers." (Thai student #4)

"I prefer to note down more explanation from teachers in the textbook or post it and revise them before the examination." (Japanese student #1)

The Lowest Strategy Used by International Junior High School Students

Students reportedly used memory strategies as the lowest range. In other words, students rarely used memory strategies while learning English. Table 4 displays each statement of memory strategies.

According to table 4, students were low users of memory strategies. As can be seen that students were categorized as low users of using rhymes (Item 8, M = 1.86, SD = 0.60) and flashcards (Item 9, M = 1.85, SD = 1.06) to remember new English words. Moreover, students

Table 4: Mean of Each Statement of Memory Strategies

Domain	Mean	SD	The range of language learning strategies
Memory Strategies	**2.46**	**0.73**	**Low**
6. I use new English words in a sentence, so I can remember them.	2.99	0.94	Medium
7. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	2.87	1.20	Medium
8. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	1.86	0.60	Low
9. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	1.85	1.06	Low
10. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	2.73	1.16	Medium

moderately remembered new English words by remembering their location on the page or the board (Item 10, M = 2.7, SD = 1.16). They also moderately used new words learned in a sentence to remember them (Item 6, M = 2.99, SD = 0.94). Below are excerpts from a semi-structured interview.

> *"I know that I need to remember some parts to answer in the examination. But, that was not the major part since the examination always asks us to explain and elaborate. So, from my experiences, truly understand the topic is far better than only remembering."*(Hebrew student #1)

> *"When I remember a lot of information, it seems like everything is mixed up and confusing. I notice that I forget things easily when I try very hard to remember something especially for the quiz."*(French student #1)

> *"I am good at remembering things or topics that I want to learn but if am forced to remember something, I always lose many parts of it."* (Nepalese student #1)

Discussions and Implications

For Research Question1: Moderate use of LLS

The findings of this research correlate to the findings from Chen (2015) whose subjects were junior high school students who employed LLS in a medium level. Similarly, senior high school students from Zhou (2010)'s research were also medium users of LLS. Hence, the explaination might be as follows.

Students' Age as One of the Influential Factors on Strategy Use

Students' age might be one of the factors that affects the medium use of LLS. The age of students is a major factor for teachers' decision about what and how to teach. It is common that students at different ages have different competencies, needs, and cognitive skills. As Sadeghi and Attar (2013) stated that students who are older than twelve (the subjects of this present study) use LLS more practically to enhance their language learning. Moreover, they also found that junior high school students and older are greatly influenced by their own conceptions of language learning rather than by only their teachers. Hence, it correlates with this findings that students have the ability to adapt learned LLS to match the examination or quiz based on their previous

experiences. However, the subjects mentioned *"When I remember a lot of information, it seems like everything is mixed up and confusing. I notice that I forget things easily when I try very hard to remember something especially for the quiz."*(French student #1). This can imply that junior high school students still do not know how to organize and systemize the way of thinking and storing knowledge.

According to Chen (2013), increasing age is likely to encourage learners to use strategies with more emphasis on the social and functional strategies. Therefore, it is possibly concluded that currently the students are in the process of developing LLS. Once they are older, they can use more functional LLS appropriately. As a result, their overall range of LLS is expected to be higher. This might be the reason why their LLS was in a medium range.

This calls for teachers to consider age group preferences for LLS employed and adjust their teaching in a way to meet the students' LLS in learning a foreign language. Additionally, the subjects need more strategy training in order to apply new LLS learned in different situations. Moreover, teachers should provide opportunities for students to exercise different LLS directly in every lesson with a clear explanation which is supported by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), who assert that language learning is related to conscious learning by applying LLS to enhance mastery of the target language. Hence, students need to understand the way and reason of employing LLS in various situations clearly, besides being explicitly taught LLS.

For Research Question 2: High Use of Cognitive Strategies and Low Use of Memory Strategies

Cognitive Strategies as the Most Frequent Use

The subjects of this present study employed cognitive strategies as the highest domain which relates to the findings from Al-Hebaishi (2012) which revealed that their undergraduate students employed cognitive and metacognitive strategies as the two highest domain respectively. However, this finding is completely opposite to the findings from Taiwanese junior high school students since they preferred memory as the highest domain while cognitive strategies were used in the second lowest range (Chen, 2015).

The exposure of English language affects the strategy use. English is considered to be a foreign language in Thailand where Thai students rarely have an opportunity to communicate in English apart from school hours. Int fact, peer influence plays a significant role in helping students use English outside class, especially for high school students. According to Holec

(1981), out-of-class learning develops autonomous learning and improves overall language proficiency. From qualitative findings, self-directed naturalistic learning was employed the most. To elaborate, students reported that they most often watched English language TV shows or went to movies spoken in English, which are under cognitive strategies. Self-directed naturalistic learning means students can enjoy interest-based activities allowing them to learn language simultaneously (Chan, 2016). Hence, the trend of online and mass media, such as movies, TV shows, songs, games or Youtube clips, are excellent sources for students to learn English outside the classroom environment and enjoy tconversations with friends. Self-directed naturalistic learning also develops their communicative competence which requires the ability to participate appropriately in authentic conversations (Chan, 2016).

Additionally, trying to talk like native English speakers were rated in a high range. This might be because the majority of teachers in the school are native English speakers. As a result, students absorb their pronunciation and the way of speaking from these teachers and then try to speak like them. This also relates to the previous question since students can also learn pronunciation from self-directed naturalistic learning. As time goes by, students unconsciously learn LLS in different contexts apart from the classroom setting including vocabulary, sentence structure, idioms, and pronunciation little by little every day. Consequently, cognitive strategies rated high due to their exposure to English language in various forms, as discussed above.

The implication is that teachers should examine students' LLS and interests in order to design current interest-driven classroom learning materials. Moreover, implementing a social media platform can motivate students to explore more English learning opportunities independently.

Memory Strategies as the Least Frequent Use

The subjects reportedly used memory strategies as the lowest domain, which is similar to the findings from Phonhan (2016) where his findings revealed that tertiary subjects also employed memory strategies as the second lowest domain from the overall strategies. One of the reasons might be because the subjects underestimated how often they use memory strategies. This is also supported by Oxford's (1990) statement that language students rarely report using memory strategies because they might not be aware of how often they actually employ memory strategies. For this present study, the backwash effect possibly affects the low use of memory strategies.

The beneficial backwash effect. Backwash is the impact that an examination may have on learners, teachers, and educational systems in general in a society at large (Hughes, 2003). Most of the examinations in school subjects prepare students to be ready for and familiar with the International Baccalaureate or IB program which also follows the objectives of the 21st-century learning. IB aims to develop knowledgeable, inquiring and caring young people who help to create more peaceful and better world through respect and intercultural understanding ("International Baccalaureate," 2017). To follow IB path-ways, the present subjects might underestimate how often they use memory strategies since the nature of the course and examinations mainly promotes critical thinking skills.

English examinations in this school mostly ask students to explain and apply knowledge learned in a broad aspect which appears in the form of open-ended questions. To clarify, students need much less memory strategies compared to other strategies, such as cognitive or metacognitive strategies, in the examination. For instance, a Hebrew student mentioned in the interview that *"I need to remember some parts to answer in the examination. But, that was not the major part since the examination always asks us to explain and elaborate. So, from my experiences, truly understand the topic is far better than only remembering."*

According to Sadeghi and Attar (2013), junior high school students are examination-oriented which definitively supports the present findings that students are quite concerned about their grade. As a result, they adjusted their LLS used and the way of learning in order to receive good results in the examination. From the findings, the subjects gradually learn and find out that only remembering for the examination in this school is not enough. Instead, they need to understand the topic well enough in order to explain and elaborate on their answers. In other words, students might not perceive memory strategies as important strategies especially if the lesson and the examination focus more on other LLS. Therefore, it is clear that there is a positive backwash effect in this study.

The implication is that only teaching and introducing LLS for students might not be effective if the test does not correlate to the way of teaching and learning in each lesson. Hence, it is essential that students should have plenty opportunities to practice the skills before the test. In other words, techniques should be used in learning exercises as well as testing. Furthermore, teachers should take advantage of test backwash to encourage a particular type of LLS used in and out of class.

Conclusion

This study concluded that the 136 students who use English as a foreign language were reported in the medium range. The cognitive strategies were employed the most while memory strategies were used the least. For the discussion part, students' age might be the reason behind the moderate use of overall LLS. The exposure of English language can well explain why the subjects employ cognitive strategies the most while the beneficial backwash effect can support the reason why students employ memory strategies the least. Figure 2 shows the conceptual frame work of this present study.

Recommendations

Teachers

The findings allow an opportunity for ELT teachers and researchers to formulate the intervention plan. It can be concluded that investigating LLS, the aspects of curriculum, teachers, students, and teaching process will contribute significantly to Thai and other countries education. Teachers' awareness of the importance of LLS will contribute to an adjustment and improvement of the teacher's roles and teaching styles in order to develop LLS use of students in the long term.

School Administrators

School administrators can exploit the findings by selecting appropriate pedagogical methods for LLS development since it associates with positive learning outcomes and leads to lifelong learning. It is crucial that teacher training of LLS should be provided so that teachers can see the importance and the advantages of employing them in the language class.

Future Research

More research in the future is required to compare LLS use of high and low proficient learners of international junior high school students to fill the current gap. Also, the comparison of LLS between international and Thai students is suggested. Moreover, an experimental research employing a Think Aloud technique is suggested to collect data on LLS use. Lastly, exploring a relationship among students' ages, the exposure of English language, the backwash effect, and the use of LLS would be beneficial to the English language teaching field.

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Students' Perspectives of Being Peer Mediators in DA-SRS Instructional Process

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Abstract

DA-SRS serves as an instructional process which integrates self-regulatory strategy instruction (SRS) into the implementation of dynamic assessment (DA), with an ultimate goal to improve Thai students' English listening comprehension ability. The objective of this pilot study was to investigate students' perspectives of being peer mediators in the DA-SRS instructional process. By following the DA-SRS process, five students enrolling in the course EN2230 Listening and Speaking were trained to take the role of peer mediators who offered assistance or provided guidance to those having English listening difficulties in a classroom setting. The study used a qualitative research approach using semi-structured interviews to collect data. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed by the method of content analysis. The initial findings revealed that students hold positive perspectives of being peer mediators in the DA-SRS instructional process. Students acquired good learning experiences, leading to several positive outcomes which were the increasing level of learner autonomy and pleasant classroom environment. Apart from serving as a guideline for the training of students to be peer mediators, the initial findings from this study also provide teachers of English and researchers pedagogical implications and recommendations for conducting further investigations on related issues.

Keywords: peer mediator training, dynamic assessment, self-regulatory strategies, English listening skill

Introduction

Listening is an important communicative skill which is considered the most widely used skill in normal daily life. Most researchers have estimated that adults spend as high as 50% of their communication time on listening while approximately 10% on reading and writing (Holden, 2004). In the field of English language acquisition, the listening skill is also necessary for language learning particularly in classrooms because it provides input for learners (Rost, 2002). Chamot, one of the leading researchers in the field of second language acquisition, saw a direct relationship between learning strategies and effective listening skill (Chamot, 1995).

Rationale

Thailand is a country where English is taught as a foreign language or EFL. Although Thai student have studied English language for more than 10 years, their listening skill is considered weak and seems to be the most demanding skill for EFL students (Cubalit, 2016). Considering the teaching of listening comprehension in the Thai educational system, the main focus tends to be the completion of listening task rather than listening development at the Thai university level (Simasangyaporn, 2016). Likewise, Goh (2010) revealed in one of his studies that "listening instruction in many language courses tends to focus almost exclusively in understanding the content of spoken texts, with little time given to teaching about the process of listening and how to listen" (p. 180). As a result, most Thai students still have difficulties with their English listening comprehension skill (Anandapong, 2011; Chonprakay, 2009; Cubalit, 2016).

Being guided by the sociocultural theory (SCT) proposed by Vygotsky (1978), the researcher intended to apply the practice of dynamic assessment (DA) to develop Thai students' English listening comprehension ability. DA refers to a combination of instruction and assessment of learners' cognitive processes, which leads to a better result in language learning performance (Haywood & Lidz, 2007). It deals with the provision of mediation or constant feedback given to students, which helps to correct the students' errors during their learning process and at the same time, recognizes strengths and weaknesses in order to develop intermediate EFL learners' writing ability (Erfani & Nikbin, 2015). According to Dockrell (2001), feedback should be provided to students for their progress in learning outcomes. With the provision of feedback, students can recognize where they have done well and what they should improve. Originally, Vygotskian approaches emphasize more on interactions between teachers and students in the learning process. However, Kaufman and Burden (2004) pointed out that peer-peer interaction can be conducted and applied in a DA classroom. In their study conducted

with a group of young adults with learning disabilities on the effects of mediation training, Kaufman and Burden (2004) noted that with proper training, when the students took on the role as peer tutor mediators, they became friends and the project seemed to be collaborative work rather than peer tutoring. The studies mentioned above prove that peer-peer interaction can be conducted in a classroom setting. This pilot study, therefore, trained five Thai students to be peer mediators in the DA-SRS instructional process, which was an integration of self-regulatory strategy (SRS) instruction into the implementation of DA, with an ultimate goal of developing students' English listening comprehension ability. It was beneficial to investigate students' perspectives of being peer mediators in the DA-SRS instructional process since the results from this pilot study could serve as a guideline to train students to be peer mediators in other related circumstances.

Research Question and its Objective

Since the main objective of this pilot study was to investigate students' perspectives of being peer mediators in the DA-SRS instructional process, the research question put forward was "What are Thai students' perspectives of being peer mediators in the DA-SRS instructional process?" The term "perspective" in the current context refers to the students' feelings when taking the mediator role in the DA-SRS instructional process.

Literature Review

Theoretical Background of DA

According to Lidz and Gindis (2003), DA refers to "an approach to understanding individual differences and their implications for instruction that embeds intervention within the assessment procedure" (p. 99). Two major approaches to DA are interventionist and interactionist (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004). In the interactionist approach, mediation between the examiner and the examinee occurs through a dialogic interaction where the examiner provides hints in according to the examinee's needs (Poehner, 2005). Therefore, hints are not planned in advance. In contrast, the interventionist is a more formal and standardized approach where instruction in the form of pre-fabricated interventions is provided to those who cannot solve items correctly. According to Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002), two forms within interventionist DA are the "sandwich" and the "cake" formats. The sandwich format follows pre-test, intervention, and post-test. The intervention serves as an instruction given to examinees to improve the students' English listening comprehension ability. The cake format, on the other hand, occurs during the test

administration and relies on hint-based instruction to determine how many hints an examinee needs before the correct answer is reached. Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) compared ongoing hints as layers of icing on a cake.

Haywood and Lidz (2007) believed that the provision of mediation, which is important to human development, is one major component aspect of DA application. Generally, a mediator provides mediation in the form of mediating prompts. The mediating prompts used in this study were adapted from Ableeva's (2010) typology of mediator's strategies used to deal with students with listening difficulties in a L2 DA context. Since this study was based on a group DA where one student took the mediator role instead of a teacher, some mediating prompts were adapted to be comprehensible for the students. Table 1 contains five mediating prompts from the most implicit to the most explicit.

Table 1: Mediating Prompts

Level of explicitness	**Mediating prompts**
Prompt 1	Accepting response **Mediator** "Yes, Very good, Ok, That's it". Rejecting response **Mediator** "Did the speaker say that? Are you sure?"
Prompt 2	Replaying the (Replaying a specific detail) **Mediator** "Let's listen to this part again".
Prompt 3	Giving some key words **Mediator** "Here are some key words I am going to give to you".
Prompt 4	Offering choices or a contextual clue such as synonym, antonym, definition, or example **Mediator** "Mosques for Muslims, church for?"
Prompt 5	Providing explicit explanation by distributing the audio transcript with correct response) **Mediator** "The correct answer is……".

Adapted from: Ableeva's (2010) typology of mediator's strategies

When considering the context of this study which consisted of 24 students in class, it was not possible to conduct a one-to-one interaction. Therefore, Poehner's (2009) principle of concurrent group dynamic assessment (G-DA) was applied in this study. In concurrent G-DA, the teacher interacts with the entire class by providing mediation in response to an individual. The role of primary and secondary interactants rapidly changes when that individual fails to give a correct answer (Poehner, 2009).

Theoretical Background of Self-Regulation (SR)

Based on Social Cognitive Theory, Dörnyei (2005) defined self-regulation in second language learning as "the degree to which individuals are active participants in their own learning" (p. 191). Many researchers agree that self-regulated learning should be promoted for all levels of students due to several positive outcomes such as enhancing learning performance (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008) and increasing students' ability to control their own learning (Pintrich, 2004). According to Chamot (2005), there are many factors included in the strategy instruction. The factors include the development of students' awareness of their strategies, teacher modeling of strategic thinking, identifying the strategies by name, providing opportunities for practice, and self-evaluation.

DA-SRS Instructional Process

The DA-SRS instructional process, which aimed to train students to be peer mediators with an ultimate goal to develop students' English listening comprehension ability consisted of three modules, namely, strategy training, peer mediator training, and the application of the DA-SRS process, respectively.

Strategy training

The first module started with the strategy training which included metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Four metacognitive strategies based on Oxford's (2011) Strategic Self-Regulation (S2R) Model selected to be trained to the students were planning, organizing, monitoring, and evaluating. The 10 cognitive strategies to be trained to the students were: activating knowledge, conceptualizing broadly, conceptualizing with details, predicting, elaborating, inferencing, note-taking, summarizing, focusing attentively, and double-checking (Oxford, 2011; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Peer mediator training

The second module explained how to prepare students to be ready for the mediator role. The peer mediator training consisted of two components which were as follows:

Overview of DA in Practice. An overview of the background in DA was presented to the students in the form of a lecture. This was to ensure that the students understood the DA-SRS instructional process and became more confident to follow the process accurately and effectively.

Mediator Demonstration and Practice. Based on Bandura's (1977) Social Learning

Theory, people can learn by observing the behavior of others and the outcomes of those behaviors. With this in mind, the teacher/researcher demonstrated how to act as a mediator to the students following Lantolf and Poehner's (2004, 2011) interventionist approach where hints were prepared in advance. After the demonstration, a list of five mediating prompts was introduced to the students (see Table 1). The students needed to know how and when to use each prompt. Moreover, it was also important to allow students to practice taking the mediator role to gain first-hand experience (Dewey, 1998). By doing this way, the students became more familiar with the process of offering mediating prompts to their peers.

Application of the DA-SRS process

The last module referred to the students' ability to apply the learned strategies in practice. Adapted from Ableeva's (2010) Mediating Procedure, the students who took the mediator role offered mediating prompts in order to develop their peers' English listening comprehension ability. Figure 1 illustrates three modules of training peer mediators in the DA-SRS instructional process.

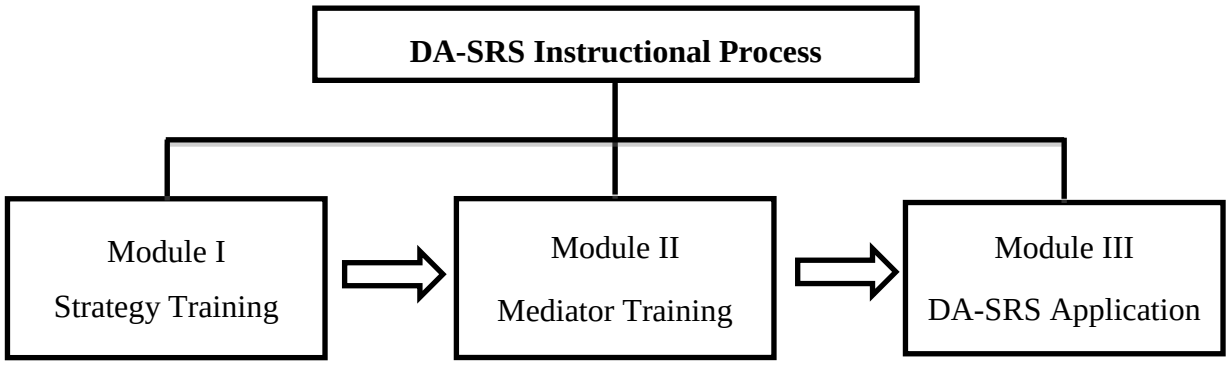

Figure 1: DA-SRS instructional process

Related Studies

A large body of research (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Donato, 1994; Ohta, 2005; Swain, 2000) investigates the role of peer mediators in language learning, with most of the findings related to Vygotsky's (1978) Socio-Cultural Theory.

Davin and Donato (2013) reported that a group of young language learners studying Spanish were capable of mediating their peers after participating in classroom DA. They concluded that

small group activities should be embedded in classroom DA. Another study on the use of peer mediator within a DA framework was conducted by Shrestha and Coffin (2012) who emphasized the importance of the mediator's role in the context of academic writing development among undergraduate business students engaged in open and distance learning. The results demonstrated that DA could help to identify problem areas where the students needed the most support, while at the same time enhancing the students' writing abilities. In relating to the peer assistance in normal language learning, Swain (2000) conducted a study on collaborative dialogue where all learners were actively engaged with one another in the dialogue in order to complete their task and construct their knowledge. Other research relating to peer-assisted learning strategies also indicate positive learning outcomes. For example, Hofstadter-Duke and Daly (2011) reported that first-grade students' reading ability was improved through appropriate peer intervention as mediators of the learning reading comprehension. Similarly, Douglas and Lynn (2005) revealed that peer-assisted learning strategies on promoting word recognition, fluency, and reading comprehension in young children were useful.

Methodology

Participants

This pilot study was conducted with five participants. Since the study followed a group DA format, the students in the section were divided into five groups. This was the reason why this study focused only on five participants. Based on the purposive sampling method, the five students from each group were selected to be mediators. All the students were third-year undergraduate students majoring in business English at the Faculty of Arts, Assumption University. They were Thais who have had at least 12 years of learning English prior to university, starting from grade one to the completion of high school. As part of the curriculum, all business English students were required take the course EN2230 Listening and Speaking, which was their major required course. When considering the students' level of English proficiency, most were considered at an intermediate level, which was equivalent to IELTS score of six or TOEFL score of 500 at the minimum. Table 2 summarizes the five participants' profiles and their pseudonyms.

Table 2: Participant Demographic and Pseudonyms

Student	Gender	Pseudonyms
1	Male	Van
2	Female	Sophie
3	Female	Kelly
4	Female	Cathy
5	Male	Kevin

Research Design

The study which took the form of qualitative research design aligned itself with an interventionist concurrent G-DA in sandwich format. Together with other students in the same section, the five participants followed the three modules of DA-SRS instructional process (see details in Section 2.3). The pilot study started from week 4 in the semester 1/2017 during August to December. The students were trained with metacognitive and cognitive strategies. After that, they attended a two-day mediator training in week 5. Before the training session ended, all students in the section were divided into five groups. Four groups consisted of five members while one group had four members. Based on the purposive sampling method, five students from each group were selected to be mediators to perform their roles for three sessions in weeks 6, 7, and 9.

Research Procedure

Since the five selected students needed to prepare themselves before taking the mediator role, a list of mediating prompts in the form of handouts together with audio file, audio transcript with answer keys for comprehension questions in the listening worksheet were provided one day before each session started.

In each session, the following steps were taken:

1. Listening worksheets were distributed to all students.
2. All students listened to the selected listening text for the first time and attempted to answer comprehension questions in their listening worksheets individually.
3. Following the concurrent G-DA format (Poehner, 2009), the mediators of each group started calling one of their members to answer the first comprehension question in the listening worksheet. When the first student gave an incorrect answer, the mediators provided the first mediating prompt and called another member to reformulate the answer. In case the second member still could not answer correctly, the second

mediating prompt was provided while the third student was called to give the correct answer.

4. The process continued until all answers were revealed.

Meanwhile, the researcher served as a facilitator who guided and assisted the students when they encountered with any difficulties during their practice in providing mediating prompts to their group members.

Instrument

Since the study sought to investigate the perspectives of students who were selected to be mediators, the semi-structured interview was used to collect the data with the five mediators. The interview was individually conducted with each mediator in Thai language to prevent language barrier issues. The interview took 20-25 minutes and was also audio-recorded.

Data Analysis

Since the interview was conducted in Thai language, the audio recorded data were translated and transcribed into English. The content of the translated version was cross-checked by the five mediator students. The method of content analysis was then applied to the data to formulate keywords for theme categorizations.

Preliminary Findings and Discussion

The preliminary findings were structured based on the three interview questions which were as follows:

1. How did you feel before and after taking the mediator role in DA-SRS instructional process?

At the preliminary stage, two different attitudes which related to the students' feelings when taking the mediator role emerged. These included "negative attitudes" and "positive attitudes". Each attitude is explained with the data presentation under the following headings:

Negative Attitudes Before DA-SRS

All students had negative attitudes before taking the mediator role. Revealed in the interview were key terms such as "awkward", "under pressure", "worried", and "afraid". Below are examples from each student:

"It was awkward at the beginning since I have never been in this position before." (Van)

"I felt under pressure because taking the mediator role was like being a teacher. So, I was not sure if I could explain to my friends as clearly as the teacher did." (Sophie)

I felt worried for being a representative of a group because I had no idea what a mediator was. I was afraid that if I missed any important point, it would lead to a negative result not just only me but the whole group." (Kevin)

One interesting point from the findings related to the term "excited", which could lead to either positive or negative feeling in this study. Although several dictionaries define the term "excitement" as a feeling full of enthusiasm which is positive, this term refers to negative feelings such as nervousness or even fear for Thai students. Below are examples from two students:

"I felt excited and worried since this was the first time I was a mediator. So, I was not sure if I could be a good mediator. Also, being a mediator was like a representative of the group where every member needed to rely on me, which made me become even more worried." (Cathy)

"I felt excited. I don't know if I can do it since I have never been a mediator." (Kelly)

The reason for having negative attitudes toward the mediator role could be that the students have no experience in being the mediator of a group. They felt they could not be a mediator who needs to possess a high sense of learning responsibility, not only for themselves but for other members in the groups. This could explain why they became negative immediately once they were selected to be mediators.

Positive Attitudes After DA-SRS

The findings showed that the students' attitudes became more positive after they took the mediator role. Examples of key terms relating to positive attitudes included "sense of achievement", "excited", "more relieved", and "felt better". It should be noted here that the term

"excited" in the context below refers to a positive feeling. Here are excerpts showing positive attitudes from each student:

> *"…once I helped my group mates, I've got a sense of achievement, which is very good. I felt excited, but not in a negative way, in a positive way. I am okay with being a mediator. It helps to increase my self-confidence because I have to speak in front of other people." (Van)*

> *"After having acted as a mediator, I felt more relieved and I dared to get answers from my friends." (Sophie)*

> *"…after having acted as a mediator, I felt better, but still it was a difficult task in giving clues or hints to my friends." (Kelly)*

> *"…then I felt better. Being the mediator of the group is not as bad as I thought."* (Cathy)

> *"I felt more relaxed after having acted as a mediator".* (Kevin)

The reason why students' attitudes became more positive could be that the students were no longer nervous once they could put what they learned into practice. When students possess positive attitudes, it results in a better level of motivation, which can contribute to the second language learning achievement (Spolsky, 1989).

2. What have you gained from being the peer mediators of your group?

When the students possessed positive attitudes toward the mediator role in the DA-SRS instructional process, good learning experiences were also fostered. Good learning experiences lead to several positive learning outcomes as follows:

Development of Learner Autonomy

The findings from the interview showed that some students have engaged in autonomous learning which is considered a process of "acquiring the ability to assume responsibility for their learning" (Holec, 1981, p.25-26). Below are excerpts from two students:

"Being a peer mediator, I've gained more knowledge and gained some learning experiences. I've learned that before I can teach other people, I need to learn and master what I have to teach first. That forces me to learn what I have to teach because somebody says teaching is the best learning." (Van)

"I understand the process of teaching more. Being a mediator is like being a teacher, which makes me know the process of how a teacher teaches in class. It is good to experience something you have never known before." (Sophie)

Considering Van's excerpt, he mentioned that he needed to learn and master what he had to teach. It could be deduced from here that the student' level of self-learning responsibility increased after having served as a peer mediator of the group. Similarly, Sophie said she understood the process of teaching more. This also reflects her ability to monitor her learning process. This could explain why the students became more autonomous in their learning. Not only did they gain a sense of learning responsibility for themselves, they were also responsible for others.

Pleasant Classroom Environment

Another positive learning outcome related to pleasant classroom environment as one student described below:

"I've learned that although I was the mediator of the group who got audio file with scripts in advance, it did not mean that I understood everything. However, when I worked with other members in the group trying *to answer all comprehension questions in the worksheet, I understood the text better. I prefer to be in this classroom environment where there is no competition among students."* (Kevin)

What Kevin mentioned in his excerpt showed that he preferred a classroom environment where students worked together in small groups as part of their learning process or collaborative learning. According to Leow, Neo, and Hin (2016), group learning leads to the students' good learning experiences, which can transform students into active learners. With the students' development of learner autonomy in a pleasant classroom environment, students' listening performance develops, which is regarded as a learning product.

Development in Listening Performance

Two students agreed that being mediator allowed them to have more opportunity to practice listening and as a result, they understood the content of the listening texts better. Below are excerpts from two students:

> *"Since I acted as a mediator of the group, I kept listening to the assigned listening text repeatedly to make sure I understood the content of the listening text. When I practice listening, it made me understand everything better."* (Kelly)

> *"When I was a mediator, I had to listen to the text many times and this made me understand the content of listening text better. It helped me to improve my listening skill too."* (Cathy)

Achieving successful listening skill requires a great deal of practice. As explained earlier, those acting as mediators had received audio files with scripts of listening texts one day before each DA-SRS session started. The mediators could practice listening as many times as they could until they understood the content of the texts before coming to class. This clearly reflected the learning effort which is an unstable factor over which the learner can exercise a great deal of control (Weiner, 1986). Learners who accept learning responsibility and put effort into their learning are likely to have motivation to learn and recognize that their learning achievement or success resulted from their personal effort. Renandya and Farrell (2011) mentioned that "…listening is best learned through listening" (p. 56). This could explain why the students' listening performance increased after they took the mediator role for three sessions.

Apart from having more opportunity to practice listening, one of the two students pointed out that the development of her listening performance also resulted from the interaction among peers within the group. Below is an excerpt from the student:

> *"Being a mediator does not mean that I would understand everything in the listening text. Even though I got the audio script, I still could not understand some parts in the listening text. However, when being engaged in the group interaction, I surprisingly understood the text better because all members seemed to help each other to brainstorm ideas to reach a correct answer."* (Cathy)

What Cathy said reflects the importance of peer interaction in the classroom. It can be clearly seen that the process of DA-SRS emphasizes student-student peer interaction, which is effective in promoting learning outcomes. Through peer interaction, learners could produce scaffolding other peers in order to understand the listening text better. Lantolf (2009) who supports learning through peer interaction claims that learning does not always occur due to the role of an expert: learners can scaffold each other more efficiently by using interactive strategies. This could explain why the students understood the listening text better after being engaged in peer interaction.

3. Do you have any suggestions to improve the DA-SRS instructional process?

Two different suggestions emerged from the interview question above. Each suggestion is explained with the data presentation under the following headings:

Use of VDO Clips

Three students suggested the use of VDO clips so that they could clearly understand what exactly the mediator needed to perform. Below are examples from three students:

> *"I am not exactly sure what the job was like, maybe there would be a VDO clip that showed how to be a good mediator." (Van)*

> *"The teacher should have sent us a short clip so that the students understood more clearly about the role of mediator." (Kevin)*

> *"At first, I was totally confused what I had to do exactly even though the teacher explained step by step but that wasn't enough."* (Kelly)

Their suggestions corresponded to Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory where people can learn by observing the behavior of others. Similarly, Carroll and Bandura (1990) also stated that the more frequently one observes a skilled demonstration, the more opportunity the beginner will have to acquire the movement. Therefore, the use of VDO clips should be embedded in the training process to allow students to perceive and clearly understand their roles and the responsibilities of the mediator in the classroom setting.

Group Size

Two students placed importance on group size when implementing the DA-SRS instructional process as exemplified here:

> *"The size of the group should be limited so that the mediators can concentrate with all members." (Sophie)*

> *"…each group should not have too many members, maybe not more than five students. Otherwise, the mediator could not control everyone."* (Cathy)

Based on the students' suggestions for improving the DA-SRS instructional process, the number of members in each group should not exceed five for the most effective result. As previously explained, since this pilot study followed G-DA in Concurrent format (see details in 3.3), the appropriate number of group members should be four to five people. This was in line with Lim and Zhong (2006) who suggested that the increase of group size results in it being more difficult to assess each member's contribution. Figure 2 shows the perceived effect of DA-SRS on listening comprehension ability.

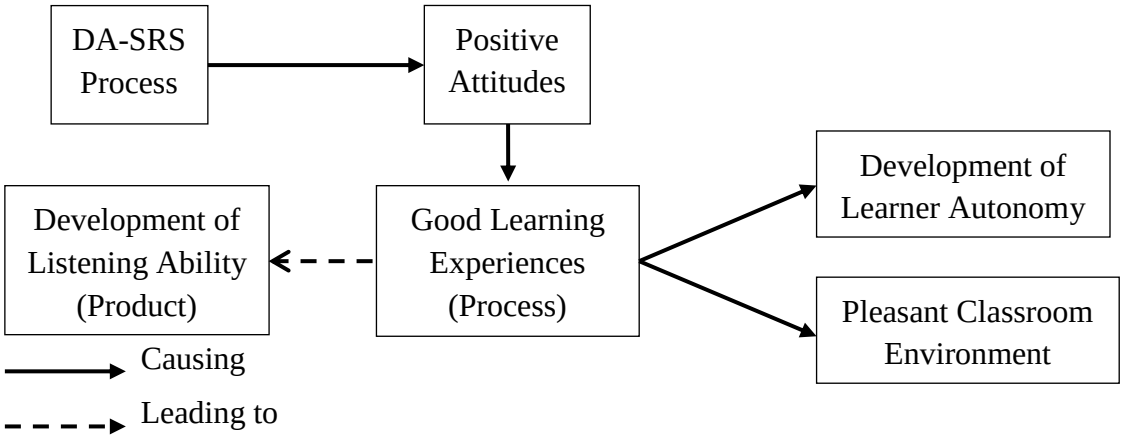

Figure 2: Perceived effect of DA-SRS on listening comprehension ability

Implications

In this pilot study, the qualitative data from the interviews with students reveal a positive perspective of being peer mediators in DA-SRS instructional process. Apart from reflecting the importance of peer interaction in the classroom, the preliminary findings also suggest that

learning can take place through peer mediation. In this regard, students should be taught how to give mediation in a more effective way as well as the available strategies, which may assist their future learning.

Conclusion

This pilot study investigated students' perspectives of being peer mediators in the DA-SRS instructional process. The preliminary findings revealed that there is a positive relationship between the DA-SRS instructional process and the production of better listening ability from the perspective of the subject students in this present study. It is evident that the students acquired good learning experiences when they possessed positive attitudes, which led to several positive outcomes. Firstly, the students became more autonomous in their learning. Secondly, a pleasant classroom environment was created since the DA-SRS classroom emphasized group or collaborative learning with no competition in the learning process. Lastly, the students' increasing level of autonomous learning together with having a pleasant classroom environment resulted in the development of the students' listening comprehension ability.

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A Case Study of First-Year Students' Language Anxiety at Phranakhon Si Ayutthaya Rajabhat University

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to: 1) investigate the language anxiety level of first year students at Phranakhon Si Ayutthaya Rajabhat University in their English language classroom; and 2) compare the level of anxiety among first year students from four faculties. The sample included 313 first-year students from Phranakhon Si Ayutthaya Rajabhat University enrolled in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Science and Technology, and Faculty of Management Sciences. They were selected by stratified random sampling. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was used as the instrument to analyze the results. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient reliability was 0.88. The study results illustrated a high level of language anxiety among students, who were taking courses in the English language. The study also showed that the students from Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences had the highest degree of language anxiety. These research findings can prove beneficial to those working in the field of education in Rajabhat Universities, especially English teachers and administrators as well as students, in order to overcome language anxiety in the classroom and to adopt teaching techniques to solve these difficulties in the future.

Key Words: Language Anxiety, University, the FLCAS

Introduction

Currently, the English language is the primary language of communication internationally. It is widely used as the main communication channel for the Internet, websites, emails, and mobile phone applications (Lai, Lin, & Kersten, 2010). Moreover, more than 70 countries have English as their official language (Crystal, 2003). Given the international significance of the English language, Thailand is certainly affected by the global trend. Since 2015, the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) was established by countries in Southeast Asia. Under this particular economic community, English became the official language for international relations between ASEAN countries. Thus, with regard to these developments, it is necessary for Thailand to prioritize the development of English language skills among students, so that the next generation will be able to work within this growing regional economic framework (Phongphanit, 2013). In order to examine the degree of language anxiety among English students, one must first understand the educational system in which this study was conducted as well as the operational definition of "language anxiety" used for this study.

English Instruction in Thailand

Since 1895, English has been part of the national curriculum instituted by the Thai Government (Weerawong, 2004). Currently in Thailand, the instruction of English language mainly follows Thailand's Ninth National Education Development Plan for 2002-2006 (Namsang, 2011). In this plan, all Thai students are required to learn English starting from primary school through high school and university level. In addition, Thai university students from all fields of study need to take compulsory English courses. Given this systematic circumstance, English programs in schools and universities have been instituted to effectively teach Thai students the English language, regardless of their particular field of study (Richards, 1990). Despite the prioritization of English within the Thai education system, there exist numerous obstacles in the effective teaching of Thai students. These obstacles include the effectiveness of the teachers, motivation of the students, and problems within the educational system itself. This study will however focus on the issue of language anxiety among students. In order to conduct the study, a definition of language anxiety must first be formulated.

Students and Language Anxiety

Language anxiety is defined by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising

from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 31). Moreover, they additionally clarified three main sources of language learning anxiety: 1) communication apprehension, 2) fear of negative evaluations from others, and 3) test anxiety.

Communication apprehension is the state of feeling shy stemming from fears or anxiety about communicating with (an) other person/persons (also found in various studies such as Chiang, 2012; Nahavandi & Mukundan, 2013; Noora, 2008). This type of anxiety is often found among shy and reticent people. In particular, students with communication apprehension usually confront difficulties in public speaking or listening in the target language. *The fear of negative evaluations from others* refers to an emotional reaction of fear of being negatively evaluated and may cause one to attempt to avoid being in such an evaluation situation. This type of anxiety may also involve the feelings of fear of not being accepted or of being mocked. *Test anxiety* is the last type of language anxiety described by Horwitz et al. (1986) (and later found in various studies, e.g., Chan & Wu, 2004; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003). Test anxiety refers to anxiety about failure. It is frequently found in specific situations such as testing and examinations. Students with test anxiety usually have difficulties when having to take tests or quizzes. Moreover, they easily lose attention and make mistakes on those tests. These learning difficulties are part of the reasons why scholars are interested in conducting research under language anxiety among learners.

In relation to the literature, most research has dealt with language students in different contexts and countries (Crookall & Oxford, 1990; Koch & Terrel, 1991; Lugossy, Horvath, & Nikolov, 2009; Maturanec, 2015; Phillips, 1990; Piniel, 2006; Young, 1990). However, empirical studies into language anxiety among learners in Ayutthaya especially Phranakhon Si Ayutthaya Rajabhat University (ARU) are few. In addition, based on the learners' difficulties above, it is worth examining the degree of language anxiety amongst first year university students in ARU in order to address the following research questions: 1) What is the language anxiety level experienced by first year students at Phranakhon Si Ayutthaya Rajabhat University in their English language classroom?; and 2) What are the similarities or the differences in the level of anxiety among first year students from four faculties? Through an examination of these questions, the findings of this study may be beneficial to those working in the field of education in Rajabhat Universities, especially English teachers and administrators as well as students, in order to overcome the difficulties of foreign language anxiety in the classroom and to adopt teaching techniques to solve these difficulties in the future.

Research Objectives

1) To investigate the language anxiety level experienced by first year students at Phranakhon Si Ayutthaya Rajabhat University in their English language classroom.
2) To compare the level of anxiety among first year students from four faculties.

Research Hypotheses

1) First year ARU students have a high level of language anxiety.
2) Students from Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences have the highest level of language anxiety.

Methodology

Sample

The sample of this study were 313 students enrolled in the English language classroom out of a total population of 1,441 first year ARU students. The students were from four faculties: 1) Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (123); 2) Faculty of Education (66); 3) Faculty of Science and Technology (50); and 4) Faculty of Management Sciences (74). This sample size was measured based on population proportion proposed by Yamane (1970). They were selected by a multi-stage sampling procedure. The following section discusses the details of the process of subject recruitment.

Step 1) Purposive sampling

In this process, first year students from ARU were selected via purposive sampling. This method was employed to correspond with the requirements of this research study's objectives (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

Step 2) Stratified random sampling

Stratified random sampling was used to divide students into four faculties: 1) Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, 2) Faculty of Education, 3) Faculty of Science and Technology, and 4) Faculty of Management Sciences.

Step 3) Simple random sampling

The researcher selected students from the four faculties by simple random sampling. This method was employed to allow each student to have equal possibility of being recruited (McMillan &

Schumacher, 2001). The size of the sample group was based on Yamane's (1970) table of sample size.

Instrument

The FLCAS questionnaire developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) was used as a research tool to explore the level of students' language anxiety. The FLCAS contained three sections: 1) Communication apprehension (items 1, 4, 9, 14, 15, 18, 24, 27, 29, 30, 32); 2) Test anxiety (items 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 16, 17, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, 28); and 3) Fear of negative evaluation (items 2, 7, 13, 19, 23, 31, 33).

To indicate the level of language anxiety, a five-point Likert Scale was rated by students to illustrate the level of anxiety (see Table 1).

Table 1: Description of the Rating Scale for the FLCAS

Scale	Descriptions
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neither agree nor disagree
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

The scale shown in Table 1 ranges from strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neither agree nor disagree (3), agree (4), to strongly agree (5). For the level of anxiety in each item, 5 point was measured as the highest while 1 point was scored as the lowest level of language anxiety.

Table 2 shows how the scale of language anxiety was interpreted.

Table 2: Criteria for Assessing the Levels of Language Anxiety

Levels	Language Anxiety Descriptions	Total Scores	Average Mean Scores
High	Considerably anxious - Very anxious	100 – 165	3.01 – 5.00
Low	Non-anxious - Slightly anxious	33 – 99	1.00 – 3.00

To interpret scale of language anxiety, the researcher followed the criterion for assessing language anxiety proposed by Piniel (2006) and the score interpretation developed by Lugossy, Horvath, and Nikolov (2009). Piniel (2006) provided the FLCAS scores' interpretation as follows. The scores, which are lower than 99 indicate low anxiety while the scores, which are higher than 99 are interpreted as high anxiety. The score of 99 was the cut-off line. Meanwhile, Lugossy et al. (2009) divided the responses of FLCAS into four levels: non-anxious, slightly

anxious, considerably anxious, and very anxious. Thus, in this study the criteria for assessing the levels of language anxiety were adapted from that of Piniel (2006) and Lugossy et al. (2009) (See Table 2).

Reliability and Validity of the FLCAS

The FLCAS had a relatively high level of validity and reliability as shown by Horwitz, et al. (1986) that Cronbach's alpha in their study was 0.93 and had a high test-retest reliability of 0.83 ($p < .01$). The study conducted by Aida (1994) also reported that Cronbach alpha coefficient of the FLCAS was 0.94 with a high test-retest reliability of 0.80 ($p < .01$) and additionally discovered reliability value in the present study stands at 0.88.

Data Collection

The researcher began conducting research during the first semester of the academic year 2017. In order to meet the objectives, the study was implemented using the following procedures. First, the researcher sent a letter of consent to each faculty asking permission to conduct the study, requesting samples' participations, and making an appointment to conduct the research with the students. Second, prior to allowing the students to answer the questionnaire, the researcher explained the objectives of the study, the directions for each section of the questionnaire and reaffirmed to the participants that their answers would have no effect on their grades or the class. Moreover, the researcher also assured the confidentiality of their answers. Finally, the participants were asked to fill in the FLCAS questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used for analyzing the FLCAS. To meet the study's objectives, descriptive statistical analysis and inferential statistics were employed to analyze the collected data. Mean and standard deviation (Descriptive Statistical Analysis) were employed to measure the level of students' language anxiety in their English language classroom and to compare the level of anxiety among first year students from the four faculties.

Results

This section illustrates the level of language anxiety experienced in the English language classroom by ARU students and compares the level of anxiety among first year students from four faculties.

Level of Language Anxiety of First Year ARU Students (Whole Sample)

The results in Table 3 indicate the level of language anxiety experienced by first year ARU students. The results generally indicate that first year ARU students have a high level of language anxiety across faculties. However, among individual faculties, the Faculty of Humanities has the highest level of anxiety while the Faculty of Management Sciences has the lowest level.

Table 3: Language Anxiety Levels of First Year ARU Student

Faculty	Language anxiety		
	M	***SD***	***Meaning***
Humanities and Social Sciences	3.27	0.38	High
Education	3.22	1.129	High
Science and Technology	3.18	1.073	High
Management Sciences	3.12	0.992	High
Total	3.17	0.392	High

n = 313

Differences of Rationale for Language Anxiety Among First Year Students from the Four Faculties

The results in Table 4 report the differences of rationale for language anxiety level among the four faculties.

Table 4: Comparison of Language Anxiety Levels Among First Year ARU Students from four Faculties and Rationale Behind Language Anxiety

Faculty	Language Anxiety Levels of ARU Students								
	Communication Apprehension			Fear of Negative Evaluation			Test Anxiety		
	M	***SD***	**Meaning**	***M***	***SD***	**Meaning**	***M***	***SD***	**Meaning**
Humanities and Social Sciences	*3.30*	*1.122*	*High*	*3.26*	*1.142*	*High*	3.29	1.142	High
Education	3.23	0.878	High	3.09	0.998	High	3.28	1.003	High
Science and Technology	3.19	1.136	High	3.14	1.121	High	*3.42*	*1.115*	*High*
Management Sciences	3.16	0.978	High	3.06	0.994	High	3.21	1.003	High

n = 313

Communication Apprehension

Based on the results illustrated in Table 4, students from the four faculties have a high level of communication apprehension, with levels ranging from Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences ($\bar{x}$ = 3.30), Faculty of Education ($\bar{x}$ = 3.23), Faculty of Science and Technology ($\bar{x}$ =

3.19), to Faculty of Management Sciences ($\bar{x}$ = 3.16), respectively.

Test Anxiety

With regard to test anxiety, students from all four faculties have a high level of test anxiety with levels ranging from Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences ($\bar{x}$ = 3.26), Faculty of Science and Technology ($\bar{x}$ = 3.14), Faculty of Education ($\bar{x}$ = 3.28), to Faculty of Management Sciences ($\bar{x}$ = 3.21), respectively.

Fear of Negative Evaluation

Table 4 also indicates that the students from the four faculties have a high level of fear of negative evaluation with levels ranging from Faculty of Science and Technology ($\bar{x}$ = 3.42), Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences ($\bar{x}$ = 3.29), Faculty of Education ($\bar{x}$ = 3.09), to Faculty of Management Sciences ($\bar{x}$ = 3.06), respectively.

Discussion

The following discussion is based on the purposes of the study: 1) to investigate the language anxiety level experienced by first year students at ARU in their English language classroom; and 2) to compare the level of anxiety among first year students from four faculties.

Language Anxiety Level of the First Year ARU Students

In terms of the first hypothesis, (H1) *First year ARU students have a high level of language anxiety*, the results confirmed this hypothesis and indicated that generally first year ARU students had high levels of language anxiety. In other words, the students were anxious due to English language learning in their language classroom. The finding was consistent with Namsang (2011) who found that Thai undergraduate students at Dhonburi Rajabhat University had a high level of language anxiety while using English in class. Tum (2012) also reported that in Northern Cyprus, students were highly anxious when using English in class. Based on the results of the high levels of language anxiety, one can speculate that this may be because the students in this study were non-native speakers, they might be uncertain with their own language ability, and in their personal language use (Sammephet & Wanphet, 2013).

However, this finding is not consistent with the research conducted by Ozuturk and Hursen (2013), and Yayli (2012). Ozuturk and Hursen (2013) investigated first and second year Turkish students studying at a Cypriot international university and found low levels of language

anxiety. Also, Yayli (2012) found moderate levels of language anxiety among a group of summer school students. The differences between this current study and these two previous studies can be attributed to other factors, such as the classroom environment, teaching styles, and students' exposure to the foreign language being studied.

Differences of Rationale for Language Anxiety among First Year Students from the Four Faculties

Considering sub-categories in language anxiety, the students from all four faculties were highly anxious in all sub-categories. This corresponds with the findings of Horwitz et al. (1986) and Waseem (2013). In their study, Horwitz et al. (1986) found that the subjects of the study all had high levels in communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Their finding is similar to that of Waseem (2013) who studied the relationship between language anxiety and the motivation to learn English of first year Pakistani students in a university in Pakistan. In his study, he illustrated that the students had a high level of speaking anxiety and test anxiety in the English language classroom.

The second hypothesis, (H2) *The students from Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences have the highest rank of language anxiety,* was fully confirmed by the findings of this study which shows that Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences had the highest level of language anxiety in almost every sub-category (communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation) despite the fact that the English Department, with native and non-native teachers, was part of the Faculty of Humanities. This result corresponds to that of Maturanec (2015). In his study, he found the English major students from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences had a significantly higher level of language anxiety and mentioned it is a topic worth exploring in terms of the independent variables correlated to the finding. In fact, it could be a topic for further study to investigate the causes of language anxiety and the correlation between the higher levels in one department as opposed to another.

The above results show that related stakeholders including students, curriculum developers, and teachers should be aware of the language anxiety aroused by students especially those from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. The teachers should find the causes and effective approaches to cope with the state of such emotional arousal.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the anxiety related research on ARU students can contribute to the current body of

research on levels of language anxiety by illustrating the current high levels of anxiety among students studying English, despite the prioritization of English in Thailand's national education policy. The results of this study importantly acknowledge that students, especially from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, had language anxiety at high levels. Based on such findings, more research into the causes and approaches to alleviate the language anxiety of students from similar humanities and social sciences faculties at Rajabhat Universities should be conducted. Moreover, further research should employ a mixed methodological approach to gain both quantitative and qualitative insights.

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A Study of the Pronunciation of English Consonant Clusters by Thai Speakers in the Airline Business

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Abstract

Tourism industry plays a very crucial role as a major source of Thailand's national income. With the need of a common language for communication with people from several language backgrounds, airline personnel are expected to use English as a lingua franca. A number of studies have revealed that speakers of English from different L1 backgrounds show some variations in their pronunciation of English segmentals due to L1 transfer. This small-scaled research was conducted as a pilot study with an aim to investigate the pronunciation of English consonant clusters produced by six Thai ground personnel, who studied English as a foreign language The participants were asked to complete a questionnaire to obtain information regarding their English language experience. English consonant clusters in authentic announcements at the boarding gate and in casual conversations between each ground personnel and the researcher were recorded so as to compare the realizations of consonant clusters produced at two levels of carefulness of their speech. Findings and implications of the study can contribute to the teaching of English in business contexts.

Keywords: English consonant cluster, ESL, Pronunciation, EFL

Introduction

Background

Despite the significant roles of English as a global language (Crystal, 2003), its status in each country, that is, official, national language or lingua franca, can have different implications for the speakers' proficiency. Historically, English has never been an official language in Thailand. Based on Kachru's Three Concentric Circles of English (Kachru, 1992), Thailand is typically categorized into the "Expanding Circle" in which English is widely taught in the educational system and used as a lingua franca in business contexts. However, for the past decades, there has been a national awareness of English as a medium of communication and a working language due to the establishment of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). English has become a means for international cooperation, networking, sharing of information with the global communities and for the country's economic development and competition, especially with other ASEAN countries (Foley, 2005, 2007; Rogers, 2013). ASEAN also brings about the connection between people within the 10-member association in many respects such as trading, education, workforce as well as tourism.

For tourism, air traveling is one of the most popular traveling modes today since it is more convenient and time-saving than other modes. When traveling by air, tourists will necessarily be in contact with staff from the airline industry as well as other airport personnel. Upon departure or arrival, the first group of airport personnel that tourists may have to interact with is the ground attendants. Since 1951, the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) recommended that English be universally used and widely accepted as a common language (ICAO, 2003). This is also true in the Thai airline industry contexts. Thus, the ground attendants are expected to use English as a medium. Since their major duty is the transferring of important information to customers, the pronunciation of English of the ground attendant is vital for successful communication. However, since English is not the first language of Thais, the Thai language's phonology could interfere with the pronunciation of English. A number of research studies reveal that speakers of English from different native language (L1) backgrounds show some variations in their pronunciation of English due to L1 transfer (Lado, 1957). The study of English pronunciation by Thai speakers, then, should help shed some light on the problems that Thai speakers of English encounter. Understanding difficulties in English pronunciation can also help in the adaptation of the appropriate ELT methods. This paper therefore addresses English pronunciation by Thai ground attendants in the airline business. The current pilot study focuses, in particular, on the pronunciation of consonant clusters.

Scope of the Study

As this is a pilot study which is a part of an ongoing research, not all aspects of pronunciation were investigated. It took into consideration only the consonant clusters that emerged from careful and casual speeches produced by Thai speakers in the study. In Thai, there are consonant clusters or a groups of consonants which have no intervening vowel. However, it should be noted that the Thai language has consonant clusters exclusively at the initial position, with either /r/, /l/, or /w/ as the second consonant sound and not more than two sounds at a time. In English, on the contrary, there are consonant clusters in both the initial position and the final position, in which the longest possible initial cluster is three consonants while the longest possible final cluster can be up to five consonants. With these differences in clustering systems in mind, the pilot study, at this preliminary stage, aimed at examining the pronunciation of two-consonant clusters in the initial position and final position by Thai speakers. For the initial position, only the English consonant clusters with either /r/ or /l/ as the second sound were examined because they are the clusters that also occur in Thai. The dropping of /r/ or /l/ in consonant clusters, in fact, could result in the change of meaning (Wadsorn & Panichkul, 2014). For the final consonant clusters, on the other hand, the study examined the pronunciation of two-consonant clusters that were not only the /r/ and /l/ sounds. This is due to the fact that there are *no* final consonant clusters in Thai. It must be noted, though, that the final consonant clusters under study did not include the clusters occurring due to grammatical rules such as past tense marker -ed, or present simple tense markers -s/es/'s/s'.

Literature Review

Since the full establishment of ASEAN, the number of studies related to English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) seems to be grown exponentially. One of the significant studies into the linguistic features of ELF is Jenkins' work in the Phonology of English as an International Language (Jenkins, 2000). Jenkins pointed out that communication breakdown is triggered by pronunciation rather than syntax or lexicon. She proposed a Lingua Franca Core (LFC) which consists of phonological features that are important for intelligibility when non-native speakers use English as a lingua franca. These core features are needed to be included in language teaching curriculum, while other less problematic phonological features are classified as non-core. To this notion, ELF proficiency levels are not determined by their degree of closeness to native speaker norms, but are derived from ELF speakers themselves (Kirkpatrick, 2010). The core features are: 1) most consonant sounds, 2) appropriate consonant cluster simplification, 3)

vowel length distinctions, and 4) nuclear stress.

It would seem that no language employs the same speech sounds. According to Lado's Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Lado, 1957), one factor that caused difficulty of speaking English by non-native speakers of English is the interference of speakers' native language. Based on this hypothesis, the pronunciation of English consonant clusters by Thai speakers in the airline business should be interfered with by the Thai phonological system. Generally, Thai speakers of English would transfer the Thai phonological system by imitating or substituting Thai speech sounds to develop the speech sounds they intend to produce in English. It can also be said that Thai speakers would not find difficulty when they have to produce the speech sounds that are close to the sounds in Thai. In contrast, the speech sounds that do not exist in the Thai phonological system would be problematic for Thai speakers.

In terms of consonant clusters, Hall (2007) stated that the English language allows two and three consonant combinations in the initial position, and four consonant combinations in the final position. The English syllable structure can be represented as CCCVCCCCC. However, the Thai language allows for only two initial consonant clusters. The combination of Thai's syllable structure can be represented as CCVC.

A number of studies have been done on English consonant clusters by Thai speakers. Mano-im (1999) conducted a study on the pronunciation of English final consonant clusters and the relationship between degrees of difficulty in pronouncing final consonant cluster. The author also compared the ability to pronounce consonant clusters precisely between male and female speakers. Five types of variations were found in the study, that is, correct pronunciation of both sounds, deletion of one of the two sounds, replacement of one or both sounds, deletion of one sound and replacement of the other, and insertion of an extra sound. Regarding the degree of difficulty, it was found that a nasal followed by a stop was the easiest and a fricative followed by a stop was the hardest. It was also suggested that female speakers pronounced consonant clusters more correctly than male speakers with statistical significance. Note that the study was conducted with students at high school level.

Apart from the study on consonant cluster pronunciation, Soonghangwa (2013) examined the perception of English and Thai consonant clusters by Thai EFL learners. Learners were asked to listen to the tokens in English and Thai and identify the cluster they heard. It was found that learners with low English proficiency usually simplified the clusters, while learners with average English proficiency substituted the clusters. For learners with high English proficiency, learners inserted the consonant which was considered as hypercorrection.

For Thai consonant cluster pronunciation, it was evident that cluster simplification in Thai is almost complete especially in spoken language with younger speakers as shown in the study conducted by Suwanajote (2017). The study inspected cluster simplification in Thai among English language learners. The first-year English major students were asked to translate Thai words into English and narrate a short story about their family. Interestingly, it was shown that the majority of subjects simplified consonant clusters in English, both writing and speaking in the same manner as their native language.

Based on the literature review, studies on English consonant clusters were conducted with either high school students or university students. Little was done with Thai speakers in work contexts. Thus, this study explored the pronunciation of English consonant clusters by Thai speakers in the airline business to see the variations of such pronunciation.

Objectives of the Study

In order to investigate the variations of the pronunciation of English consonant clusters, the study was conducted on the two-consonant cluster at the initial and final positions pronounced by Thai speakers in the airline business. Nonetheless, the study of initial consonant clusters was made only on those with /r/ and /l/ sounds since they share common cluster pairs with the Thai system, while *all* two-consonant clusters at the final position were explored. The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To observe the variations of initial two-consonant cluster with /r/ and /l/ sounds as pronounced by Thai speakers in the airline business.
2. To observe the variations of final two-consonant cluster as pronounced by Thai speakers in the airline business.

Research Questions

1. What are the variations of initial two-consonant cluster with /r/ and /l/ sounds as pronounced by Thai speakers in the airline business?
2. What are the variations of final two-consonant cluster as pronounced by Thai speakers in the airline business?

Research Methodology

Participants

Six ground attendants, four males and two females, participated in the study. They were 23-25 years old. All of them are Bangkok-Thai native speakers with an undergraduate's degree from various institutions. In regard to the participants' English proficiency, a minimum of 450-TOEIC score is one of the requirements for the position of ground attendant. The participants have been working as ground attendants for approximately one and a half years. Their duties are both at the check-in counter and the boarding gate. Specifically, they have to make announcement at the boarding gate in Thai and English and communicate to non-Thai passengers in English as well.

Instruments

There are two research instruments: question guidelines for casual conversation and boarding gate announcement.

Firstly, to obtain data on pronunciation of consonant clusters in casual speech, the researcher tried to prompt the participants' production of words that the ground attendant used in their everyday work. To do so, the questions used in casual conversation revolved around their work, scope of their work and responsibilities, their opinion on cases or situations they may encounter in their workplace, how they deal with their clients, some challenges, and their career advancement. The questions were read and commented on by a university professor to ensure validity of the instruments. The casual conversations lasted from 15–30 minutes.

Secondly, the speech data from the airline announcement were collected from *real* work situations. Each ground attendant had to station at the boarding gate based on the flight schedule. At least 20 minutes before the departure, they had to make a pre-boarding announcement, boarding announcement, final call announcement, gate change announcement, flight delay announcement, or flight cancellation announcement. The announcements were scripted and memorized by the ground attendant. It should be noted that not all announcement types were made by the participants during the data collecting process, for instance, flight delay and flight cancellation did not happen at the recording time. As such, announcements regarding flight delays and cancellations were not made by the ground attendants. The time length of the announcement of each ground attendant was from 1.22 - 2.18 minutes.

Research Procedure and Analysis

In speech data collection, firstly, the researcher recorded a casual conversation with the ground

attendant individually in English using questions as guidelines. The conversation is regarded as a casual speech type to gain natural pronunciation in which the participants are not careful about their speech. During the conversation, the participants were interrupted as little as possible. Then, the researcher followed them to the boarding gate and recorded the announcement of each ground attendant which is considered as a scripted and careful speech type.

After the recording process, the researcher transcribed the speech data by using orthographic and phonetic transcription. The detail of the pronunciation is presenting with several phonetic symbols. For example, the symbol -̚ represents the unreleased sound especially the stop sounds occurring in the final position. The researcher listened to the speech data several times to find the phonetic variations of the pronunciation of English consonant clusters. If the sound is difficult to identify, the researcher looked at the physical characteristics of the particular sound such as the fundamental frequency and formant.

Results

Consonant Cluster at Word-Initial Position in the Announcement

Consonant clusters with /r/ in the initial position found in the announcements are [pr], [fr], and [θr], while consonant clusters with /l/ in the initial position found in the announcements are [pl] and [fl]. In the announcement which was considered as scripted and careful speech, it was found that the ground attendants pronounced two sounds of consonant clusters in the initial position more times than dropping the second sound of consonant clusters. Also, it was observed that the word "from" was pronounced by dropping the second sound of the consonant cluster more times than the pronunciation of two sounds of consonant cluster as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Words with initial consonant clusters and their variations found in the announcements

CC	***Words***	***No. of Tokens***	***Variations***	***No. of Tokens***	***Variations Summary***
fl	flight	28	[fl]	28	[fl]
pl	please	37	[pl] [p]	23 14	[pl], [p]
	plus	5	[pl]	5	
fr	from	7	[fr] [f]	2 5	[fr], [f]
θr	three	34	[θr] [tr]	14 20	[θr], [tr]
pr	premium	6	[pr] [p]	1 5	[pr], [p]

Consonant Cluster at Word-Initial Position in Casual Conversation

As shown in Table 2, consonant clusters with /r/ in the initial position found in casual conversation are [fr], [tr], [pr], [θr], [gr], [br], [kr], and [dr], while consonant clusters with /l/ in the initial position found in casual conversation are [fl], [pl], and [kl]. It was discovered that the pronunciation of consonant clusters was with two variations, that is, the pronunciation of two sounds of consonant clusters and the pronunciation of the first sound by dropping the /r/ or /l/ sound. Moreover, there was the word "flight" found in both the announcements and casual conversations. It was noticed that in the announcements (the careful speech style), the ground attendants pronounced two sounds of consonant cluster as "flight" while in casual conversation, almost two-thirds of the ground attendants pronounced the word as "fight". It was noted that 28 words with initial consonant clusters that appeared only once in the casual conversation were not included in the Table 2.

Table 2. Words with initial consonant clusters and their variations found in casual conversation

CC	***Words***	***No. of Tokens***	***Variations***	***No. of Tokens***	***Variations Summary***
fr	friends	34	[fr] [f]	12 22	[fr], [f]
	from	27	[fr] [f]	7 20	
	free	8	[fr] [f]	6 2	
	front	5	[fr] [f]	1 4	
tr	try	23	[tr] [t]	19 4	[tr], [t]
	travel	13	[tr] [t]	10 3	
	train	6	[tr]	6	
	translate	4	[tr] [t]	2 2	
	trip	4	[tr] [t]	3 1	
	traffic	3	[tr]	3	
pr	problem	18	[pr] [p]	13 5	[pr], [p]
	program	5	[pr]	5	
	process	4	[pr]	4	
	proud	3	[pr] [p]	2 1	
	prefer	2	[pr] [p]	1 1	

CC	*Words*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations Summary*
	present	2	[pr] [p]	1 1	
	principle	2	[pr] [p]	1 1	
	promotion	2	[pr]	2	
	protein	2	[pr] [p]	1 1	
θr	three	15	[θr] [tr]	5 10	[θr], [tr], [t]
	throw	3	[tr] [t]	2 1	
gr	ground	11	[gr] [g]	9 2	[gr], [g]
	graduated	9	[gr] [g]	8 1	
	grammar	6	[gr] [g]	4 2	
	grade	5	[gr] [g]	4 1	
br	brother	6	[br]	6	[br]
	bring	2	[br]	2	
kr	craft	5	[kr]	5	[kr]
	crew	4	[kr]	4	
	crazy	2	[kr]	2	
dr	dream	3	[dr]	3	[dr], [d]
	drum	3	[dr]	3	
	drive	2	[dr] [d]	1 1	
fl	flight	21	[fl] [f]	13 8	[fl], [f]
pl	play	14	[pl] [p]	13 1	[pl], [p]
	plane	7	[pl]	7	
	place	6	[pl] [p]	5 1	
kl	class	9	[kl] [k]	5 4	[kl], [k]
	close	6	[kl] [k]	5 1	
	clock	2	[kl] [k]	1 1	

Consonant Cluster at Word-Final Position in the Announcements

The final consonant clusters found in careful speeches were [ŋk], [nd], [ns], [nt], and [st]. Their variations found were either the pronunciation of two sounds or just one sound. The ground

attendants usually dropped the second sound of the consonant cluster [nd], [ns], and [nt], while in the final consonant clusters with /s/ sound, the ground attendants selected only the sound in their pronunciation or pronounced with unreleased-plosive sound such as [t̚] and [k̚]. However, it was shown here that the final consonant cluster [ŋk] in the word "thank" was always pronounced with two sounds. This was because the word "thank" always appeared with "you" as in "thank you" so it was very likely that assimilation forces the speakers to produce the /k/ sound automatically. Table 3 illustrates the variations as discussed.

Table 3. Words with final consonant clusters and their variations found in the announcements

CC	*Words*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations Summary*
ŋk	thank	28	[ŋk]	28	[ŋk], [ŋ]
	monk	6	[ŋk] [ŋ]	2 4	
nd	and	12	[n]	12	[n]
	bound	11	[n]	11	
ns	assistance	6	[ns] [n]	2 4	[ns], [n]
nt	announcement	5	[nt] [n]	1 4	[nt], [n]
st	first	8	[s] [t̚]	6 2	[s], [t̚]
	Buddhist	6	[s]	6	
	last	2	[s] [t̚]	1 1	
ks	six	3	[ks] [k̚]	2 1	[ks], [k̚]

Consonant Cluster at Word-Final Position in Casual Conversation

The final consonant clusters in casual conversation emerged in a great number: [nd], [nt], [ns], [nθ], [ŋk], [st], [sk], [ks], [kt], [mp], [lp], [lf], [ld], [lθ], [lv], [ft], and [pt]. It was evident that the pronunciation of final consonant clusters as a single consonant sound prevailed as seen in Table 4. For this study, 38 words with initial consonant clusters that appeared only once in the casual conversation were not included in the following table.

Table 4. Words with final consonant clusters and their variations found in casual conversation

CC	*Words*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations Summary*
nd	and	190	[n]	190	[nd], [n]
	understand	30	[n]	30	
	friend	13	[nd]	1	

CC	*Words*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations Summary*
			[n]	12	
	around	10	[nd] [n]	1 9	
	ground	10	[n]	10	
	kind	4	[n]	4	
	band	3	[n]	3	
	find	3	[n]	3	
	hand	3	[n]	3	
	end	2	[n]	2	
	second	2	[n]	2	
	send	2	[n]	2	
	thousand	2	[n]	2	
nt	want	36	[nt] [n]	2 34	[nt], [n]
	different	7	[nt] [n]	2 5	
	attendant	6	[nt] [n]	2 4	
	front	4	[n]	4	
	accent	3	[nt] [n]	1 2	
	document	3	[n]	3	
	management	3	[nt] [n]	1 2	
	present	2	[nt] [n]	1 1	
	rent	2	[n]	2	
	student	s	[n]	2	
ns	allowance	4	[ns]	4	[ns], [n]
	chance	2	[ns] [n]	1 1	
	experience	2	[ns] [n]	1 1	
	science	2	[ns]	2	
nθ	month	3	[nt]	3	[nt]
ŋk	think thank	47 4	[ŋ] [ŋ]	47 4	[ŋ]
st	just	37	[s]	37	[st], [s], [t͡]
	first	18	[st] [s] [t͡]	1 16 1	
	most	8	[s] [t͡]	7 1	
	must	8	[s] [t͡]	6 2	
	last	6	[s]	6	

CC	*Words*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations*	*No. of Tokens*	*Variations Summary*
	best	4	[s] [t̚]	1 3	
	assist	3	[s]	3	
	taste	3	[st] [s]	1 2	
	east	2	[s]	2	
	latest	2	[s]	2	
	test	2	[s]	2	
sk	ask	10	[s] [k̚]	8 2	[s], [k̚]
ks	relax	6	[ks] [k̚]	5 1	[ks], [k̚]
	six	4	[ks] [k̚]	3 1	
	fix	2	[ks]	2	
kt	strict	4	[kt] [k̚]	2 2	[kt], [k̚]
	subject	2	[k̚]	2	
lp	help	21	[lp] [l] [w]	8 11 2	[lp], [l], [w]
lf	myself	5	[lf] [l]	4 1	[lf], [l]
	yourself	4	[lf]	4	
ld	child	2	[l]	2	[l]
	cold	2	[l]	2	
lθ	health	2	[lθ] [l]	1 1	[lθ], [l]
lv	solve	2	[p̚]	2	[p̚]
ft	craft	6	[f]	6	[f], [p̚]
	shift	5	[f] [p̚]	1 4	
	left	2	[f]	2	
pt	accept	3	[p̚]	3	[p̚]
mp	ramp	2	[m]	2	[m]

Discussion and Conclusion

This pilot study was intended to determine the variations of the pronunciation of English consonant clusters by Thai speakers in the airline business. The results indicated the variations of the pronunciation. The frequency of the emergence of consonant clusters by Thai speakers in the airline business was found in both speech styles in the initial position and final position. The results are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. Summary of consonant clusters

Position	**CC**
Initial	[fr], [tr], [pr], [θr], [gr], [kr], [br], [dr], [fr], [pl], [kl]
Final	[nd], [nt], [ns], [nθ], [ŋk], [st], [sk], [ks], [kt], [mp], [lp], [lf], [ld], [lθ], [lv], [ft], [pt]

The pilot study revealed that both speech types *do* have an impact on the pronunciation of consonant clusters. This can be seen from the words that appeared in both speech types such as "flight". In announcements, speakers pronounced more consonant clusters than in the casual conversations which were unscripted and not careful speech.

Moreover, the non-pronunciation of final consonant cluster was found to prevail. Characteristically, Thai speakers will either select to pronounce one of the clusters or release *none* of the final consonants. It was also observed that Thai speakers in this study almost unvaryingly pronounced the consonant cluster when it ends with [s] such as "announce" and "assistance". The variations of consonant cluster pronunciation by Thai speakers in the airline business as found in this pilot study should form a basis for the researcher's main study on Thai's pronunciation of English consonants.

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Relationships among Social Engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 on Brand Equity, Organization-Public Relationship, and TV Viewing Behavior

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ABSTRACT

This survey research aims to explore the implications of frequency of social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3, perceived brand equity, and perception of organization-public relationship on Thai residents' frequency of television viewing behavior of Channel 3. The samples were Thai residents who had used the Line Application of Channel 3 in the past 12-month period and were currently living in the Bangkok Metropolitan Region. Two hundred samples were selected using non-probability sampling methods, including purposive sampling and convenience sampling. The data were analyzed using One-Way ANOVA, Chi-square analysis, and Spearman's Rank Correlation with Alpha 0.05. The quantitative results confirmed the following points: Firstly, a variation in Thai residents' frequency of social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 significantly influenced their brand equity in relation to social image, value, and attachment, respectively; but their perceived brand equity did not significantly influence their perceived performance and trustworthiness of Channel 3. Secondly, Thai residents' perceived brand equity to brand Channel 3 significantly influenced their perception of organization-public relationship between Channel 3 and Thai residents in Bangkok Metropolitan Region. Thirdly, there was a significant positive correlation between their frequency of TV viewing behavior and their perceived brand equity, including trustworthiness, attachment, value, social image, and performance, respectively. In addition, there was a significant positive correlation between their frequency of TV viewing behavior and their perception of their organization-public relationship, including local or community involvement, reputation, trust, and commitment, respectively.

Keyword: Social engagement, brand equity, organization-public Relationship, TV viewing behavior, Channel 3

Introduction

Social media and mobile Internet currently plays a significant role in Thai residents' media exposure to television contents. Increasingly innovative technologies are helping people connect with each other more easily and closely, and this advantage can be an opportunity for businesses to promote themselves and communicate with customers. According to Abu-Rumman and Alhadid (2014), social media is the integration of media and social communication; it is a collection of online tools that facilitate interaction and communications between users. In light of the growing interest in the use of social media marketing among a large number of companies, particularly mobile service providers, and the transformation of social media into an effective tool for building relationships with consumers, many companies have utilized social media marketing as a new channel to reach their consumers. If a brand can use social media effectively, it will help increase brand value, brand equity, and brand identity among customers.

One of the most successful mobile messenger apps in the world is Line, stylized as "LINE". It is the second most successful app on the Asian market, after the Chinese-based WeChat. Line reported 560 million registered users worldwide in October 2014, and recently announced more than 220 million monthly active users in the third quarter of 2016 (Statista, 2017). Thailand is the second most profitable national market in the world for Line with 33 million users reported by the end of 2015, after Japan where the messaging platform was created (Pornwasin, 2016). Line has developed its software from use as a mobile app for smartphones and tablet devices to be available on personal computers. Its main functions are the exchange of text, photos, videos and audio messages as well as free voice calls and video conferences, and the playing of games. As of 2012, Line developed into a social network with features similar to Facebook, such as a timeline where users can post status updates and other content. The sticker store, where users can create and sell their own Line chat stickers, is one of Line's most popular features.

Literature Review

At present, how people exchange their information is changing toward social media with the number of users increasing daily. By 2011, approximately 83% of Fortune 500 Companies were using some forms of social media to connect with consumers. Furthermore, surveys suggested that consumers increasingly rely on social media to learn about unfamiliar brands (Naylor, Lamberton, & West, 2012). Kasturi and Vardhan (2014) said that social media has been defined in diverged ways by various social scientists. In the contemporary world, social media has not

only established its place in the field of mass communication, but also posed a threat to the conventional mass media. Amanda, Janice, and Juliet (2014) found that young people are using digital technology and online social media within their everyday lives to enrich their social relationships. The findings suggested that participants have a desire to use the Internet and online social media as it is perceived to increase opportunities for self-determination and self-representation while enriching friendships.

Impact of Social Media Engagement on Brand Equity

Brand equity is defined as "an added value or asset to a brand and product and such a value is made of 'customers' positive feelings, thinking, and acting toward purchasing a product." Customer-based brand equity (CBBE) occurs when the consumer has a high level of awareness and familiarity with the brand and holds some strong, favorable, and unique brand associations in their memory (Keller, 2013, p. 73). Past studies revealed that brand equity is a significant factor that enhances the value of the service provided to customers. Brand equity has a moderate relationship or moderately effect on the customers' purchase decision. Increasing brand awareness, brand association, brand loyalty and perceived quality will generate higher brand equity, support the direct positive impact of brand equity and create positive feelings on a product brand, which promote purchase intention of customers (Gunawardane, 2015). Lassar, Mittal, and Sharma's (1995) Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) divided the key constructs of brand equity into performance, social image, trustworthiness, value, and attachment.

Past studies also confirmed that social media brand communication influence customers' positive perception of brand equity of the company (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2015) and influenced their purchasing decision process (Gunawardane, 2015). Social media brand communication can shorten the customer's process of brand decision-making and turn that choice into a habit (Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000); social media brand communication promotes the quality of peer interactions in the brand community, leading to a positive impact on functional, experiential, and symbolic brand benefits, consequently generating brand loyalty (Bruhn, Schnebelen, & Schäfer, 2013).

The researcher selected Channel 3's Official Line Account of Bangkok Entertainment Company Limited as a case study because the company is one of the leading commercial television stations in Thailand. Channel 3 transmits 24-hours a day, 7 days a week. Channel 3 Line TV Application was launched to connect and interact with Thai viewers in 2016. The channel provides local programs including: news, current affairs, magazines, talk shows, sports,

documentaries, dramas and films. The station also broadcasts a balance of quality foreign content such as films, dramas, situation comedies, documentaries and sports. The station has a strong market position and reinforces its brand awareness among its viewers through various on air and ground events. The researcher would explores whether Thai viewers' social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 significantly influences perceived brand equity or not and whether brand equity can generate TV viewing behavior. The researcher used Lassar, et al.'s (1995) Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) as a framework to test the hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2 as follows:

Hypothesis 1: A variation in Thai residents' frequency of social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 significantly influences their brand equity (performance, social image, value, trustworthiness, and attachment).

Hypothesis 2: Thai residents' perceived brand equity of Channel 3 positively correlated with their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3 after engaging in Line Application of Channel 3.

Impact of Social Media Engagement on Organization-Public Relationships

Social media have greatly changed the relationship between consumers and companies by allowing a two-way communication (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2010, p. 389) and a new marketing function called 'Social Media Marketing' has arisen. Kaplan and Haenlein (2009, p. 565) described social media as Internet-based applications that help consumers share opinions, insights, experiences, and perspectives. Khatib (2016) found that consumers play an active role in the course of information acquisition because of the accessibility and availability of information on social media platforms mean that consumers have been able to use a wide range of comparison tools, recommendations and reviews available that help them to make their purchase decision. The article, "Expand your Brand Community Online" states that social media is important for marketers because it allows them to dialogue directly with consumers, which in turn engages consumers directly with company brands (Hanlon, 2008).

Jo and Kim (2003 cited in Perse, 2009) explained that the relationship between an organization and its public is based on economic and humanistic factors. Economic factors include the ability of the organization to provide goods and services that satisfy the public. Humanistic factors deal with feelings that the public has for the organization, such as comfort and loyalty. Ledingham, Bruning, and Wilson (1999) defined organization-public relationship as

"the state that exists between an organization and its key publics in which the actions of either entity impact the economic, social, political and/or cultural well-being of the other entity" (p. 62). Moreover, Jo and Kim's organization-public relationship scale (2003 cited in Perse, 2009) contained four subscales as the indicators of quality relationship: trust, commitment, community involvement, and reputation. Channel 3 has used Line Application to promote dialogue and interaction with viewers in order to meet the Thai residents' needs and expectation for the local programs for several years. Hence, the researcher intends to explore whether their perceived brand equity affected their perceived relationship of Channel 3 after engaging in Line Application of Channel 3 and whether their perceived relationship of Channel 3 correlated with their TV viewing behavior. This survey research will use Jo and Kim's (2003) organization-public relationship scale to measure the indicator of organization-public relationship between the Thai residents and Channel 3 by testing the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Thai residents' perceived brand equity to brand Channel 3 significantly influences their perception of organization-public relationship (trust, commitment, local or community involvement, reputation) between Channel 3 and Thai residents in Bangkok Metropolitan Region.

Hypothesis 4: Thai residents' perception of organization-public relationship of Channel 3 positively correlated with their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3 after engaging in Line Application of Channel 3.

Uses and Gratification of Social Media Engagement in Line Application

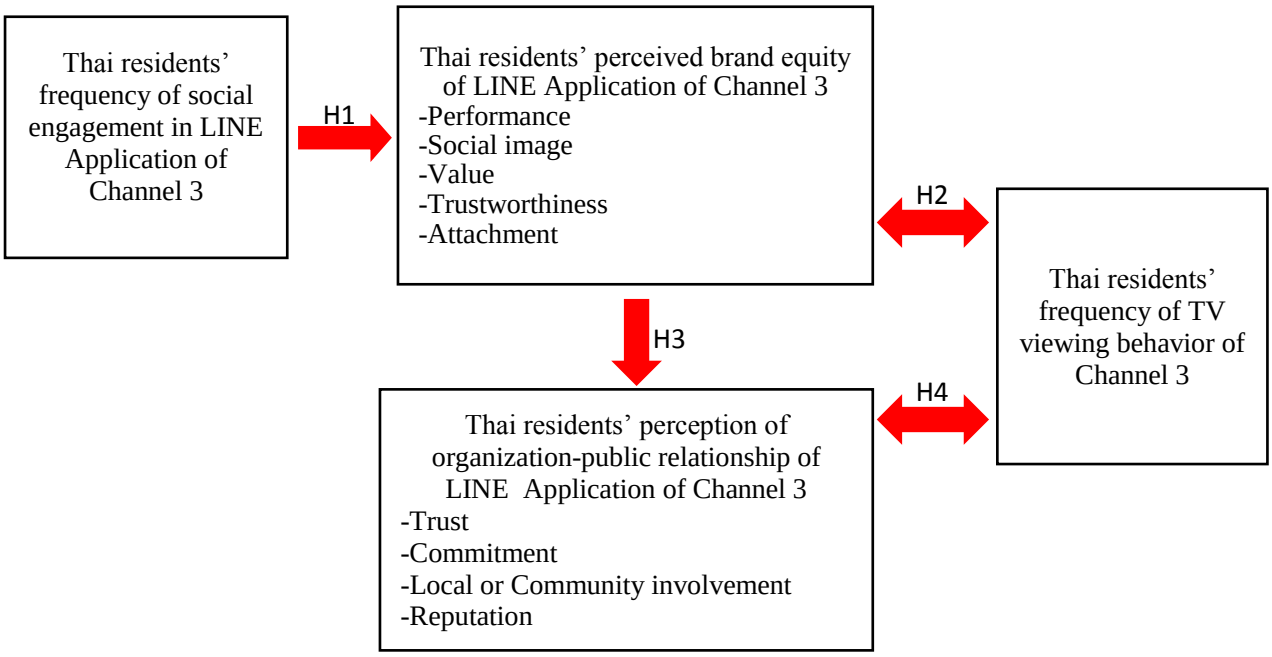
The Uses and Gratifications Theory (UGT) is the theory which explains how people use media for their needs and gratifications. Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch (1974) suggested that media users play an active role in choosing and using media. Users take an active part in the communication process and are goal oriented in their media use. In other words, this theory posits what people do with media rather than what media does to people. The theory claims that audiences are responsible for choosing media to meet their needs. The approach suggests that people use the media to fulfill specific gratifications. This theory would then imply that media compete against other information sources for viewers' gratification. UGT is an extension of Needs and Motivation Theory (Maslow, 1970). Maslow (1970) stated that people are motivated to achieve certain needs, and that some needs take precedence over others. Our most basic need is for physical survival, and this will be the first factor that motivates our behavior. Once that

level is fulfilled the next level up is what motivates us, and so on. In terms of social media, there are several needs and gratifications which can be divided into five categories: (1) Cognitive needs are needs for people to use media for acquiring knowledge, information, etc.; (2) Affective needs are needs for people to use media to satisfy their emotional needs, pleasure and other moods; (3) Personal Integrative needs are needs for people to use media to reassure their status, gain credibility and stabilize (self-esteem needs); (4) Social Integrative needs are needs for people to use media to socialize with family, friends and relations in society; and (5) Tension free needs are needs for people to use the media as a means of escapism and to relieve from tension.

Regarding UGT's role in the twenty-first century, the era of information, computer-mediated communication such as email and instant messaging frees people from geographic and physical limitations that might otherwise limit access to face-to-face communication with friends and relatives (Lea & Spears, 1995). The Internet allows people to join groups on the basis of common interests rather than convenience (Katz & Aspden, 1997). Also, the Internet offers its audience an immense range of communication opportunities. Networks are always "up", allowing 24-hour asynchronous or synchronous interactions and information retrieval and exchange among individuals and groups (Kiesler, 1997). Ruggiero (2000) predicted that the Internet will be transformative, leading to "profound changes in media users' personal and social habits and roles" (p. 28). Personal social interaction with friends, family, and professional contacts has transformed itself from the offline realm into an online entity due to the increasing popularity of social networking sites (SNSs) such as Facebook, Myspace, YouTube, Twitter and various blogging sites.

Several past studies have confirmed that social media shapes brand equity (e.g., Bruhn et al., 2013) and promote their purchase intention (e.g., Gunawardane, 2015). However, very limited studies have examined how social media influence Thai residents' perceived organization-public relationship in respect to their trust, commitment, local or community involvement, and reputation toward a television station in Thailand. Few studies have examined the link between perceived organization-public relationship and its influence on Thai residents' television viewing behavior in Thailand. In recognition of this knowledge gap, the following theoretical framework has been formulated.

Theoretical Framework



Research Methodology

The survey respondents were Thai residents aged between 20-40 years who currently used the Line Application of Channel 3 in past 12-month period. Two hundred samples were selected using non-probability sampling methods, including purposive sampling and convenience sampling. The data collected from the samples were analyzed using One-Way ANOVA, Multiple Regression, Chi-Square Analysis, and Spearman's Rank Correlations at the significance level of 0.05. The study used Lassar et al.'s (1995) CBBE scale with 17 questions in the section, ranging from 1 "Strongly disagree" to 5 "Strongly agree." Jo and Kim's (2003) organization-public relationship scale with 16 questions in the section, ranging from 1 "Strongly disagree" to 5 "Strongly agree". The overall Cronbach's Alpha of all sections received an acceptable range above 0.70. The Cronbach's Alpha for the CBBE scale was 0.913, and for each dimension was 0.923 (trustworthiness), 0.873 (attachment), 0.821 (social image), 0.794 (performance), and 0.793 (value), respectively. The Cronbach's Alpha for the organization-public-relationship (OPR) scale was 0.927, and for each dimension was 0.902 (commitment), 0.893 (local or community involvement), 0.860 (trust), 0.800 (reputation), respectively.

Results

To test **Hypothesis 1**, One-Way ANOVA analysis shown in Table 1 indicated that sample's social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 significantly influenced their perceived brand equity ($F_{(32, 200)} = 2.073^*$, $p < 0.05$). When examining each key construct of brand equity, the Wilks' Lambda revealed that their social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 significantly influenced their social image ($F_{(32, 200)} = 3.183^*$, $p < 0.05$), value ($F_{(32, 200)} = 2.984^*$, $p < 0.05$), and attachment ($F_{(32, 200)} = 2.932^*$, $p < 0.05$) but was not associated with trustworthiness ($F_{(32, 200)} = 1.431$, $p > 0.05$) and performance ($F_{(32, 200)} = 0.550$, $p > 0.05$). When examining each brand equity construct, Post Hoc analysis indicated that there was a significant difference in *social image* among those who seldom and rarely (Mean Difference= 0.852*, $p < 0.05$), seldom and always (Mean Difference = 0.478*, $p < 0.05$), rarely and sometimes (Mean Difference = -0.442*, $p > 0.05$), and rarely and very often (Mean Difference = -0.603*, $p < 0.05$) engaged in Line Application of Channel 3. There was a significant difference in *perceived value* among those seldom and rarely (Mean Difference = 0.548*, $p < 0.05$), rarely and sometimes (Mean Difference = -0.688*, $p < 0.05$), rarely and very often (Mean Difference = -0.659*, $p < 0.05$), rarely and always (Mean Difference = -0.593*, $p < 0.05$), and very often and sometimes (Mean Difference = -0.029, $p < 0.05$). Finally, there was a significant difference in *attachment* among those who seldom and rarely (Mean Difference = 0.876*, $p < 0.05$), seldom and always

Table 1: Analysis of Wilks' Lambda Tests on the Tests of Between-Subjects Effect of the samples' social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 and their perceived brand equity

Effect	**Value**	***F***	**Hypothesis df**	**Error df**	***p***
Engagement in Line Official Account Application of Channel **3**	0.714	2.073*	32	694.905	0.001
Dependent Variables	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	***F***	***p***
Performance	1.159	4	0.29	0.550	0.700
Social Image	7.762	4	1.941	3.183*	0.015
Value	7.317	4	1.829	2.984*	0.020
Trustworthiness	3.462	4	0.866	1.431	0.225
Attachment	6.695	4	1.674	2.932*	0.022

Note. *$p < 0.05$, n = 200

(Mean Difference = 0.500*, $p < 0.05$), rarely and sometimes (Mean Difference= -0.452*, $p < 0.05$), rarely and very often (Mean Difference = -0.466*, $p < 0.05$), rarely and always (Mean Difference = -0.376*, $p < 0.05$). The findings suggested that the frequency of social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 was negatively associated with their social image, value, and attachment. This means lower frequency may lead to an increasing variation of social image, value, and attachment.

To test **Hypothesis 2**, Spearman's Rank Correlation analysis shown in Table 2 found that samples' perceived brand equity of Channel 3 was positively correlated with their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3 (r = 0.289*, p < 0.05). When examining each construct of brand equity, the findings revealed that there are positive relationship between all key constructs, including trustworthiness (r = 0.270*, p < 0.05), attachment (r = 0.265*, p < 0.05), value (r = 0.237*, p < 0.05), social image (r = 0.223*, p < 0.05), and performance (r = 0.211*, p < 0.05), respectively. The correlation between the brand equity and TV viewing behavior is low.

Table 2: Spearman Correlation Analysis on relationship between the samples' perceived brand equity toward their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3

Engagement in Line Official Account Application of Channel 3	**Perceived Brand Equity**											
	Performance		Social image		Value		Trustworthiness		Attachment		Brand equity in the overall	
	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.
Frequency of TV watching	0.211*	0.003	0.223*	0.002	0.237*	0.001	0.270*	0.000	0.265*	0.000	0.289*	0.000

Note. *$p < 0.05$, n = 200

To test **Hypothesis 3**, Multiple Regression model shown in Table 3 revealed that sample's perceived brand equity was a significant predictor of perception of organization-public relationship (R^2 = 0.630**, $p < 0.01$). Furthermore, the brand equity accounts for sample's perceived organizational relationship at a rate of 79.8%, which is considered to be rather high.

Table 3: Multiple Regression Model on the samples' perceived brand equity to Channel 3 and their perception of organization-public relationship.

Model	***R***	***R²***	**Adjusted R^2**	**Std. Error**	***F***	***p***
1	.794[a]	0.630	0.628	0.40241	336.800	.000[a]**

Note: **$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$, n = 200

As shown in Table 4, the samples' perceived brand equity in trustworthiness accounted for the strongest influence (highest predictor) (Beta = 0.794**, $p < 0.01$), followed by performance (Beta = 0.378**, $p < 0.01$), attachment (Beta = 0.292**, $p < 0.01$), social image (Beta = 0.231**, $p < 0.01$), and value (Beta = 0.184, $p < 0.01$), respectively.

Table 4: Coefficients of the sample's perceived brand equity to brand Channel 3 and their perception of organization-public relationship.

Model		Beta	t	Sig.
Brand Equity	**Performance**	0.378	7.956	0.000**
	Social Image	0.231	4.713	0.000**
	Value	0.184	3.358	0.001**
	Trustworthiness	0.794	18.352	0.000**
	Attachment	0.292	4.956	0.000**

Note: $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{*}p < 0.05$

To test **Hypothesis 4**, Spearman Correlation analysis shown in Table 5 revealed that sample's perception of organization-public relationship of Channel 3 was positively correlated with their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3 ($r = 0.310^*$, $p < 0.05$). When examining each construct of brand equity, the findings revealed that local or community involvement ($r = 0.316^*$, $p < 0.05$), reputation ($r = 0.281^*$, $p < 0.05$), trust ($r = 0.268^*$, $p < 0.05$), and commitment ($r = 0.263^*$, $p < 0.05$) were positively correlated with their frequency of watching Channel 3. The correlation between the organization-public relationship and TV viewing behavior is low.

Table 5: Spearman Correlation Analysis on the relationship between the samples' perception of organization-public relationship toward their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3

Engagement in Line Official Account Application of Channel 3	Organization-Public Relationship									
	Trust		Commitment		Local or Community Involvement		Reputation		OPR in the overall	
	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.
Frequency of TV watching of Channel	0.268*	0.000	0.263*	0.000	0.316*	0.000	0.281*	0.000	0.310	0.000

Note. $^{*}p < 0.05$, n = 200

Discussion and Conclusion

Results of **Hypothesis 1** confirmed that a variation in Thai residents' frequency of social engagement in Line Application of Channel 3 significantly influenced their brand equity in relations to social image, value, and attachment, respectively, but did not significantly influence the performance and trustworthiness. Lassar et al. (1995) defined consumer's perception of esteem as the esteem held by a consumer's social group for the brand. It includes the attributions a consumer makes and a consumer thinks that others make to the typical user of the brand. Lacetera and Macis (2010) stated that social image is concerned with primary motivator of pro-social behavior and suggested that symbolic prizes are most effective as motivators when they are awarded publicly. Also, the performance of pro-social activities is responsive to the social prestige attached to these activities. In the case of Line Application of Channel 3, the company provided free official Line stickers of famous actors/actresses for users who add themselves as friends in the Line Application. Users could send the stickers to their friends while chatting, thus their friends will know that those users are friends with Channel 3's Line Official Account. Customers perceived Channel 3 stickers as a motivator symbolizing their pro-social activities thus made them feel proud and attached a sense of prestige to these stickers.

In respect to value, many companies and organizations in this century put more effort into social media communication strategies, yet value is a quality all brands and companies crave, and they strive to be seen as valuable and to be considered valuable. Value is the premium that accrues to a brand from customers who are willing to pay extra for it. For Channel 3, its value is not set in the area of sale volumes, instead it is about the frequency of viewers tuning in to the channel and TV ratings. To increase its brand value, Channel 3 provided truth, interesting contents, benefits, and updated contents through their Line Official Account Application. Fans or followers were willing to participate in Channel 3's social communities leading to higher engagement and higher perceived brand value.

Bruhn et al. (2013) found that in the context of social media brand communication, the quality of peer interactions in brand communities has a positive impact on functional, experiential and symbolic brand community benefits, consequently levering brand loyalty. Brand attachment as defined by Oneto (2014), a PR specialist, is "the emotional connection between humans and brands." People with strong brand attachments influence other people around them. These fans or followers of the brand are not only becoming fans or followers who stay with the brand, they are also bringing their friends along, increasing the customer base for the company. Highly attached Channel 3's fans are more motivated to devote their own resources, defending

the brand, degrading alternative brands and devoting more time to the brand through brand communities and brand promotion using social media. The more frequency of social engagement to a brand can strengthen the relation between the company and customers and lead to a positive feeling and attachment to the company.

The findings supported the Uses and Gratifications Theory (Katz et al., 1974) which stated that people use the media to fulfill specific gratifications. Personal social interaction with friends, family, and professional contacts has transformed itself from the offline realm into an online entity due to the increasing popularity of SNSs. The Internet allows people to join groups on the basis of common interests rather than convenience (Katz & Aspden, 1997).

Results of **Hypothesis 2** showed that the Thai residents' perceived brand equity of Channel 3 positively correlated with their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3 after engaging in Line Application of Channel 3. Gunawardane (2015) found that brand equity has a moderate relationship or moderately affects for the purchase intention. Aaker (1991) stated that it is imperative to know how much equity a brand commands in the market as building strong brand equity is a very successful strategy for differentiating a product/service from its competitors. Although brand equity cannot be built in short term, it can be built in the long term through carefully designed marketing activities. This study confirmed that fans or followers had positive perceived brand equity toward Line Application of Channel 3 which created higher viewing intention of the viewers.

Results of **Hypothesis 3** showed that Thai residents' perceived brand equity in relation to performance, social image, value, trustworthiness, and attachment to brand Channel 3 was positively correlated with their perception of organization-public relationship. The findings of Multiple Regression revealed that the samples' perceived performance to brand Channel 3 was a positively correlated with their perception of organization-public relationship between Channel 3 and Thai residents in Bangkok Metropolitan Region. Brand performance refers to "the totality of the physical job" and defined performance as "a consumer's judgment about a brand's fault-free and long-lasting physical operation and flawlessness in the product's physical construction" (Lassar et al., 1995). Performance refers to the accomplishment of a given task measured against preset known standards of accuracy, completeness, cost, and speed (Lassar et al., 1995). The current study showed that strong communication of brand equity in terms of performance can build a positive perception of customers to an organization. Channel 3's fans or followers had received very good services from the company, such as updated information, deep information, special offer promotions, free samples, premium gifts, special event invitations, by engaging in

Line Application of Channel 3 which helped promote a positive perception of organization-public relationship toward Channel 3 and promote high brand equity in relation to the social image of the company.

Social image or public image refer to the ideas and opinions that the public has about a person or an organization that may not be what they are really like (Lassar et al., 1995). Channel 3 has a good social image for being the fourth TV channel operating in Thailand, and its TV programs have been broadcast to every part of Thailand and expanded to other countries both inside and outside Asia, so the customers/viewers could feel that they have a high social status when they engaged with Channel 3. Good status of the company in society leads to it being a well-known, with people outside the company and the public feeling willing to communicate and build a closer relationship with the company.

Perceived value is the worth that a product or service has in the mind of the consumer. Lassar et al. (1995) defined perceived value as the perceived brand utility relative to its costs, assessed by the consumer and based on simultaneous considerations of what is received and what is given up to receive it. The samples had chosen to receive news/information from Channel 3 and its social communication channel rather than other channels because they had high perceived value toward Channel 3. Fans or followers prefer to watch morning news from Channel 3 and its specific reporters. Even though it was the same news/information, Channel 3 had more ability to attract attention and persuade viewers to believe and cooperate. The study showed that the participants received correct and accurate fact/information creates a difference and benefit to their lives from the content provided by Channel 3, creating their high perception of organization-public relationship.

Trustworthiness is the quality of being authentic and reliable. Lassar et al. (1995) defined trustworthiness as the confidence a consumer places in the firm and the firm's communications and as to whether the firm's actions would be in the consumer's interest. Consumers place high value in the brands that they trust. The past literature stated that successful public relationships not only expand opportunities, but could also save an organization's immeasurable dollars by preventing, minimizing or resolving conflicts and crises (Ward, 1998). Channel 3 has built trust between the company and their customers/viewers from its long-term reputation so customers/viewers are likely to believe whatever Channel 3 states regarding any situation of interest to the public. During such situations and crises, strong perception of Channel 3's trustworthiness could help build the relationship between the company and the public. Aaker (1991, p. 39) stated that the attachment that a consumer has to a brand was the definition of brand

loyalty, and loyalty is a core dimension of brand equity. For example, in a serious flood situation, fans or followers have chosen to update the news/information via by Channel 3 and chosen to donate money and consumable goods via Channel 3's campaigns. The study showed that the participants have a positive feeling toward Channel 3's content and the company and this is likely to increase in the future.

Results of **Hypothesis 4** showed that Thai residents' perception of organization-public relationship in Channel 3 positively correlated with their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3 after engaging in Line Official Account Application of Channel 3. The findings of Spearman Correlation analysis revealed that the sample's perception of organization-public relationship in Channel 3 positively correlated with their frequency of TV viewing behavior of Channel 3. When examining each construct of brand equity, the findings revealed organization-public relationship in respect to local or community involvement, reputation, trust, and commitment, respectively. The correlation between the organization-public relationship and TV viewing behavior is low. Burnett and Moriarty (1998) stated that public relations is the use and communication of information through a variety of media to influence public opinion. This study confirmed that building perceived organization-public relationship via social media could promote 24-hour interaction with their customers on the principle of "Anytime, Anywhere, Anyone," which will generate higher perceived trust, commitment, perceived local or community involvement, and perceived reputation which are antecedents of their behavioral aspect or viewing behavior (Ledingham et al., 1999). If the contents of Line Application of Channel 3 can gratify the needs and expectation of Thai residents, they will choose to view Channel 3 more often. The viewing behavior or TV rating can be supported by UGT which posits that people are motivated to achieve certain needs, and that some needs take precedence over others. Our most basic need is for physical survival, and this will be the first factor that motivates our behavior. UGT categorized Thai viewers' needs and gratification into five categories: (1) cognitive needs, (2) affective needs, (3) personal integrative, (4) social integrative needs, and (5) tension free needs (Katz et al., 1974).

In sum, the research suggested that Thai residents perceived that contents in Line Application of Channel can gratify the affective needs and personal integrative need effectively, because hypothesis 2 underscored trust and attachment as the two highest predictors of the Thai residents' TV viewing behavior. In addition, hypothesis 4 confirmed that local or community involvement, reputation, and trust are the significant factors correlated with their TV viewing behavior. Both hypotheses suggested that contents in Line Application of Channel 3 could gratify

their affective needs, personal integrative, and social integrative needs. In the case of Channel 3, strong perceived brand equity and good perception of organization-public relationship in the viewers' mind help them to choose to receive news/information to fulfill these needs and persuade them to seek for interested programs from Channel 3. However, future researchers might examine the changing needs and expectations of the Thai millennial generation regarding Line Application of Channel 3 or other television channels particularly in light of the fact that digital TV channels are currently on the rise in Thailand. They might also explore how these digital stations use social media via Line TV to gratify the needs of Thai millennial generation. The results would be beneficial for television stations who use social media, especially Line Application, to reach the Thai millennial's expectations, a generation which has a different lifestyle and values than other generations.

In addition, future research should examine TV viewing behavior of Thai residents in provinces other than Bangkok Metropolitan Region because their values, socio-cultural backgrounds, and personal expectations might be different. This type of study, moreover, can be conducted following both qualitative and quantitative methodologies in order to reveal more detail regarding the needs and perceptions of customers because interviewing under the qualitative methodology can help researchers to deepen their perception of brand equity and organization-public relationship via communication through social media channels.

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"The Customer Is Always Right" Became Not Right in Interactions Between Service Providers and a Customer in the Film "Falling Down"

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Abstract

This study investigates conversation from a scene in U.S. film titled "Falling Down" (1993). "The customer is always right" as a commonly known motto repeated by the film's central character during a conversation between himself as a customer and the service providers of a fast food restaurant; however, the interaction did not progress as expected and ended violence. Ethnography of Communication (Hymes, 1964) and Coordinated Management of Meaning (Pearce & Cronen, 1980) were employed to qualitatively analyze the interactions. A four-minute video clip of the scene was transcribed verbatim. Three types of speech acts were found: directives, assertives, and expressives, respectively. Findings show that negotiation was unsuccessful due to different norms and self-concepts shaping the messages they conveyed resulting in the customer believing they were right while the service providers strict adherence to the company the policy not serving certain foods after designated periods, led violence. Implications are that conflicts among service providers and customers should be handled properly to avoid violence.

Keywords: Ethnography of Communication (EOC), Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM)

Introduction and Rationale

Communication is the process of finding mutual understanding between people who talk to each other (Chula International Communication Center, 2011). Because people are from different background beliefs and cultures, thus, they would try to find mutual understanding while communicating verbally and nonverbally as well as in various forms and levels depending on context, including talking to family members, contacting clients, and chatting with friends (Klomdaeng, 2003). Particularly, in the service industry, employees are routinely expected to have conversations with clients from dissimilar backgrounds and deal effectively with these clients. Thus, communication between service providers and their customers is intriguing and deserving of deep investigations. In this paper, the researchers have studied interactions between the service providers and their customer in the U.S. film "Falling Down," (1993) employing ethnography of communication (EOC) and coordinated management of meaning (CMM). Also, this study is an attempt to illustrate an integration between the two theories and how this integration could help answer the research questions.

Research Questions

The purpose of the study is to investigate the conversation between the service providers and a customer in the U.S. film titled "Falling Down" (1993), and to attempt to integrate the two theories to answer the research questions. The research questions are:

RQ1: What elements of Ethnography of Communication (EOC) are found in conversation in this scene of the film?

RQ2: How can the findings of RQ1 convey meaning in a Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM) framework?

Conceptual Framework

This section presents the details of the two theories employed to conduct this research: (1) Ethnography of Communication (EOC), and (2) Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM).

Ethnography of Communication (EOC)

EOC initially called ethnography of speaking, is a method to study discourse analysis developed by Dell Hymes (1964). The aim of this theory is to analyze communication in the extensive context of societies, cultures, and belief systems of members of a specific community. EOC consists of four important terms, namely, speech community, speech situation, speech event, and

speech acts as detailed below.

Speech community is the communication of members of the community by sharing the same knowledge, attitude, norms, rules of speaking and interpretation of speech performance, language use, and cultures. However, many linguists agree that a group of people who speak the same language cannot be counted as the same speech community. For example, although sharing the same code and language, Spanish speakers in Texas and Argentina still belong to different speech communities (Saville-Troike, 2003, p.14). Put simply, speech community means that people in the group can perceive mutual understanding.

Speech situation is a place, surrounding, or context that a conversation occurs (silence could also be analyzed in these terms) for example, a court trial, a classroom, a religious service, and a party. Although the location is changed, the situation may still remain. For instance, when a committee meeting assembles in different places. Conversely, many different activities may happen at the same place. For example, the same room in a university may be used as the site of a lecturer, or a party (Saville-Troike, 2003, p.23).

Speech event refers to interactions between interlocutors which have mutual goals, topics, language, and rules, as well as occurring in the same place. Moreover, it also maintains the same key or tone for interaction. Events can be disconnected, if one of the participants is interrupted. For instance, the interaction between a teacher and a student may be interrupted by a phone call. Then, the teacher may be in the new event, the phone call, after that, he/she may return to the same event with the student again by asking "Where were we?" Then, they can continue the same communication as before the interruption (Saville-Troike, 2003, p.23-24).

Speech acts is the smallest unit of communication which also has rules, forms, and turn-taking in conversation. Gesture and colloquial language can index the behavior of speakers. For example, a request may have many forms, and it may be known by using body language such as the raising eyebrows (Saville-Troike, 2003, p.24).

Moreover, there are five types of Speech Acts by Searle (1975 as cited in English Language and Linguistics Online, n.d): directives, assertives, expressives, commisisives, and declarations, which can described as follows:

Directives are used when speakers want listeners to do something. Put simply, this is imperative sentence. Words denoting this type of Speech Act are, for example, requesting, advising, and commanding.

Assertives (Representatives) are used when speakers want to describe, assist, or state something. They would use many words such as asserting, concluding, and boasting.

Expressives are used when speakers want to show their feeling to something or someone. There are many words indexing this type of Speech Act such as greeting, thanking, apologizing, and complaining.

Commisisives are promises uttered by speakers to addressees that they will do it in the future Words denoting this type are, for example, promising, threatening, and vowing.

Declarations are used when speakers announce something, and it consequently affects the affair. There are many words indexing this type of speech act such as declaring, baptizing, and arresting.

Furthermore, Hymes offers the SPEAKING mnemonic device as a method for conducting EOC (Johnstone & Marcellino, 2010).

The Mnemonic Device of SPEAKING was developed as a heuristic tool to assist researchers analyze the communication within any context of cultures (Johnstone & Marcellino, 2010). Hymes believes that it is necessary to use this device for describing the conversation in any event accurately.

Each letter of the word *SPEAKING* represents a specific meaning. **"S"** is setting which is refers to place, scene, or situation that a conversation occurs. **"P"** refers to participants which means interlocutors in the situation that communication occurs. **"E"** is end which refers to goals and outcomes of the message. In other words, the aim of the conversation. **"A"** is act sequence or speech acts. **"K"** is key referring to mood and tone of the conversation. **"I"** is instrumentalities: mode of discourse such as oral, written, or gestural as well as forms such as standard or non-standard. **"N"** refers to norms of interpretation and interaction, that is, rules, culture, and knowledge that participants in the communication mutually share. **"G"** is genre which means the type of conversation such as song, myth, joke, or poem (Zand-Vakili, Fard Kashani, & Tabandeh, 2012). (see Table 1).

Table 1. Definition of SPEAKING

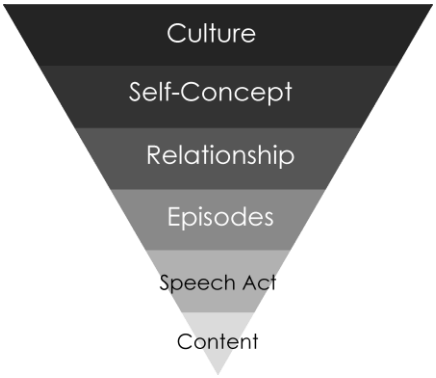
Setting	Place, scene, situation
Participants	Interlocutors
End	Goals and outcomes
Act sequence	Speech act
Key	Mood and tone
Instrumentalities	Channel or mode of discourse: oral, written, gestural, etc. Form: standard, non-standard, regional, etc.
Norms of interpretation and interaction	Rules, culture, knowledge, etc.
Genre	e.g., song, myth, joke, poem.

Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM)

CMM was proposed in 1976 by W. Barnett Pearce. The concept of this theory is that when people have a conversation, they will create words, sentences, and meanings that can be understood in the same way. For CMM, there are three main elements: coordination, management, and meaning as described below.

"Coordination" refers to when people can understand other's message while they are talking (University of Twente, n.d.). **"Management"** is the creation of common rules and a symbolic framework for their communication. **"Meaning"** refers to the concept that CMM believes that people will organize meaning in a hierarchical manners (A Pearce Associates Seminar, 1999).

CMM Model



In the CMM, the hierarchy model is shaped as a funnel from: broad to narrow. The broadest part at the top is posited culture, and the narrowest part at the bottom is posited content.

Firstly, **"culture"** refers to mutual cultures that people who communicate have in common. **"Self-concept"** (autobiography) is identity of the speakers, that is, speakers think they are. **"Relationship"** refers to how closeness of the people in a conversation. **"Episodes"** is a situation created by people in conversation. **"Speech act"** is the intention of the speakers. Lastly, **"content"** is the message while people are talking or, put simply, it is the meaning (Hedman & Gesch-Karamanlidis, 2015; Wood, 2003).

In terms of EOC, it can be used to indicate the context or the elements of communication. After perceiving the context, CMM can be employed to find the real meaning in the

communication and the elements of communication from EOC. Therefore, these two theories of EOC and CMM can be integrated to answer the research questions of this study.

Methodology

The data was collected from one scene of a film "Falling Down" (1993) related to the aim of the study. Because the purpose of the study was to scrutinize the conversation in the scene in which the central character received service, this four-minute video clip titled "I Want Breakfast" from the website, YouTube, was suitable for this study. Dialogues in the scene was transcribed verbatim. The researcher selected this video clip not only because it suited the aim of the study, but also as it ended with violence. Therefore, the conflict between the service providers and the customer can be studied.

A qualitative design was applied for analysis in this study. Moreover, a quantitative design was used to describe the frequency of speech acts. Also, two conceptual framework were employed to analyze the data: EOC by Hymes (1964), and CMM by Pearce & Cronen (1980). As described in the conceptual framework section, the two theories employ their own devices for analyzing data. EOC included the four important terms and the SPEAKING mnemonic device to examine the elements of communication in any context. By employing these devices, the researcher could understand the entire physical situation such as who took part in the conversation was, where the conversation occurred, what happened, the aim of the communication, and language use. After that, CMM can be used to reveal the meaning in messages conveyed by participants in the specific context. For example, by using EOC to analyze communication in a classroom, it might show that students were only playing in the classroom. One students may happily said "You are a jerk" to another student. By using CMM, because their relationship was very close and the situation not serious, this message could therefore be considered as jocularity. Hence, the two theories could reinforce one another.

Findings

This section presents an analysis of the data to answer the two research questions. It is divided into two part based on the research questions. The first part is an analysis of the data utilizing EOC. After that, the analysis based on CMM is presented.

RQ1: What elements of Ethnography of Communication (EOC) are found in the conversation in this scene of the film?

This part presents an analysis utilizing EOC to answer RQ1. It divided into two sections based on: (1) an analysis of terminology, and (2) the mnemonic device: SPEAKING.

The four important terms: speech community, speech situation, speech event, and speech acts as outlined in the conceptual framework were employed.

Table 2 illustrates the elements of the conversation in this film utilizing this terminology. It shows that the speech community were divided in two groups of people: service providers and a customer. As all three were American, therefore, their culture was American as were the social norms the characters followed. In addition, the language used was English. The speech situation of this conversation was in a restaurant in USA at 11.30 am just after the restaurant changed from serving breakfast menu to lunch menu. There were six speech events in the conversation: service (order/ serve food), needing to talk to authority, threatening, breaking off the conversation, violence, and complaint. Furthermore, in this scene of the film, there were three types of the speech acts: directives, assertives, and expressives. Directives were the most frequently found speech act in this study (see table 2).

Table 2. An analysis of the terminology in EOC

Speech community	• Service Providers (Sheila and Rick) , and Customer—Americans • American culture and social norms • English (US) language	
Speech situation	• A restaurant in USA • 11.30 am. (just after the restaurant has changed from serving breakfast menu to lunch menu)	
Speech event	• Service (order/ serve food) • Needing to talk to authority • Threatening	• Breaking off the conversation • Violence • Complaint
Speech acts	There are 3 types of speech acts found in the study: 1. Directives (71.11%) 2. Assertives (20%) 3. Expressives (8.89%)	

The frequency of speech acts were analyzed quantitatively showing that directives had the highest frequency in this study at 71.11% found in almost all of speech events excluding breaking off the conversation, which belongs to the expressives category. Second most frequent was assertives at 20% fond in two speech events: service and threatening. Least frequent was

expressives at 8.89% which was found in two speech events: breaking off the conversation and complaint (see table 2).

In this study, there were three types of speech acts: directive, assertives, and expressives. Because this scene concerned service in a fast food restaurant, directives style was most frequently found. The two service providers and the customer used directives feature to request and refuse the order directly and politely. For example, "Hi. Can I help you?" was said by one of the service providers, and this type was directives under the subcategory of offering, questioning, and greeting. The second most frequent, assertives were found, when speakers stated something such as what they need insistently. For instance, the customer said, "I know you stopped breakfast, *Rick, Sheila* told me you stopped," was counted as in assertives category as the customer said it to state that he knew something. Expressives, in contrast, were less frequently used in this scene which are used to express the feeling of speakers. For example, "Yeah, well, hey, I' m really sorry" was uttered by the service provider to the customer to express his feeling (see Table 3).

Table 3. Examples of speech acts found in the study

Speech Acts	
Type	**Subcategory**
Directives	• Request • Order • Refusal • Challenging
Assertives	• Asserting • Stating • Describing
Expressives	• Apologizing • Complaining

After analyzing the data using the four important terms, the mnemonic device: SPEAKING was used to answer the RQ1.

By utilizing EOC to analyze the data, the findings revealed the elements of conversation illustrating that, firstly, the setting for the interactions between the two service providers and the customer occurred in a restaurant in USA at 11.30 am that the restaurant changed from serving the breakfast menu to the lunch menu. The end or aim of the conversation was to order food. There were seven act sequences: order/ serve food, refusal, apologizing, threatening, breaking off the conversation, violence, and complaint. For instrumentalities, all three speakers used polite

and formal spoken language, and also body language. However, after intimidating the service providers with a submachine gun, the customer used more informal language, while his language use remained still polite. Moreover, the key of this conversation was serious. Regarding social norms, this communication occurs in an American cultural context, including the social norms that service provider must help whatever the customer wants because the customer is always right, and also that the service provider should strictly follow the company's policy. These norms affected the speech events leading to conflict, and then violence in the situation. Lastly, the genre of this communication was service and also violence (see Table 4).

Table 4. Analysis by using SPEAKING to answer the research question.

Setting	a restaurant in USA
Participants	3 People—2 service providers (Sheila and Rick), and 1 customer
End	Ordering and serving food
Act Sequence	Order/ Serve food ─ Refusal ─ Apologizing ─ Threatening – Breaking off the conversation ─ Violence ─ Complaint
Key	Serious
Instrumentalities	• Polite and formal spoken language, and non-verbal language • After threatening service providers with a submachine gun, customer uses more informal language, but remains polite
Norms	• American culture • Social norm that the customer is always right, service provider must help with whatever the customer wants, and the service provider should strictly follow the company's policy
Genre	Service and violence

RQ2: How can the findings of RQ1 convey meaning in a Coordinated Management of Meaning (CMM) framework?

According to the findings of RQ1 which used EOC to investigate elements of the conversation, it highlighted how speakers used language under norms and context. This part shows the integration of elements of conversation in RQ1 which can shape the meaning in CMM framework.

As mentioned in conceptual framework, the CMM funnel model can be used to analyze this research question. The CMM funnel model can be divided into two groups: changeable and stable. The changeable group contained content, speech acts, episode, and relationship. The stable group consists of culture and self-concept, while contains content, speech acts, episode, and relationship.

The stable group consists of elements such as culture and self-concept that do not change. From the findings of RQ1, the social norms are that the service provider must assist whatever customer wants; and the service provider should strictly follow the company's policy shaped each step from broad to narrow. In addition, self-concept also reflected content and meaning. Service providers were polite and strict. The customer was polite, but moody.

Regarding the changeable group, episodes will be firstly discussed. There were seven episodes in this scene: order/serve food, refusal, apologizing, threatening, breaking off the conversation, violence, and complaint. Moreover, the relationship between the speakers changed depending on the episodes. For example, in the order/serve food episode, the relationship between speakers was that of service providers and customer. Whereas, in the threatening episode, the relationship between speakers was victims and aggressor. For content and speech act, they were very changeable depending on episode consistently. Examples of using CMM model were presented below.

The message that the customer uttered **"Rick! Have you ever heard the expression, 'The customer is always right?' Well, here I am. The customer"** could be analyzed by CMM that because the customer had the social norm that the customer is always right, and the service provider must help with whatever he wants, thus this norm may shape his message. Moreover, his self-concept was polite, but short-tempered. This may also shape the message. The relationship between him and service providers changed from customer-service providers to aggressor-victim. The speech act of his content was directive, and functioned to challenge or threaten service providers (see Table 5).

Table 5. Example of shifting episode from ordering food to threatening.

Speaker	Content	Speech act	Subcategory	Episode	Relationship
Rick	We stopped serving breakfast at 11.30.	Assertives	-Refusal/ Explanation	Ordering food	-Service provider
Customer	*Rick!* Have you ever heard the expression, ***"The customer is always right?"***	Directives	-Question -Threatening -Challenging	Threatening	-Customer -Aggressor
Rick	Yeah.	Directives	-Answer/ Acceptance	Threatening	-Service provider -Victim

Similarly, the message from the service provider, Rick, was also shaped from his norm that employees should strictly follow the company's policy. Hence, he said to the stubborn customer **"That's not our policy. You have to order something from the lunch menu."** This message showed his norm and his personality that he was strict and polite. Additionally, the speech act of his utterance was assertives, and functioned to refuse the customer's need and apologize to the customer (see Table 6).

Table 6. Example of shifting episode from ordering food to threatening. (CON'T)

Speaker	Content	Speech act	Subcategory	Episode	Relationship
Customer	Well, here I am. The customer.	Assertives	-Statement	Threatening	-Customer -Aggressor
Rick	***That's not our policy.*** You have to order something from the lunch menu.	Assertives	-Asserting -Refusal	Threatening	-Service provider -Victim

Some sentences were interesting because Rick and the customer said the same message, but had different meanings. For Rick, he said **"Yeah, well, hey, I'm really sorry"** to refuse, apologizing, and cut off the conversation. In addition, the speech act of his message was expressives, and functioned to express his feeling. In contrast, the customer said that **"Yeah, well, hey, I'm really sorry too!"** to not accept the apology from Rick, and also initiate these violences. In this sentence, the speech act was directives (see Table 7).

Table 7. Example of shifting episode from threatening, breaking off the conversation to violence.

Speaker	Content	Speech act	Subcategory	Episode	Relationship
Customer	I don't want lunch. I want breakfast.	Directives	-Request -Order	Threatening	-Customer -Aggressor
Rick	***Yeah, well, hey, I' m really sorry.***	Expressives	-Refusal -Apologize	Breaking off the conversation	-Service provider -Victim
Customer	***Yeah, well, hey, I' m really sorry too!***	Directives	-Refusal -Bugging -Sarcastic	Violence	-Customer -Aggressor
Rick	He's got a gun!	Directives	-Statement	Violence	-Service provider -Victim

Utilizing CMM to analyze the conversation between the service providers and the customer shows that the meaning of the message was mainly influenced by cultures, self-concept, and context. Additionally, the language that speakers used could also reflect the cultures and self-concept of the speakers. Moreover, it shows that although the interlocutors spoke in the same language, the conflict between service providers and the customer still occurred because they were from different cultures and backgrounds. For this reason, the negotiation between them might not be successful, and led to violence.

Table 8. The summary of the findings using CMM.

Culture	• The customer is always right, • Service provider must help whatever customer wants, and • Service provider strictly follows company's policy
Self-Concept	• Customer: Polite, moody, and stubborn • Service provider: Polite, inflexible, and strict
Relationship	• Service providers-Customer • Victims-Aggressor
Episode	Ordering food, Needing to talk to authority, Threatening, Breaking off the conversation, Violence, and Complaint
Speech act	Directives, assertives, and expressives
Content	What participants said (transcript)

Conclusion and Implications

This study was intended to examine the conversation between service providers and a customer in the film "Falling Down" (1993). EOC by Dell Hymes (1964) and CMM by Pearce & Cronen (1980) were employed as analytical framework to analyze the data.

Using EOC to analyze RQ1, the elements in the conversation were three participants (two service providers and a customer). They were American using formal and polite English language to communicate. Moreover, cultures influencing the communication were U.S. culture and social norms (the customer is always right, and service provider strictly follows the company policy). The communication occurred in a restaurant in USA at approximately 11.30 am. Therefore, the conversation was aimed to order and serve food. Additionally, three types of speech acts were found: directives, assertives, and expressives. Moreover, the speech acts which most frequently occurred was directives.

By employing CMM to analyze the results of RQ1 and answer RQ2, the findings reveal that the communication was not successful because the participants had different norms and self-concepts shaping the messages they conveyed. The relationship, episodes, speech acts, and

contents were consequently ineffectively changed. Thus, the implications are that service providers and customer should avoid conflict and violence by remaining calm and attempting to understand each other appropriately.

As mentioned in the introduction and rational, the main purpose of this study was to attempt to integrate two theories, and how they supported each other to answer the research questions. The researcher found the advantage of using EOC is that it could illustrate the elements of the communication clearly. For the four important terms, they widely showed the elements of communication such as what cultures that participants had, where the conversation occurred, what the interactions in the commutation are, and what types of speech acts are. For the SPEAKING mnemonic, the findings revealed the elements of communication in dept. It described place, people, aim, mood of conversation, language use, norms that participant had, and type of communication. It could be seen that EOC could illustrate the elements of the conversation in specific context. However, it could not show the meaning of any utterances in the communication. Therefore, CMM was employed.

According to RQ2, the findings from RQ1 were integrated with CMM to find the real meaning of the conversation. The two theories share similarities in terms of cultures or norms, and speech acts, but CMM also takes into account the relationship between speakers, self-concept of each participant, and episode which could shape the content or meaning. Hence, the result from RQ1 could be integrated with CMM to reveal the meaning in deep details. For these reasons above, it could be summarized that the two theories employed in this study could be integrated and support each other by using EOC to find the elements of conversation in the specific situation or context, then, utilizing CMM to reveal the meaning of the conversation in that context.

In terms of the advantage of this research, it illustrates an attempt to integrate EOC and CMM. However, because no previous similar research exist, there are no precedents to compare the results with. Thus, future researchers should consider further attempts to apply the two theories in the study of other films.

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A Comparative Study of Comparative Sentences "bubi" and "mai……kwa"

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Abstract

"bubi" can be used as one of the patterns to negate "bi" comparative sentence while "mai……kwa" is normally used as the Thai equivalent pattern of "bubi". The purpose of this study is to find similarities and differences of "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentences by using Chinese Three-plane theory, which is used in grammar studies to analyze the syntax, semantics and pragmatics of a particular sentence pattern. In this paper, the author collects and analyzes 517 sample sentences in Chinese from Peking University 北京大学 (2016, June 17) *Xiandai hanyu yuliaoku* (Modern Chinese corpus) and 226 sample sentences in Thai from Chulalongkorn University (2017, May 2) *Khlang khomul phasathai haeng chat* (Thai National Corpus). The result reveals both similarities and differences of negative comparative sentences "bubi", and "mai……kwa" sentences in terms of structure, meaning and usage. At the syntactic level, predicate patterns can be used in both Chinese and Thai. Also, some patterns can be used only in Chinese or in Thai. In semantic level, the two patterns express the same meaning, which is comparee's level is not higher than the standard of comparison's level. At the pragmatic level, the usage of "bubi" sentence and "mai……kwa" sentence are very similar.

Keywords: comparative study; comparative sentences; negative sentences; bubi; mai……kwa

Introduction

Comparative sentences in modern Chinese are considered basic patterns foreign students need to study. The Office of Chinese Language Council International (Hanban), whose duty is to develop Chinese language teaching resources, issued the Office of Chinese Language Council International 国家汉办 (2008) *Guoji hanyu jiaoxue tongyong kecheng dagang* (International curriculum for Chinese language education) as references for Chinese teaching and learning. Comparative sentences are included as one of the sentence patterns to be studied. Apart from this, Chinese comparative sentences are normally taught at the elementary level, which can be seen from many Chinese textbooks used in Chinese teaching and learning. However, due to differences between languages and complicated components of comparative sentences, it is difficult for foreign students to acquire Chinese comparatives.

The basic pattern used in expressing comparatives in Chinese is "A+bi+B+predicate" for example *我比他高。 Wo bi ta gao. (I'm taller than him)*. A is the comparee and B is the standard of the comparison. This pattern is normally called "bi" zi ju (sentences that use "bi" character). In this paper such a pattern will be referred to as "bi" sentence. As for Thai language, the pattern used in expressing comparatives is "A+predicate+kwa +B" for example *ฉันสูงกว่าเขา Chan sung kwa khao (I'm taller than him)*. In this paper such a pattern will be referred to as "kwa" sentence.

As for negative instances of "bi" sentence, there are "bubi", "buru" and "meiyou" sentences. The sentence patterns are "A+bubi+B+predicate", "A+buru+B+predicate" and "A+meiyou+B+predicate". As for negative instances of "kwa" sentence, there are "mai……kwa" and "mai…...thao". The sentence patterns are "A+mai+predicate+kwa +B" and "A+mai+predicate+thao+B". Examples for these patterns are *我不比他高。Wo bubi ta gao. (I'm not taller than him). 我没有他高。Wo meiyou ta gao. (I'm not as tall as him). 我不如他高。Wo buru ta gao. (I'm not as tall as him). ฉันไม่สูงกว่าเขา Chan mai sung kwa khao (I'm not taller than him). ฉันไม่สูงเท่าเขา Chan mai sung thao khao (I'm not as tall as him).*

The comparative sentences to be discussed in this paper are "bubi" sentence in Chinese and "mai……kwa" sentence in Thai.

Literature Review

Review of Comparative Sentences Studies

Type of comparison

Stassen (1985:25) and Jespersen (1924:246-247) divided comparison into two main types, which

are comparison of equality and comparison of inequality. Comparative sentences, such as I'm taller than him, are considered comparison of inequality.

Jespersen (1924:246-247) and Huddleston and Pullum (2002:1100) subcategorized comparative sentences into two main types, which are superiority and inferiority.

As for Chinese comparatives studies, Chinese scholars from earlier periods such as Ma (1898:135) and Li (1924:255-259) adopted the types of comparison from Western languages and divided the types into positive, comparative and superlative comparison.

Zhao (2001:1-16) is the first Chinese scholar who applied Typological theory with types of comparison. There are four types of comparison, which are likeness, equality, superiority and inferiority. Zhao's four types of comparison is referred to and acknowledged by other Chinese scholars who do research in Chinese comparison patterns.

As for Thai language, Bandhumedha (1971:204), Panupong (1987:106), Mahatdhanasin (1973:109) and Pankhuenkhat (1998:188) mentioned comparative degree and superlative degree in expressing comparison in Thai language.

Types of comparatives

In terms of types of comparatives, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999:718) discussed the types of comparatives from the Typological point of view. The types are grouped as follows:

1. Juxtaposition: Some language use the juxtaposition method to express comparatives, for example *My boat is big. Your boat is very big.*
2. Limited Scope Comparison: Some languages such as Chinese and Japanese express comparatives by limiting the scope, for example *Compare to Mary, John is tall.*
3. "Surpass" Comparative: Some languages use verbs such as "surpass" and "exceed" to express comparatives, for example *John surpasses Mary in height.*
4. Degree Morpheme: Some languages such as English use suffixes to express comparatives, for example *John is taller than Mary.*

Components of comparative sentences

Stassen (1985:24-26) explained that comparative sentences consist of three components, which are comparee noun phrase, standard noun phrase and comparative predicate. However, according to Cuzzolin and Lehmann (2004:1212), there are four components of comparative sentences, which are comparee, standard of comparison, marker of comparison and comparative predicate.

In Chinese comparative sentence studies many Chinese scholars, such as Fang (2001:161-

162), Shao and Liu (2002:1-7), Shi (2003:15), Zhao (2006:67-74), Li (2012:5-10) and others stated that there are found components in Chinese comparative sentences. The four components are objects of comparison (both comparee and standard of comparison), subject of comparison, comparative marker and comparative predicate.

In Thai language studies, there are no studies on components of comparative sentences. However, there are a few studies, such as Bandhumedha (1971:204), Phatharanawik (1981:46) and Bandhumedha (2011:193) that explained "kwa" as a comparative marker, which precedes standard of comparison.

Review of a Comparative Study of Chinese and Thai Comparative Sentences

Studies on Chinese and Thai comparative sentences are mostly done together with error analysis. There are three theses, which are Hu (2006) *Taiguo xuesheng hanyu bijiaoju xide pianwu* (A study on Thai students' errors in acquiring Chinese comparison sentences), Puttamapadungsak (2012) *Taiguo xuesheng hanyu bijiaoju pianwu fenxi* (A study on Thai students' errors in Chinese comparison sentences), Chen (2013) *Hantai bijiaoju duibi yanjiu ji dui tai chu, zhong jieduan jiaoxue qishi* (A comparative study of Chinese and Thai comparison sentences and a focus point for Thai beginners and middle level students) and one paper by Chen (2011) *Taiguo xuesheng hanyu chabiju xide de tedian ji pianwu fenxi* (A special feature and error analysis of Chinese comparative sentences acquired by Thai students). These studies mainly discussed Thai students' errors in Chinese comparative sentences. In these studies, authors only briefly explain the comparative patterns in Chinese and Thai. The main objective of these studies was to investigate and analyze errors made by Thai students. Apart from these studies, only one thesis by Nilkumhang (2010), *Hanyu "bi" zi ju he taiyu "kwa" zi ju duibi yanjiu* (A contrastive study of Chinese "bi" sentences and Thai "kwa" sentences) was a contrastive study of Chinese and Thai comparatives.

Review on Three-plane Theory

In this paper the author adopts Three-plane Theory (三个平面 san ge pingmian) of Hu and Fan (1985) to analyze Chinese and Thai comparatives. The Three-plane Theory was initiated from the idea of Morris (1938) who explained that a sign consists of three parts: syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Hu and Fan (1985) explained that, according to the Three-plane Theory, in doing studies on grammar there are three planes to be analyzed, which are syntactic level, semantic level and pragmatic level. At the syntactic level, the analysis includes sentence components

analysis and their functions in the sentence. At the semantic level, the analysis focuses on the meaning that a sentence expresses. In some case the analysis includes analyzing doer, object, mean, place, time and other components. At the pragmatic level, the discussion concerns how people use phrases to organize a sentence that contains the meaning they want to express. Apart from this, the sentence analysis at this level also includes the sentences' topics, focus points, types of sentence (such as declarative, explaining, question, request, instruction, expression of gratitude, apologizing, wishing and others), tone of the sentence (such as affirmative, negative, emphasizing, euphemism, and other tones), changes in sentence structure, as well as other components.

Theoretical Framework

In this paper the author adopts Three-plane Theory of Hu and Fan (1985) to analyze Chinese and Thai comparatives. According to Three-plane Theory, the sentences are analyzed at three levels: syntactic level (句法平面 jufa pingmian), semantic level (语义平面 yuyi pingmian) and pragmatic level (语用平面 yuyong pingmian).

At the syntactic level (句法平面 jufa pingmian), the analysis includes sentence components analysis and their functions in the sentence. In this paper the author analyzes "A+bubi+B+predicate" and "A+mai+predicate+kwa+B" patterns. Although Chinese and Thai are both considered subject-verb-object (SVO) order languages, the position of modifiers are not the same. Modifiers are used in front of nouns, verbs or adjectives in Chinese. On the other hand, modifiers are normally used behind nouns, verbs or adjectives in Thai. This is a major difference between Chinese and Thai. "A+bubi+B+predicate" is used as one of the negative comparative patterns in Chinese. In this pattern "A" is normally considered as the subject. "bubi+B+predicate" is predicate of the sentence. The predicate form of the pattern is "preposition (bubi)+object(B) (not…than B)", which is used as modifier of the comparative predicate. As for the Thai pattern, "A+mai+predicate+kwa+B" is used as a corresponding pattern. "A" is normally considered as the subject of this pattern. "mai+ predicate+kwa+B" is considered as predicate of the sentence. "kwa+B (than B)" is modifier of "mai (not) +predicate". Judging from the word order, the main difference between these two patterns is the position of modifiers. However, there are also differences in predicate patterns that can be used as comparative predicate. This topic will be discussed further in Findings and Discussion part.

As for the semantic level (语义平面 yuyi pingmian), the analysis focuses on the meaning that a sentence expresses. In this paper the analysis of the meaning that both

"A+bubi+B+predicate" and "A+mai+predicate +kwa+B" express will be discussed in Findings and Discussion part.

As for the pragmatic level (语用平面 yuyong pingmian), the discussion is about how people use phrases to organize a sentence that contains the meaning they want to express. Therefore, in this article the tone and the usage of "A+bubi+B+ predicate" and "A+mai+predicate+kwa +B" patterns as negative comparative sentences will be discussed in Findings and Discussion part.

Research Objectives

The objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To study and understand the structure, meaning and usage of "bubi" sentence and "mai……kwa" sentence in different contexts, not only those included in textbooks.
2. To find similarities and differences of "bubi" sentence and "mai……kwa" sentence for better understanding in order to help in teaching and learning Chinese comparative sentences.

Research Questions

1. At the syntactic level, are there more patterns of predicate pattern used in "bubi" sentence than "mai……kwa" sentence?
2. In terms of semantics, is there any meaning that "bubi" sentence can express while "mai……kwa" sentence cannot?
3. Is there any difference between "bubi" sentence and "mai……kwa" sentence in terms of pragmatics?

Methodology

In order to find similarities and differences between Chinese and Thai comparatives, the author analyzes sentences collected from Chinese and Thai corpora. Chinese sample sentences are collected from Peking University 北京大学 (2016, June 17) *Xiandai hanyu yuliaoku* (Modern Chinese corpus) which is the most referred to and acknowledged corpus in Chinese language research. The Modern Chinese Corpus includes 477 million Chinese characters from various interviews, writings, literature and other sources. Thai sample sentences are collected from Chulalongkorn University (2017, May 2) *Khlang khomul phasathai haeng chat* (Thai National Corpus) which is under the patronage of Her Royal Highness Princess Mahachakri Sirindhorn.

Thai National Corpus consists of 33 million words from a variety of genres. Corpora in both languages consist of sentences from literature, interviews, conversations, papers and newspapers. The total number of sentences analyzed are 517 Chinese and 226 Thai sentences. The similarities and differences of "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentences will be discussed according to three levels, namely syntactic level, semantic level and pragmatic level.

Findings and Discussion

Comparison between "bubi" and "mai……kwa" in Syntactic Level

The basic pattern used in expressing comparatives in Chinese is "A+bi+B+predicate". A is comparee and B is standard of the comparison. Negative marker "bu" can be used in front of "bi" to negate the sentence. The pattern is "A+bubi+B+predicate". The definition of "bubi" given in Modern Chinese Dictionary is "to be inferior to, to be different".

As for Thai language, the pattern used in expressing comparatives is "A+predicate+kwa +B". Negative marker "mai" can be used in front of the predicate to negate the sentence. The pattern is "A+mai+predicate+kwa +B". The meaning is A's level does not exceed B's level.

The author analyzes sample sentences from corpora. The analysis of predicate patterns used in these two comparative patterns is to find their similarities and differences. The predicate patterns used in these two sentences are as shown in Table 1:

Table 1: Analysis of Predicate Patterns of "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentences

Predicate pattern	bubi sentence	mai……kwa sentence
single adjective	+	+
adjective + quantitative word	+	+
adjective + verb	+	–
adjective + adverb "pai"	–	+
adverb + adjective	+	–
verb + complement	+	–
verb + noun	+	–
verb + adjective	+	+
verb + adverb "pai"	–	+
to have + noun	+	±
modal verb + adjective	+	–
Noun + adjective	+	–
noun+ verb phrase	+	–
not + adjective	+	–
this/that + adjective	+	–

That + adjective + verb	+	–
like that + adjective	+	–
like that + verb phrase	+	–
Even + mental activities verb	+	±
even + to have + noun	+	±
even + verb phrase	+	±

+ means the pattern can be used.

– means the pattern cannot be used.

± means the pattern can be used but there are some limitations or differences between Chinese and Thai.

The pattern can or cannot be used depending on the order and grammar of Chinese and Thai languages. Although Chinese and Thai use SVO order, the order of modifier and entity in Chinese and Thai is different. Modifiers are used in front of an entity or event in Chinese, while they are used behind an entity or event in Thai.

As can be seen in Table 1, three cases need to be discussed. The first case is the patterns that can be used in both "bubi" sentence and "mai……kwa" sentence. For this case, the "+" signs are shown in both columns of Table 1. There are three patterns in Table 1, considered as the first case. The patterns are "single adjective" pattern, "adjective + quantitative word" pattern and "verb + adjective" pattern. Apart from these patterns, there are four patterns that can be used in both languages but with minor differences. As for this case, the "+" sign is shown in "bubi" sentence column while "±" sign is shown in "mai……kwa" sentence column. There are four predicate patterns: "to have + noun" pattern, "even + mental activities verb" pattern, "even + to have + noun" pattern and "even + verb phrase" pattern.

The Chinese and Thai examples of the first case are as follows:

哈萨克斯坦 队 并 不比 中国 队 强 多少。

Kazakhstan team adv. not…than China team better much

(Kazakhstan team is not much better than China Team). 并 bing is an adverb used to emphasize negative meaning. The word cannot be translated.

เธอ ก็ ไม่ ดี กว่า ฉัน เท่าไหร่

you also not good than me much

(You are not so much better than me).

The second case to be discussed is the patterns that can be used in “bubi” sentence. However, those predicate patterns cannot be used in “mai……kwa” sentence. There are 12 predicate patterns that can be used in Chinese but not in Thai. For the second case, the “+” sign is shown in “bubi” sentence column while the “–” sign is shown in “mai……kwa” sentence column in Table 1.

In Thai language the adverb and modal verb cannot be used after the negative marker “mai”. Therefore, “adverb + adjective” and “modal verb + adjective” cannot be used in “mai……kwa” sentence.

There are four patterns that contain the words “this” or “that”, which are “this/that + adjective”, “that + adjective + verb”, “like that + adjective” and “like that + verb phrase”. “This” or “that” in the patterns are used to modify the level of properties of the adjectives or verb phrases used. Thai language does not use “this” or “that” to modify the level of properties. For example:

北方　　的　雨季　　不比　　南方　　那样
northern part　of　Rainy season　not…than　southern part　like that
阴雨连绵，　　数月　　不　止。
unbroken spell of wet weather months　not　stop
(Rainy season in the northern part is not more of unbroken spell of wet weather than southern part. The rain does not stop for months).

As for “not + adjective”, the pattern can be used in “bubi” sentence because the predicate phrase is behind standard of the comparison and considered as different comparative components. Thus, “bu” (not in English) can be used in predicate phrase. On the other hand, the predicate term or phrase in Thai comparatives are between the word “mai” and “kwa”. Thus, “not + adjective” cannot be used as predicate because the word “mai” itself means not or no. As we cannot use “not not” in English, we cannot use “mai mai” in Thai either.

Regarding “noun + adjective” and “noun + verb phrase”, they cannot be used as predicate of “mai……kwa” sentence because the predicate of “mai……kwa” sentence is put between these two words. A negative marker “mai” (not) is normally used before verb or adjective, noun does not normally follow “mai”. Thus, these two patterns are not used in “mai……kwa” sentence.

The pattern “adjective + verb” is not used in “mai……kwa” sentence because in Thai to modify a verb an adjective will be used after the verb not before. For example:

他 懂得 一个 地方 的 人 并 不比 另一个 地方 的 人
he knows a place of person adv. not…than another place of person
难 相处。
difficult to get along
(He knows that a person from a place is not more difficult to get along than a person from another place). 并 bing is an adverb used to emphasize negative meaning. The word cannot be translated.

Since modifiers are normally used in front of entities or event, "verb + complement" is a special pattern of verb modifying in Chinese language. Therefore, Thai language does not have this usage.

When we use a verb as comparative predicate in "mai……kwa" sentence, we normally use the verb together with an adjective to make the comparison clearer or more complete. Thus, "verb + noun" will not be used as predicate in "mai……kwa" sentence since there is no adjective. For example:

东方 的 玫瑰 不比 西方 的 玫瑰 差 什么 香味。
Eastern of rose not…than western of rose lack what scent
(Eastern rose does not lack more scent than western rose).

The third case to be discussed is the patterns that can be used in "mai……kwa" sentence but not in "bubi" sentence. For this case, the "–" sign is shown in "bubi" sentence column while the "+" sign is shown in "mai……kwa" sentence column in Table 1. The two patterns are "adjective + adverb "pai" pattern and "verb + adverb "pai" pattern. The word "pai" in these patterns is used to emphasize the meaning of an adjective or a verb in front.

เขา ก็ รู้สึก อึดอัด ไม่ น้อย ไป กว่า หล่อน เลย
he also feels uncomfortable not less adv. than she at all
(He also feels uncomfortable not less than she does). ไป (pai) is used after an adjective to emphasize the meaning of the adjective.

From the aforementioned patterns used as predicate in Table 1, it can be summarized that there are more patterns of predicate pattern used in "bubi" sentence than "mai……kwa" sentence.

As for the reason, it is because of the different way of modifying. Apart from this, Chinese and Thai use different types of Comparatives, Limited Scope for Chinese and Degree morpheme for Thai. For Limited Scope Comparatives, the standard of comparison is needed to express the difference in comparison. In Chinese, "bubi" is considered a preposition, which is used to indicate standard of comparison. When "A + bubi + B" are used in this order, predicate patterns behind "B" are quite flexible. On the other hand, we use predicate before "kwa", which is a degree marker in Thai. When we negate the meaning of "kwa", we use "A + mai + predicate + kwa + B" pattern. Predicate of the negative comparatives in Thai are used between "mai" and "kwa". Therefore, the predicate patterns are limited.

Comparison between "bubi" and "mai……kwa" at the Semantic Level

Both "A + bubi + B + predicate" and "A + mai + predicate + kwa + B" are negative sentences. These two sentences are used to negate "A + bi + B + predicate" and "A + predicate + kwa + B" respectively. Both "bi" and "kwa" sentences express that A's level is higher than B's. Thus, we can summarize that "A > B". When "bubi" and "mai……kwa" are used to negate the sentences, the meaning that they negate is "A's level is not higher than B's." Not higher here can refer to both less than or equal to. Thus, we can summarize that "A ≤ B". In identifying whether A is less than or equal to B, we need to consider the context of the sentences. For example:

我 并 不比 他们 和 你们 高。我 应该 变成 你们里的一个!
my adv. not…than them and you high I should become one of you.
(My position is not higher than them and you. I should become one of you).

From this sentence's context, it can be understood that the level of "我 (I or my)" is equal to "他们和你们 (they and you)". As for Thai example:

เธอน่ะ ไม่ โต กว่า ฉัน เท่าไร หรอกนะ อายุอานาม ก็พอๆ กัน
you not old than me much age quite the same
(You are not much older than me. Our ages are quite the same).

This sentence's context shows that the age of "เธอ (You)" and "ฉัน (I or me)" are basically the same. From these two examples it is obvious that both "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentence can express A and B's level are the same or "A=B". Apart from expressing the same

level, “bubi” and “mai……kwa” sentences can also express A’s level is lower than B’s or “A < B”. For example:

谁 取得 的 成果 也 不如 你们，
who get of success also be inferior you
谁 获得 的 待遇 也 不比 你们 高，
who get of wages also not…than you high
这 是 多么 来之不易啊。
this is so not come easily
(Nobody’s success can be compared you. Nobody’s wages is higher than you. This does not come easily).

From this example the comparative point is “待遇 (wages)”. When comparing wages between “谁(who)” and “你们 (you)”, A’s wage is less than B’s.

As for “mai……kwa” sentence, the example is as follows:

สนามกีฬา กรุงโรมนั้น แม้จะ ดัง แต่ ก็ ***ไม่*** *ดัง ไป* ***กว่า*** *กรุงโรม เอง ได้*
gymnasium Rome although famous but not famous adv. than Rome itself can
(Although Rome’s gymnasium is famous, it cannot be more famous than Rome itself.)

From the context of the sentence, when comparing famousness of Rome gymnasium and Rome, Rome gymnasium is less famous than Rome itself. We can see that A’s level of these two sentences is lower than B’s. Thus, it can be summarized that “A< B”.

In summary, in terms of semantics “bubi” and “mai……kwa” sentences are the same. These two sentences express the same meaning, which is A’s level is not higher than B’s. To judge whether A is lower than or equal to B, we need to consider the context of the sentences.

Comparison between “bubi” and “mai……kwa” at the Pragmatic Level

Apart from the predicate patterns analysis shown in Table 1, the author also analyzes words used as predicates. In classifying the words used, the author adopts the classification from Huang and Liao (2007:230-231), which divided words into three types: positive, neutral and negative meaning. The analysis results are shown in Table 2.

The results from Table 2 show that the word used in “bubi” sentence and “mai……kwa”

sentence are very similar in terms of types and the percentages.

Table 2: Comparison of the words used in "bubi" sentence and "mai……kwa" sentence

The words used as predicates	bubi sentence (%)	mai……kwa sentence (%)
Positive meaning words	46.03	39.82
Neutral meaning words	21.08	37.17
Negative meaning words	32.88	23.01

At the pragmatic level, there are a few points that need to be discussed as follows:

First of all, some words used in "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentences emphasize the meaning of the sentence. By using those words, the tone of the sentence is slightly changed. For "bubi" sentence, an adverb "并 bing" is used in front of comparative marker "bubi" to emphasize the negative meaning. As for "mai……kwa" sentence, the word "ไป pai" is used after verb or adjective in front of "kwa" to emphasize the degree of the verb or adjective in front.

Secondly, as we can see in Table 2, the percentage of the positive meaning words is 46.03% and 39.82% for "bubi" and "mai……kwa" respectively. This means most of the words used in "bubi" and "mai……kwa" are not positive. Since "bubi" and "mai……kwa" are negative sentences, when predicates are also negative meaning words, the two negative meanings become positive. Hence, it is found that double negation is applied when using "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentences.

Thirdly, the meaning of the negation, "bubi" and "mai……kwa" can be used to express counter-expectation, for example:

结果　发现，　中奖者　　并　不比　　未中奖者
result　revealed　prize winners adv.　not…than　people who did not receive the prizes
快乐，　也　　不料　　将来　　会　　更　　快乐。
happy.　also　uncertain in the future　will　even　happy
(The result revealed that prize winners were not happier than people who did not receive the prizes. It is uncertain that they will be happier in the future).

The expectation in this sentence is the prize winners were happier than people who did not receive the prizes. When the speaker's expectation did not correspond with the reality, "bubi"

is used to express the meaning. This also applies to "mai……kwa", for example:

หารู้ไม่ว่า ลูกสาว คิดการอะไรเอาไว้ เดี๋ยวนี้ ผู้ใหญ่ ไม่ ฉลาด กว่า
do not know daughter what are they thinking nowadays adults not smart than
เด็ก เสมอไปดอก
children always
(They do not know what their daughter is thinking. Nowadays adults are not always smarter than children).

The expectation of the sentence is that adults are smarter than children. "mai……kwa" is used to negate that expectation.

Lastly, "bubi" and "mai……kwa" can be used to express politeness. The types of politeness in this study are from politeness phenomena in modern Chinese of Yuegao Gu. Gu (1990:237-257) applied Leech's Politeness Maxim with Chinese conception of politeness. Gu mentioned that there are four types of politeness in modern Chinese: respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth and refinement. The types of politeness found from the corpora in this study are respectfulness and modesty. Respectfulness refers to complimenting the listener as well as saving listener's face. Both "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentences can be used to express respectfulness such as complementing the listener and saving the listener's face. Although no example sentences of respectfulness were found in the Thai corpus, in translating "bubi" sentences that express the meaning, "mai……kwa" is used in translation to convey the same meaning. The author assumes that Thai people may complement the listener directly by using positive sentences rather than negative sentences. Apart from respectfulness, "bubi" and "mai……kwa" can also be used to express modesty. Modesty here refers to self-denigration and blaming oneself.

Overall, in terms of pragmatics, the usage of "bubi" sentence and "mai……kwa" sentence are very similar. There is a word used to emphasize the meaning in "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentences. Although the words used and their functions are different, the meaning of the sentences, which is "A is not predicate than B" are emphasized. Apart from this, both sentences are normally used with negative meaning predicates to affirm the sentence. Along with this, "bubi" and "mai……kwa" sentences can be used to express counter-expectation and politeness.

Summary

From the comparative analysis between “bubi” and “mai……kwa” at the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic level it can be concluded that there are both similarities and differences of negative comparatives “bubi”, and “mai……kwa” sentences. At the syntactic level, more comparative predicate patterns are used in “bubi” sentence. “mai……kwa” sentence patterns are simpler than “bubi” sentence patterns. At the semantic level, “bubi” and “mai……kwa” sentences are used to express the same meaning, which is A’s level is not higher than B’s. In judging whether A’s level is lower than or equal to B’s, we need to analyze the context of those sentences. At the pragmatic level, the usage of “bubi” and “mai……kwa” sentences are very similar. Both sentences can be used in double negation to emphasize the affirmative meaning. They can also be used to express counter-expectation in comparison. Lastly, both “bubi” and “mai……kwa” sentences are used to express the same types of politeness, which are respectfulness and modesty.

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An Investigation of Students' Motivation in English Language Learning: A Case Study of Graduate School of Business Students, Assumption University

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Abstract

The study was designed in an attempt to investigate students' perceptions toward motivational factors in relation to English language learning. Mixed methods were applied to collect the data. Quantitative data were collected from a purposively selected sample of 154 Graduate School of Business students through a questionnaire and analyzed by using descriptive statistical analysis. A semi-structured interview was conducted with six purposively selected students and data were analyzed by thematic content analysis. The quantitative results reported that the most significant factors affecting students' motivation were the motivational factors in an integrative and instrumental motivation categories. The qualitative data also supported the quantitative findings that other motivational factors including self-confidence, family support and teacher motivation affected students' motivation in relation to English language learning. These results provide essential implications to the novice, in-service, experienced teachers, policymakers, program coordinators, curriculum planners and course teachers to understand and adapt the students' perceptions toward motivation in English language learning in the curriculum.

Keywords: Students' motivation, Motivational factors, English language learning

Introduction

"There are no magic motivational buttons that can be pushed to 'make' people want to learn, work hard, and act in a responsible manner" (Ford, 1992). Motivation is considered as the most important factor in many educational studies. Students' persistence, goals, and effort lead them to be successful in the academic achievement. In other words, appropriate class material and curriculum as well as good teaching style and strategies might not be enough to ensure the student's academic achievement. Therefore, students need to have a degree of motivation to lead them to being successful learners (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). In the learning context where English is used as the medium of instruction (EMI), motivation is also one of the most important components to drive students to success.

In the Thai context, the role of English as a medium of instruction has been developed among many schools and universities, particularly in international institutions at tertiary level. There were 884 international programs using English as a medium of instruction. This includes Bachelor's degrees (296 programs), Master's degrees (350 programs) and Doctoral degrees (215 programs) (Study in Thailand 2008-2009, 2008). Hengsadeekul, Hengsadeekul, Koul and Kaewkuekool (2010) stated that the problem is not with the role of English as a medium of instruction but how to motivate students where English is used as the medium of instruction both inside and outside the classroom to create successful learners who are proficient in English.

English language is a major requirement in the era of globalization because English has become the business lingua franca. People need to cooperate with others across the world for their business, trade, and travel. This issue has increased the need for people to use English to communicate and facilitate the global workforce, economy, culture, and technology (Crystal, 1997). The phenomenon of internationalization, marketization, and globalization also increases the growth of English as a medium of instruction in non-English speaking countries in higher education**.** English as a medium of instruction is believed to offer good opportunities for students to be successful in academic advancement and professional accomplishment (Byan et al., 2011; Fox, 2007; Vogt & Oliver, 1998).

At the tertiary level, the role of English as a medium of instruction helps students to improve their language skills by learning the course content through English (Coleman, 2006; Collins, 2010). However, many studies emphasize the students' low motivation as a major problem toward English language learning in an international program (Arkin, 2013; Diesan, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2005). Therefore, this study is guided by the premise of motivational factors, namely, internal factors (attitude, anxiety, self-confidence and integrative motivation) and

external factors (teacher, parents, peers and instrumental motivation) which are believed to affect the graduate students' motivation in the international learning context where English is used as a medium of instruction.

Objectives of the Study

1. To investigate the Graduate School of Business students' perceptions toward the motivational factors in relation to English language learning; and
2. To investigate the extent motivational factors affect Graduate School of Business students in the international learning context.

Research Questions

1. What are the Graduate School of Business students' perceptions toward the motivational factors in relation to English language learning?
2. How do the motivational factors affect the Graduate School of Business students in the international learning context?

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Sources: Dörnyei (1994), Oxford and Shearin (1994) and William and Burden (1997)

The conceptual framework of this study is illustrated in Figure 1. It represents the key motivational factors both internal and external factors by based on L2 motivational theories framework from Dörnyei's (1994), Oxford and Shearin's (1994) and William and Burden's

(1997) framework of L2 motivation.

Research Methodology

Context of the Study

This study was conducted with Graduate School of Business students, Master of Business Administration, Assumption University of Thailand, Hua Mak campus where English is used as foreign/second language and a major medium of instruction. The university is located in Bangkok, Thailand and is generally considered to be the first international university of the nation. According to the Master's degree information regarding students obtained from the Office of Registration, many nationalities are enrolled in the Master of Business Administration: Thai, Burmese, Iranian, Chinese, Bangladeshi, Nepalese, Vietnamese, Cambodian, Venezuelan, Indian, Taiwanese, French, and German. Thai students are in the majority accounting for 75% of total students (Office of Registration, Assumption University, 2017).

Methodology

This study applied the sequential explanatory mixed mode design. As Creswell (2003) suggested, the sequential explanatory mixed methods are used to collect and analyze the quantitative data following by the qualitative data. The Likert scale of four questionnaires were used as a research instrument to collect the quantitative data. The qualitative data was collected from semi-structured interviews to gain more specific and detail information from students in order to understand how the motivational factors affect the Graduate School of Business students in an international learning context. The descriptive statistical analysis was applied to compute the frequencies and percentages from the questionnaires. The interview was conducted face-to- face, following by the semi-structured interview protocol. The results of the interview were transcribed and analyzed by the thematic content analysis.

Participants

The participants of the study were 154 Graduate School of Business students, Master of Business Administration using English as a foreign and second language as well as students who registered in the Graduate School of Business course during the trimester 1/2017 (September-December, 2017). The participants were 84.4% Thai and 15.6% non-Thai whose ages ranged from 22-30 years old. They were 70.1% female and 29.9% male.

Research Instrument

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was adapted from three sources including Dornyei's motivation questionnaire in the 2008-2009 comparative survey project in Japan, China and Iran (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009); motivation questionnaire used in the 2013 Chinese survey (You, Dörnyei, & Csizer, 2016); and English language learning survey (Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994). The questionnaire in this study consisted of three parts: the first part was the demographic information of the participants, which included gender, age, nationality, program study, monthly income, work experience and English learning experience. The second part comprised of 32-items with eight group items pools under the modification of motivation conceptual framework of Dörnyei's (1994), Oxford and Shearin's (1994) and William and Burden's (1997) framework of L2 motivation. The Likert scale of four items was constructed where 1 indicated strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 agree and 4 strongly agree. The main language in the questionnaire was English as the respondents were master's degree students able to comprehend English language well.

Semi-Structured Interview

The objective of using semi-structured interview is to extend the students' perceptions and attitude toward the motivation in English language learning in order to answer the second research question on how the motivational factors affect the students in international language learning. The set of prepared guide questions and prompt questions were planned to encourage the elaboration on in-depth detail concerning issues relevant to students' motivation in English language learning divided into eight themes of motivational factors based on L2 motivational theories framework from Dörnyei's (1994), Oxford and Shearin's (1994) and William and Burden's (1997) framework of L2 motivation. They consisted of questions related to attitude, anxiety, self-confidence, integrative motivation, parents, teacher, peers, and instrumental motivation.

Data Collection

The questionnaire was distributed and collected with the aid of the program coordinator for each program. It was given to the respondents approximately 15 minutes before class started. The program coordinator followed up with students who did not attend the class. All questionnaires were returned to the researcher within two weeks. The interview was conducted with six students

who were purposively selected to answer the questions. They were three Thai students and three non-native students who were English speaking from Bangladesh, Iran and Taiwan. In addition, a voice recorder and written notes were used to record the data and the interview was conducted in English.

Data Analyses

Quantitative Data Analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis using the frequencies and percentages were used to calculate the demographic information of the participants. The second part of the questionnaire used the Likert scale of four for the 32-questionnaire items and data were analyzed using frequencies and percentages and grouped into two main parts which are agreement and disagreement.

Qualitative Data Analysis

The thematic content analysis was applied to analyze the responses of participants from the semi-structured interview. The data obtained from the semi-structured interview were transcribed and quantified on the frequency of similar responses and analyzed by content and theme. In addition, the interview transcript was presented in the form of excerpts or quotes to confirm and elaborate on the quantitative data of the results.

Results

Questionnaire Results

Table 1 shows the total frequencies and percentages of student's perceptions toward the motivational factors in relation to English language learning. The results show that the most significant factors which affect students' motivation in relation to English language learning are in the integrative and instrumental motivation categories. Equal scores of frequencies and percentages of agreement rate were obtained. This revealed that students are integratively and instrumentally motivated to learn English. This motivation stems from not only wanting to meet with various people around the world and to learn their culture and social life, but also to find a good job position with well-paid salary.

Table 1: Frequency and Percentage of Student's Perceptions toward Motivational Factors in Relation to English Language Learning (N=154)

Item No.	Statement Items	Agree		Disagree		Categories
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
2	**I would like to use English well because it will allow me to meet with more and various people around the world.**	**150**	**97.4**	**4**	**2.6**	**Integrative Motivation**
17	**Studying English is important to me because I think it will be useful in getting a good job and a high salary.**	**150**	**97.4**	**4**	**2.6**	**Instrumental Motivation**
15	I like to learn English in an all English environment	146	94.8	8	5.2	Attitude toward Learning English
24	It motivates me when my teacher clearly explains the course content in English	143	92.9	11	7.1	Teacher Influence
30	My parents/family believe that I must study English to be an educated person	132	85.7	22	14.3	Parental Encouragement
11	I am sure I will be capable of reading and understanding most text in English	131	85.1	23	14.9	Linguistic Self-Confidence
28	If I feel my friends are the positive toward learning English, it motivates me to learn also.	130	84.4	24	15.6	Peer Influence
6	I start to panic when I have to speak English without preparation	73	47.4	81	52.6	Anxiety

Interview Results

The second research question answers how the students view the motivational factors in relation to English language learning in the international learning context. The interview results were obtained from six students. They revealed that the self-confidence, family support and teacher motivation are the most significant motivational factors that affect their English language learning. A few examples from the interviews are presented below.

Linguistic Self-confidence

When students were asked whether they brought a script with them during presentation time, the majority said they did not. They were confident in public speaking.

Excerpt 1: *"I did not use a script to speak out. I already adapted to the way I think. I already planned ahead what I should talk next. Everything already planned out before so I can just speak. You can give the topic and about five minutes, I can present".*

Family support

All six interview participants reported they were supported by their parents to learn English and that parents perceived the importance of learning English as a second and international language.

Excerpt 2: *"My mother thinks that English is the most important language to study because she said that when she was young, she did not has many opportunities to study English but she likes to learn English. So, when she had children, she wanted her children to be better than her by having some English knowledge because she told me that if I knew English well, I can go anywhere in the world. It likes English is the second language".*

Teacher motivation

Teacher influence or teacher motivation was also a significant motivational factor. Particularly, the teacher's teaching style and strategies were important aspects of teacher motivation.

Excerpt 3: *"Normally, when I was at primary, they try to encourage to speak out may give me the drawing and try to show out what is this? When I go to more advance as high school, they give me the drama play. The drama play helps me to learn English a lot. I try to act out the scene. In high school, I have Shakespeare, the English literature about Romeo and Juliet and some other historical dramas such as World War I, World War II dramas and those kinds of thing. These encourage me a lot".*

Discussion

According to the findings from both quantitative and qualitative analysis, the students' motivation in English language learning is affected by both internal and external factors. The most influential internal factors are the statement items from integrative categories and self-confidence. This conclusion aligns with the findings of Cokley, Bernard, Cunningham, and Motoike (2001), Lin, McKeachie, and Kim (2003), and Wang (2008) who stated that integrative

motivation is an internal factor which promotes students' motivation to learn English in the international learning context. The students with integrative motivation demonstrated more interest in English, put more effort into English language learning, and had a high academic-self-concept and high self-efficacy which permitted them to put effort to improving their English skills and language learning process. In terms of linguistic self-confidence, the study of Clement, Gardner, and Smythe (1977) and Park and Lee (2004) supported that linguistic self-confidence is a dimension of motivation which is characterized as being free of anxiety and an important psychological construct in motivational studies. Linguistic self-confidence facilitates students' motivation in learning English since it is related to general self-confidence which leads students to become successful learners. Therefore, there is a significant relationship between self-confidence and success in oral communication.

Instrumental motivation, teacher influence, and parental encouragement are considered as the most significant external factors affecting students' motivation to learn English. The quantitative data highlighted that students are also instrumentally motivated to learn the English language. This similar point was reported by Gardner, Smyth, and Clement (1979) and Johnson (2001) who stated that students who learn L2 for external benefits such as finding good jobs and high income are instrumentally motivated to learn English. In addition, Altasan (2016) indicated that non-native English learners are more likely to be more instrumentally motivated in relation to English language learning regardless if they were from a non-native English learners group. They learned English for utilitarian purposes more than integrative purposes when compared with native English speaking students.

The qualitative data indicated that the teacher influence or the teacher motivation is a factor which motivates and demotivates students to learn the language. The study is similar to Dörnyei, (1994, 2001a, 2001b), Dörnyei and Crizer (1998), Jaques (2001), Oxford and Shearin (1994), and Stemberg and William (2002) who reported that the students regarded the teacher's teaching style, including their use of particular teaching abilities and skills, techniques and materials to be the most significant factor that can either motivate or demotivate students' motivation in English language learning. Moreover, family support or parental encouragement can enhance students' motivation to learn English. This similar point was reported by Mormori (2007), Nair et al. (2014), and Paran and Tibil (2009) who stated that parents show a positive attitude toward learning English because they knew that English language knowledge facilitates their children to be an educated person. In Thai culture, particularly, parental encouragement is perceived as a significant factor in academic achievement including learning English because

Thais are closer to their families than westerners in almost every aspect of their lives, including the academic field.

Pedagogical implications

There are a few pedagogical implications with regards to teaching and learning in this study. Interesting materials and appropriate teaching styles and strategies are required to be implemented. Students' emphasis on teacher influence, especially in terms of teacher's teaching style, is viewed positively and negatively by students as the factor that motivates them to learn English. Moreover, workshops are needed to improve and develop teachers' English proficiency in order to enhance their English knowledge and ability. They can apply these to create and design a supportive and effective English language class. In addition, student practice of English inside and outside of the classroom is required to be added to the curriculum to give them more opportunities to speak English. Teacher feedback is also needed to show students their strengths and weakness. Students, therefore, can reduce their shyness which is related to anxiety and nervousness. Lastly, the policymakers, program coordinators, curriculum planners and teachers are able to adapt the perceptions of motivation in English language learning in the current curriculum. The curriculum should consist of both integrative and instrumental aspects. The results of the study show that students are both integratively and instrumentally motivated to learn English. The teacher should teach students to respect the English speaking countries' culture and to ensure that students are able to have good English proficiency for external benefits such as finding good jobs with high salary. Therefore, the appropriateness of the course objective, lesson plans, and assessment procedures are required to be adapted to suit the learning needs and learners' diversity in the classroom.

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The Implication of Customers' Social Engagement in Tiffany's Fanpage on their Perceived Brand equity, Customer Satisfaction, and their Behavioral Intention to Purchase Tiffany Jewelry

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Abstract

In this research the relationships among customers' social engagement, perceived brand equity, customer satisfaction, and their behavioral intention to purchase Tiffany jewelry is investigated. The samples consisted of current Facebook users, aged over 18 years old with Asian nationality, who are current customers and non-customers of Tiffany & Co.. Two-hundred customers of Tiffany jewelry were selected to participate in this survey using purposive sampling and convenience sampling method. The mean, standard deviation, and percentages were tabulated and analyzed using T-test, One-way ANOVA, Multiple Regression, and Spearman's Rank Correlation with the significance level of .05. The results revealed the following points: firstly, fifty-eight percent of customers engaged in social engagements in Tiffany's Fanpage at the frequency of "sometimes" per month. They perceived the brand equity positively, and they had high satisfaction toward Tiffany jewelry. Customers had high behavioral intention to purchase Tiffany jewelry. Secondly, customers' social media engagement in Tiffany's Fanpage was associated with their perceived brand equity of Tiffany, including brand image, brand loyalty, brand awareness, and perceived quality, respectively. Thirdly, customer satisfaction and brand equity are significant predictors of customers' behavioral intention to purchase, which account for 57.4% of customers' behavioral intention to purchase Tiffany products. When examining both predictors in the same model, customers' perceived brand equity having higher influence on customers' behavioral intention to purchase than their satisfaction toward the products.

Keywords: Jewelry, Tiffany & Co., social media, social engagement, customer satisfaction, brand equity, behavioral intention to purchase.

Introduction

The global luxury goods market has been growing at a fast pace, driven by strong growth in the Asian markets. Especially in China, the demand for luxury goods has been registering strong growth over the years because of the rapid economic development and higher disposable income in the hands of customers. China has become a key market for luxury retailers with an attractive growth rate because of its large population, high number of densely populated large cities, growing affluence, and local consumers' appetite for luxury, as well as, globally recognized brands (Tiffany & Co., 2016). The top five jewelry brands are Cartier, Van Cleef & Arpel, Chopard, Bvlgari, and Harry Winston. Tiffany and Co. is another leading jewelry brand that has to compete with other global jewelry brands.

According to industry estimates, Chinese luxury goods market is expected to grow at a rate of more than 70% during 2013–2018. Tiffany has been focusing on increasing its presence in the emerging markets. In 2015, the company operated 73 stores in Asia-Pacific, including 26 stores in China, 14 in Korea, nine in Hong Kong, eight in Taiwan, seven in Australia, five in Singapore, and two each in Macau and Malaysia. Also, as part of its long-term strategy to expand its store base, the company plans to open 12 to 15 stores in 2016, with the majority of expansion planned in Asia-Pacific. The strong growth in the luxury markets in emerging markets will facilitate increased revenues (Tiffany & Co., 2016).

Trying to define luxury in terms of what it does, Berthon, Pitt, Parent, and Berthon (2009) stated that luxury brands consisted of three components—including the functional (where luxury has its material embodiment–what it can do), the symbolic (representing the value it signifies to others, both signifies to the social and individual), and the experiential (the realm of the object's individual subjective value). Since the jewelry industry is a service industry, the key to business success is to provide customers with good quality jewelry and quality service (Zhong, 2005). In order to meet the needs of the consumers, providing a high-quality product and quality service to attract customers are crucial factors. Kuo (2010) found that customers would care more about brand image, the quality of service, whether the brand would create a pleasant experience in the entire process of purchasing, and whether the brand equity add value to their own identity. As for the brand equity and customer equity, they are the two key factors generating trustworthy assessments to the company value (Romero & Yagüe, 2015). Kumar, Lemon, and Parasuraman (2006) claimed that the most important elements for companies to enhance long term value are managing the bond between brand equity and customer equity together.

Past studies have confirmed that social media brand communication influences customers'

positive perception of brand equity of the company (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2015) and their intention to purchase (Gunawardane, 2015). Social media platforms are currently easy-to-use channels to convey and manage jewelers' image. They provided an effective method to reach the customers that should be adopted by dealers running jewelry businesses. In the past, the brand of Tiffany Jewelry was promoted using traditional advertising channel, such as TV sponsor catwalk show, sponsoring the celebrities to participate in some activities, and promoting company brochures or billboards on the street to communicate with target audience (Wu, 2015). Nowadays, Tiffany & Co. has adjusted the strategy to connect and interact with customers by using social media platform of Facebook to publicize the jewelry to customers and promote interaction with customers 24 hours. However, there was limited research that examined the relationship between social engagement in Facebook on the customers' brand equity, satisfaction, and purchase decision. To increase the knowledge about the impact of social media via Facebook on customers' perception and expectation of the products and service, the objectives of the research are (1) to examine the relationship between consumers' frequency of social engagement on Facebook of Tiffany & Co. and their perceived brand equity, (2) to examine the relationship between consumers' brand equity of Tiffany & Co. and their customer satisfaction towards the brand, and (3) to predict the factors influencing consumers' behavioral intention to purchase the product.

Literature Review

Types of Social Media

Social-media-based advertising differs from traditional media like TV commercials, permitting interaction between company and customers. Social-media-based advertisings can be divided into 2 categories, including earned social media and owned social media. Stephen and Galak (2012) defined earned social media as activity that is indirectly generated by the brand owners and their agent, while owned social media is directly generated by the owner or its agents. Thus, the marketing actions from the owner will facilitate earned social media activity, however, the owner does not precisely generate the activity. In fact, owned social media is social media activity that was generated by the owner of the social networking services (e.g., Facebook) (Stephen & Galak, 2012). Tiffany & Co. used both earned social and owned social media although majority of social media-based advertisements were owned social media.

Relationship between Brand Equity and Customer Satisfaction

Brand equity is a collection of assets or liabilities associated with the brand name and symbol,

increasing or decreasing the customer or user value through the products or services they provided (Keller, 1993). Brand equity can be defined as 'an added value or asset to a brand and product' and such a value is made of 'customers' positive feelings, thinking, and acting towards purchasing a product'. The value is determined by the customers' perception and life-time experience from obtained from the after a lifetime of interactions with customers (Keller, 1993). "Customer-based brand equity (CBBE) occurs when the consumer has a high level of awareness and familiarity with the brand and holds some strong, favorable, and unique brand associations in memory" (Keller, 2013, p.73). Brand equity is composed of their perceived brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand association and other aspects (Romero & Yagüe, 2015). Companies can create brand equity for their product by making them memorable, easily cognizable and superiority in quality and pliability.

Brand equity is an antecedent of customer satisfaction toward the product or service because the impression toward the products will affect how customers establish certain standard of evaluation based upon how the products or services gratify their expectations. Customer satisfaction can be defined as a measure of how products and services supplied by a company meet or surpass customer expectation. It is a psychological state in the buyer's compensation for the purchase price and the compensation (Hempel, 1977; Howard & Sheth, 1969).

Customers who have purchased the goods would utilize their purchase experience to formulate a set of standards. Customers will develop a positive or negative impression and evaluation on the products according to the nature of purchase experience, which will consequently generate customer satisfaction (Cadotte, Woodruff, & Jenkins, 1987). Rootman and Cupp (2016) revealed that social media affect the customer satisfaction and retention in banking industry and the resulting in banks developing a guideline to increase customer satisfaction and customer retention by using their social media channels. Facebook is a significant social network that is used by jewelry businesses to connect with the customers and non-customers to promote the brand image of the company, however, very limited study has explored the impact of social media in promoting the brand equity and satisfaction of jewelry business. Hence, the researcher has used Lassar, Mittal, and Sharma's (cited in Lee & Leh, 2011) Customer-Based Brand Equity and Tiffany & Co.'s Satisfaction Scale, used in the jewelry business (Tiffany & Co., 2016), as a framework to test hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2 as follows:

H1: A variation in customers' perceived brand equity was significantly associated with their frequency of social media engagement.

H2: Customers' brand equity (brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, and

brand loyalty) is positively correlated with their satisfaction toward Tiffany brand.

Impact of Brand Equity and Customer Satisfaction on Behavioral Intention to Purchase

The researcher used Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) as a theoretical framework to posit the relationship between customers' satisfaction and intention to purchase. TRA underscores the relationship between attitudes and behaviors within human action. TRA predicts how individuals will behave based on their pre-existing attitudes and behavioral intentions. An individual's decision to engage in a particular behavior is based on the individual's motivation and expectation in performing the behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). TRA model in Figure 1 shows the prerequisite factors for performing the actions are as follows:

1. Attitude (AT) is a continuing assessment of the likes or dislikes of a particular object or idea, as attitude predicts performance.
2. Subjective norm (SN) was described as the individual's feeling of pressure by society to follow a particular behavior, especially influenced by their perceptions of the beliefs of those around them: parents, friends, colleagues, partners, etc. The stronger the subjective norm you have, the more pressure you are likely to have.
3. Perceived behavioral control (PBC) refers to the perception of a person's ability to control resources and opportunities when he or she is engaged in a particular activity. Not only including individual desires, but also non- motivational factors, such as time, money, skills, opportunities, abilities, resources, or policies. For instance, someone wants to engage in a particular behavior, but he or she is unable to have genuine actions because certain factors are out of their control.
4. Behavior intention (BI) refers to a person's beliefs, especially the consequences of a particular action. These beliefs will vary with the crowd.

This study examines how the individual's social information being exposed from the Tiffany's Fanpage will affect the attitude component, which, is shaped by the perceived brand equity and customer satisfaction. However, the study did not explore the perceived norm and perceived behavioral control.

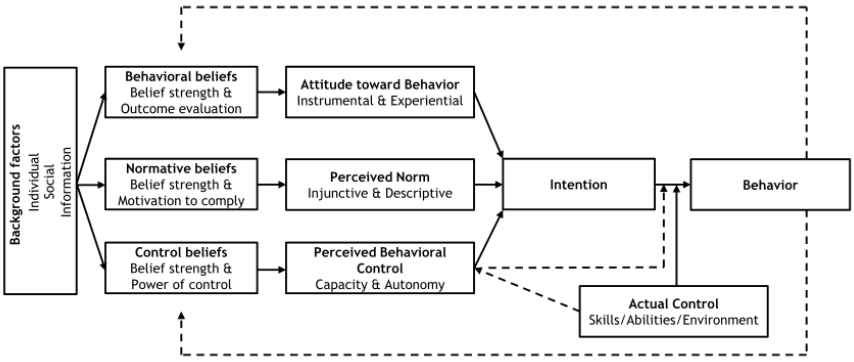


Figure 1: Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) Model

The collaborative feature of social media that include earned and owned social activities, raises their brand publicity by scale-up online buzz (Goldsmith, 2002). However, there is limited knowledge that explains the associate marketing effectiveness of exposure to earned and owned social media activities in a single social networking platform on client choices for intentions to buy. Moreover, the interrelated impact of the two kinds of social media activity on decisions is still hard to easily understand. The impact triggered a trend that customers who received brand-related information from social media were more likely to have a purchase behavior than the people who received brand related information from traditional media (Olbrich & Holsing, 2011; Trusov, Bucklin, & Pauwels, 2009).

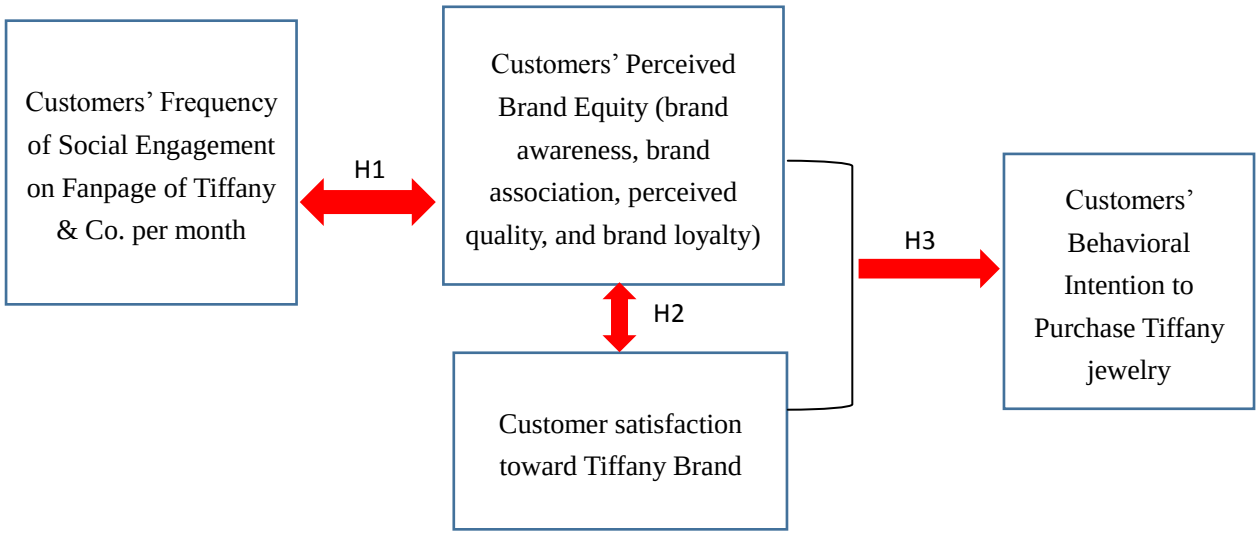
Despite the logical that more exposures to brand social media activities could have a better impact on customers buying decision regardless the sources, owned and earned social media activity (which were dependent on one another) will have an effect on customer selections (Xie & Lee, 2015). Customer selections were shaped by their attitude toward the product, which is affected by their evaluation of the purchase experience. Thus, customers' satisfaction was an influential factor that shapes the attitude toward the products. However, few studies have examined the impact of social media exposure on their customers' perceived brand equity and satisfaction in the jewelry business, which are antecedents of customers' intention of purchase as suggested in TRA. Thus, TRA was used to formulate hypothesis 3 as follows:

H3: Customers' brand equity and customer satisfaction towards Tiffany are significant predictors of customer intention to purchase the Tiffany jewelry.

Hence, the researcher examined the impact of social engagement in Facebook on Tiffany Co. and their customers' perceived brand equity and the relationship between brand equity and

satisfaction. Most importantly, the knowledge gap between brand equity and customers' behavioral intention to purchase or not will be explored in this study to reveal the significant predictors of customers' behavioral intention to purchase Tiffany products. The following theoretical framework was formulated:

Theoretical Framework



Research Methodology

The population of this study was current Facebook users, aged over 18 years old with Asian nationality, who were current Tiffany customers and non-Tiffany customers. Two-hundred customers of Tiffany jewelry were selected to participate in this survey using purposive sampling and convenience sampling method.

The researcher analyzed the data by using T-test, One-way ANOVA, Multiple Regression, and Spearman Rank Correlation with the significance level of .05. In the questionnaire, there were five parts, including demographic information, Facebook usage frequency, brand equity, customer satisfaction toward Tiffany products and services, and intention to purchase Tiffany products. There were 30 questions using likert scale, having 5 levels ranging from 1 "Disagree" to 5 "Strongly agreeable." Lassar, Mittal, and Sharma CBBE (cited in Lee & Leh, 2011) was used to examine the brand equity toward Tiffany products. All parts have reliability test higher than 0.70, which is considered as an acceptable instrument. The Cronbach's alpha of the overall brand equity was 0.661. When examining each constructs of brand equity, the results reported that the Cronbach's alpha of the brand awareness was 0.929, brand association was 0.903,

perceived quality was 0.858, brand loyalty was .878, and brand image was 0.916. The Cronbach's alpha of customer's satisfaction was 0.958, and customers' purchase decision was 0.782. The Cronbach's alpha of customers' purchase decision is 0.782, respectively.

Results

The analysis of One-Way ANOVA in Table 1 revealed that a variation in the customers' frequency of social media engagement had significant influence on their perceived brand equity ($F_{(4, 200)} = 8.841^*$, $p<.05$). When examining each key construct of brand equity, it was found that the customers' social engagement influenced their brand loyalty ($F_{(4, 200)} = 8.349^*$, $p<.05$) , brand association ($F_{(4, 200)} = 7.868^*$, $p<.05$), brand awareness ($F_{(4, 200)} = 5.752^*$, $p<.05$), perceived quality ($F_{(4, 200)} = 4.469^*$, $p<.05$), and brand image ($F_{(4, 200)} = 10.186^*$, $p<.05$), respectively. The results revealed that customers' frequency of social engagement in Tiffany's Fanpage significantly influenced their perceived brand equity toward brand loyalty, brand association, perceived quality, brand awareness, perceived quality, and brand image, respectively. Least Significant Difference (LSD) analysis in Table 2 found that customers who have never engaged in Tiffany's Fanpage had significant different brand equity from those who rarely (I-J = -.38748* $p<.05$), sometimes (I-J = -.47215*, $p<.05$), frequently (I-J = -.85040*, $p<.05$), and most frequently (I-J = -.90067*, $p<.05$) engaged in the Tiffany's Fanpage. Customers who rarely engaged in Tiffany's Fanpage had significant different brand equity from those who never (I-J = .38748*, $p<.05$), and frequently engaged in Tiffany's Fanpage (I-J = -.46293*, $p<.05$). However, customers who frequently engaged in Tiffany's Fanpage had significant different brand equity from those never (I-J = .85040*, $p<.05$), rarely (I-J = .46293*, $p<.05$), and sometimes (I-J = .37826*, $p<.05$) engaged in Tiffany's Fanpage. The results suggested that the brand equity was negatively associated with the low frequency of social engagement and positively associated with high frequency of social engagement.

Table 1: One-Way ANOVA on customers' social engagement and their perceived brand equity of Tiffany

Dependent variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Brand Equity	12.233	4	3.058	8.841*	.000
Brand Awareness	9.382	4	2.346	5.752*	.000
Brand Association	12.578	4	3.144	7.868*	.000
Perceived Quality	7.259	4	1.815	4.469*	.002
Brand Loyalty	16.602	4	4.150	8.349*	.000
Brand Image	18.931	4	4.733	10.186*	.000

Note: p<0.05* (Sig.), n = 200

Table 2: LSD analysis for testing the between-subject effects for social media engagement and customer's overall brand equity

Dependent variable	(I) Frequency of Social Engagement in Tiffany's Fanpage	(J) Frequency of Social Engagement in Tiffany's Fanpage	(I-J) Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Brand Equity	Never	Rarely	-.38748*	.13703	.005
		Sometimes	-.47215*	.13902	.001
		Frequently	-.85040*	.15146	.000
		Most frequently	-.90067*	.31673	.005
	Rarely	Never	.38748*	.13703	.005
		Sometimes	-.08467	.10214	.408
		Frequently	-.46293*	.11851	.000
		Most frequently	-.51319	.30236	.091
	Sometimes	Never	.47215*	.13902	.001
		Rarely	.08467	.10214	.408
		Frequently	-.37826*	.12081	.002
		Most frequently	-.42852	.30327	.159
	Frequently	Never	.85040*	.15146	.000
		Rarely	.46293*	.11851	.000
		Sometimes	.37826*	.12081	.002
		Most frequently	-.05026	.30917	.871
	Most frequently	Never	.90067*	.31673	.005
		Rarely	.51319	.30236	.091
		Sometimes	.42852	.30327	.159
		Frequently	.05026	.30917	.871

The analysis of Spearman's Rank Correlation in Table 3 showed a positive correlation between customers' satisfaction and brand equity in the high level (r = 0.785***, p<.01). Customers' satisfaction was positively correlated with brand loyalty (r= 0.749***, p<.01),

perceived quality (r= 0.736***, *p*<.01), brand association (r= 0.734***, *p*<.01), brand image (r= 0.727***, *p*<.01), and brand awareness (r= 0.536***, *p*<.01), respectively. The results suggested that customers who have higher satisfaction toward Tiffany products had higher brand association, perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand image, and brand awareness.

Table 3: Nonparametric correlations between brand equity and customers' satisfaction

	Brand Equity	**Satisfaction**
Brand Equity	1.000	.785***
Customers' Satisfaction	.785***	1.000

Note: *p*<0.01*** (Sig.)

Table 4: Spearman correlation of brand equity and customers' satisfaction toward Tiffany products

	Brand Awareness	Brand Association	Perceived Quality	Brand Loyalty	Brand Image	Customers' Satisfaction
Brand Awareness	1.000	.743***	.584***	.636***	.597***	.536***
Brand Association	.743***	1.000	.739***	.790***	.660***	.734***
Perceived Quality	.584***	.739***	1.000	.737***	.706***	.736***
Brand Loyalty	.636***	.790***	.737***	1.000	.756***	.749***
Brand Image	.597***	.660***	.706***	.756***	1.000	.727***
Customers' Satisfaction	.536***	.734***	.736***	.749***	.727***	1.000

Note: *p*<0.01*** (Sig.)

The model summary in Table 5 shows that the Coefficient correlation (R) was 0.758, which advocated that customer satisfaction and brand equity are significant predictors of customer intention to purchase Tiffany products. The Coefficient of determination (R^2) was 0.574. The results suggested that the two predictors—customer satisfaction and brand equity—were accountable for their behavioral intention to purchase at the rate of 57.4%. An increase or decrease in customer satisfaction and brand equity could predict the customers' behavioral intention to purchase at the rate of 57.4%. However, when comparing the two predictors, the Coefficient correlation found the brand equity (Beta = .758*, p < .05) significantly predicted their customers' decision to purchase but customer satisfaction (Beta = .000, p > .05) did not significantly predicted their behavioral intention to purchase Tiffany products.

Table 5: Multiple Regression Analysis of brand equity and customer satisfaction as a predictors of customers' decision to purchase Tiffany products

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.758[a]	.574	.570	.44318	.574	132.935	2	197	.000

Note: a. Predictors: customer satisfaction, brand equity

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	52.219	2	26.110	132.935	.000a

Note : a. Predictors: customer satisfaction, brand equity
b. Dependent Variable: customers' behavioral intention to purchase

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	.606	.212		2.855	.005	.187	1.024
Brand Equity	.808	.113	.758	7.162	.000	.586	1.030
Customers' Satisfaction	9.801E-5	.109	.000	.001	.999	-.215	.215

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Customers' behavioral intention to purchase, $p<0.05$*

It was also found that certain key constructs of brand equity can significantly affect customers' intention to purchase Tiffany products. Model summary in Table 6 showed that customer satisfaction, brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand image are significant predictors of customers' behavioral intention to purchase Tiffany products ($R = .815^a$, $p < .05$) and were accountable for customers' decision to purchase at the rate for 66.5% ($R^2 = .665$*, $p < 0.05$). When examining each predictor, the Coefficient table revealed that customers' behavioral intention to purchase Tiffany products was significantly predicted by brand image (Beta = .634*, p< .05) and brand loyalty (Beta = .212*, p< .05), respectively, but not significantly predicted by other independent variables.

Table 6: Regression analysis on the key constructs of brand equity, satisfaction and behavioral intention to purchase

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.815[a]	.665	.654	.39749	.665	63.735	6	193	.000

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant) satisfaction, brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand association
b. Dependent Variable: customers' behavioral intention to purchase

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	60.419	6	10.070	63.735	.000a

Note : a. Predictors: customer satisfaction, brand equity
b. Dependent Variable: customers' behavioral intention to purchase

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Brand Awareness	-.077	.072	-.076	-1.061	.290	-.219	.066
Brand Association	.054	.104	.054	.521	.603	-.150	.258
Perceived Quality	.071	.093	.069	.759	.449	-.113	.255
Brand Loyalty	.190	.087	.212*	2.179	.031	.018	.362
Brand Image	.578	.070	.634*	8.284	.000	.440	.715
Customer Satisfaction	-.056	.105	-.055	-.540	.590	-.263	.150

Note: Dependent Variable: Behavioral intention to purchase, $p<0.05$*

Discussion of the Study

The findings of Hypothesis 1 coincided with the previous research of the relationship between social media exposure and perceived brand equity positively (Xie & Lee, 2015), which found that exposures of advertising content are more likely to affect the consumer purchase decision. The findings confirmed that the more social media engagement would increase higher brand equity. Similarly, Kim and Ko (2010) found that social media create a great impact on a brand's reputation.

The investigation of Hypothesis 2 showed that customer satisfaction and brand equity positively correlated with each other. According to the past study, brand equity measures can include customer mind-set as well as product market and financial market outputs related to brands (Torres & Josep, 2011). The two dimensions, brand equity and customer satisfaction, can enhance consumer brand resonance for the product. The effect of customer satisfaction on brand resonance is greater than that of brand equity. Tiffany should create brand value for their own customers in order to increase customer satisfaction, put more efforts to maintain the connections with customers, and stay close to customers by using their social media, especially to build up an online interactive communication with their customers via their Facebook Fan page.

The investigation of Hypothesis 3 underscored the power of brand equity on the customers' intention to purchase Tiffany products. The study coincided with the study of Huang, Yen, Liu, and Chang (2014) which found that customers' brand resonance shaped their brand equity toward a product, which affected customers' repurchase intention, and had a significant mediating effect on the influence of customer satisfaction on repurchase intention (Huang, Yen, Liu, & Chang, 2014). Brand resonance can be defined as the relationship that a customer has with a product and how well he/she can relate to it. In addition, brand resonance is shaped by how well the customers were aware of the product, the product's meaning in the mind of the customers, the ability of the brand elicit a response from the customers, and if the product can create a long-term relationship with the customers. The results that brand loyalty and brand image are significant predictors of customers' behavioral intention to purchase showed that customers pay attention to the credibility and trust factors of Tiffany brand, which made them identify well with the brand after being exposed to the Tiffany's Fanpage. However, it was not a significant predictor with other brand elements including brand awareness, brand association, and perceived quality. The study suggested that Tiffany should promote activity in the Fanpage to create awareness, to elicit a continuous response, and to promote a long-term relationship and bonding with the customers.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study revealed predictors of customers' intention to purchase Tiffany products which is a leading jewelry business. Thus, Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) was used as a theoretical framework to examine whether social engagement in Tiffany's Fanpage identifies brand equity and customers satisfaction as predictors of customers' decision to purchase Tiffany products. TRA posited that there is a relationship between attitudes and behaviors within human action.

TRA is used to predict how individuals will behave based on their pre-existing attitudes and behavioral intentions. An individual's decision to engage in a particular behavior is based on the individual's (Ping pai xing xiang fu wu ping zhi he gu ke man yi du guan xi zhi yan jiu -yi Q zhu bao dian wei li) motivation and expectation in performing the behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). TRA model indicated the prerequisite for action included attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intention.

Connecting TRA with the study, people who visited Tiffany's Fanpage with higher frequency had significantly higher brand equity and satisfaction. The higher perceived brand equity can motivate customers to pay for the luxury jewelry in order to gain a sense of superiority with their peers, because they perceived that jewelry is a product that could reflect their personal taste and social values. From the brand equity scale, the majority of the customers had a favorable attitude toward Tiffany products and could identify themselves with the product, agreeing with congruent statements in questionnaire; that that they got more worth than they paid for (the brand), they are proud to own this brand, they will buy this brand to enhance their own personality, and they are willing to pay for it as a gift. This showed that the brand equity of Tiffany jewelry can match with customers' inner demand and satisfaction from both society and themselves. Moreover, they considered purchasing Tiffany jewelry as "a must-do behavior" to promote their status quo or self-image. Consequently, the findings confirmed the brand equity and customer satisfaction were the antecedents of individual's attitude toward the product which significantly predicted customers' behavioral intention to purchase Tiffany products.

Other future research should examine how other variables in the TRA model, including subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intention affect customers' decision to purchase. Future research should examine other social media, such as WeChat, Line or other social platforms, and compare their influence on brand equity, customer satisfaction, and customers' intention to purchase. Future research might examine how cultural values might influence the subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intention to purchase.

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